

**TRENDS TOWARDS GENDER EQUITY IN
SELECTED COMPETITIVE SPORTS IN UGANDA**

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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This work is dedicated to those members of my family, teachers, colleagues and friends who have impacted my life to make me what and/or who I am.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENT	PAGE
Title Page.....	i
Declaration.....	ii
Dedication	iii
Acknowledgement.....	iv
Table of Contents.....	v
List of Tables.....	viii
List of Figures.....	x
Abbreviation and Acronyms.....	xii
Abstract	xiii
 INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background to the Study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	5
1.3 Purpose of the Study.....	6
1.4 Objectives.....	6
1.5 Research Hypotheses.....	7
1.6 Significance of the Study.....	8
1.7 Delimitations of the Study.....	8
1.8 Limitations of the Study.....	9
1.9 Assumptions of the Study.....	9
1.10 Conceptual Framework	10
1.11 Operational Definition of Terms.....	11
 LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Introduction.....	14
2.2 Benefits of Sports.....	14
2.3 Gender Equity in Sports.....	17
2.4 Steps Taken to Reduce Gender Disparity.....	20
2.5 Global Trends Towards Gender Equity in Sports.....	22
2.6 Related Studies.....	27
2.7 Summary	31

CONTENT	PAGE
METHODOLOGY	
3.1 Introduction	32
3.2 Research Design.....	32
3.3 Variables	32
3.4 Location of Study.....	33
3.5 Target Population.....	33
3.6 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size.....	34
3.7 Research Instruments.....	34
3.8 Pilot Study.....	35
3.8.1 Validity.....	36
3.8.2 Reliability.....	36
3.9 Data Collection Techniques.....	37
3.10 Data Analysis.....	37
3.11 Logistical and Ethical Considerations.....	38
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	
4.1 Introduction.....	40
4.2 Questionnaire Returns.....	40
4.3 Demographic Information of Respondents.....	41
4.3.1 Demographic Details by Gender.....	41
4.3.2 Distribution of Respondents by Age.....	42
4.3.3 Demographic Information of the Respondents by Position/Status in Sports.....	43
4.4 Respondents' Experience in Sports.....	44
4.5 Gender Representation of Participants in National Sports Organisations in Uganda.....	45
4.5.1 Gender Representation in Management/Executive Committees.....	46
4.5.2 Gender Representation in Coaching of National Teams in Uganda.....	52
4.5.3 Representation of Athletes in Uganda's National Competitions by Gender.....	54

CONTENT	PAGE
4.6 Trends of Male and Female Participation in Competitive Sports.....	56
4.6.1 Trends of Gender Representation in Sports Management.....	56
4.6.2 Trends of Gender Representation in Coaching at National Level.....	58
4.6.3 Trends of Male and Female Participants in Sports.....	59
4.8 Opportunities Available for Participation of Male and Female in Sports..	61
4.9 Causes of Gender Disparity.....	65
4.9.1 Social Factors.....	65
4.9.2 Cultural Factors and Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports.....	69
4.9.3 Economic Factors.....	73
4.9.4 Political Factors and Gender Inequity in Sports.....	75
4.10 Strategies to Enhance Gender Equity.....	79
 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
5.1 Introduction.....	84
5.2 Summary.....	84
5.2.1 Summary of Findings on Gender Representation of Board/Executive Committee Members, Coaches and Athletes.....	85
5.2.2 Summary of Findings on the Trends in Numbers of Male and Female Participants.....	86
5.2.3 Summary of Findings on the Opportunities Available for Men and Women in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	87
5.2.4 Summary of Findings on the Causes of Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	87
5.2.5 Summary of Findings on the Strategies to Enhance Gender Equity in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	89
5.3 Implications of Findings.....	89
5.4 Conclusions.....	91
5.5 Recommendations for Policy and Practice.....	92
5.6 Recommendations for Further Research.....	93
References	95
Appendices	102

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
Table 2	Participation of Men and Women in the Olympic Games.....	24
Table 4.1	Return Rate of Questionnaires.....	40
Table 4.2	Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents on Men and Women's Participation in Competitive Sports.....	45
Table 4.3	ANOVA Summary Table on Men and Women's Participation in Competitive Sports.....	45
Table 4.4	Independent Samples t-test of the Ratios of male to Female Members of the Board/ Executive Committees.....	49
Table 4.5	Independent Samples t-test of the Ratios of male to Female General Secretaries of Federations.....	
Table 4.6	Independent Samples t-test of the Ratios of male to Female Coaches of Female Teams.....	58
Table 4.7	Independent Samples t-test of the Ratios of male to Female Athletes at National Level.....	55
Table 4.8	Opportunity Index for Male and Female Participants in Competitive Sports.....	61
Table 4.9	Independent Sample t-test of the Opportunity Indices for Male and Female Sports Participants.....	64
Table 4.10	Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents on Social Factors that led to Gender Disparity.....	66
Table 4.11	ANOVA Summary Table on Social Causes of Gender Disparity.....	68
Table 4.12	Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents on Cultural Factors that Cause Gender Disparity.....	69
Table 4.13	ANOVA Summary Table on Cultural Factors that Cause Gender Disparity.....	71
Table 4.14	Frequencies and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents' Rating of Economic Factors as being Causes of Gender Disparity.....	72
Table 4.15	ANOVA Summary Table on Economic Factors as Causes of Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports.....	73
Table 4.16	Summary of Tukey HSD test by Position on Economic Factors as Causes of Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports.....	74
Table 4.17	Frequencies and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents' Rating on Political Factors as Causes of Gender Disparity in Sports.....	75

TABLE		PAGE
Table 4.18	Summary Table of ANOVA Results of Political Factors as Causes of Gender Disparity.....	76
Table 4.19	Frequencies and Percentage of the Respondents on Strategies to Improve Gender Equity in Competitive Sports.....	78
Table 4.20	Means of Respondents' Views on Strategies to Reduce Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports.....	

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		PAGE
Figure 1.1	Model developed from the Brighton Declaration (UK Sports Council, 1998) and the International Olympic Committee (2005) and modified by the researcher.....	11
Figure 2.1	Percentages of Male and Female Athletes in Great Britain.....	25
Figure 2.2	Percentages of Male and Female Coaches in Great Britain.....	26
Figure 2.3	Percentages of scholarships Awarded to Men and Women Between 1996 and 2004.....	26
Figure 4.1	Demographic Distribution of the Respondents by Gender.....	41
Figure 4.2	Age Categories of the Respondents.....	42
Figure 4.3	Respondents' Positions/Status.....	43
Figure 4.4	Length of Experience of Respondents' Participation in Competitive Sports.....	44
Figure 4.5	Means of Respondents on Men and Women's Participation in Competitive Sports.....	47
Figure 4.6	Proportion of Male to Female Members of the Board/Executive Committees.....	
Figure 4.7	Proportion of Male to Female Chairpersons of Sports Associations/Federations in Uganda.....	50
Figure 4.8	Proportion of Male to Female of the General Secretaries of Sports Associations/Federations in Uganda.....	51
Figure 4.9	Gender of the Coaches for Male Teams in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	52
Figure 4.10	Gender of the Coaches for Female Teams in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	53
Figure 4.11	Ratio of Male to Female Athletes in Uganda's National-Level Sports Competitions.....	55
Figure 4.12	Trends for Members of Boards/Executive Committees of Sports Organisations.....	57
Figure 4.13	Forecasts of the Trends Towards Gender Equity for Boards/Executive Committee Members.....	57
Figure 4.14	Trends of Coaches for Females Teams in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	58

FIGURE	PAGE
Figure 4.15 Forecasted Trends for Coaches of Female Teams in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	59
Figure 4.16 Trends of Male and Female Athletes in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	60
Figure 4.17 Forecasts of the Trends Towards Gender Equity for Athletes.....	60
Figure 4.18 Opportunity Indices for Male and Female Sports Participants.....	63
Figure 4.19 Overall Means of Respondents' Views about Social Factors that Lead to Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	
Figure 4.20 Overall Means of Respondents' Views about Cultural Factors that Lead to Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	
Figure 4.21 Overall Means of Respondents' Views about Economic Factors that Lead to Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	
Figure 4.22 Overall Means of Respondents' Views about Political Factors that Lead to Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	
Figure 4.23 Overall Means of Strategies to Reduce Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda.....	

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
HSD	Honestly Significant Differences
IFs	International Federations
IOC	International Olympic Committee
IWG	International Working Group on Women and Sport
NOCs	National Olympic Committees
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

ABSTRACT

Participation of women in sports has been very low as compared to that of men world over. Studies have shown that women are underrepresented in all fields of sports as managers, administrators, officials in sports organisations, coaches, and athletes (Njororai et al, 2003; Mwisukha, 2005). This study therefore aimed at establishing the current status and trends of gender equity in sports participation in Uganda. The study also sought to examine the causes of, and strategies that can be used to reduce gender disparity in sports in Uganda. A descriptive survey research design was used and the study was guided by five objectives. This study was delimited to national sports organisations in Uganda whereby a target population of 483 people in the sports field were considered. These included officials from the national sports organisations, national federations/associations, coaches and athletes at national level. A total of 350 respondents were sampled using purposive, stratified and simple random sampling techniques. Questionnaires and a document analysis guide which were validated by experts and through pre-testing were used to collect data. SPSS version 11.5 was used to code and analyse data which was presented as means, frequencies and percentages in tables for descriptive analysis. A multiple regression was used to conduct the forecast for the achievement of gender equity in selected competitive sports in Uganda. In addition, the null hypotheses were tested using the t-tests and one way ANOVA to establish the differences between views of different respondents at 0.05 level of significance. Post hoc tests using Tukey HSD was used to establish the differences between groups upon significant F ratios. The study found out that gender disparity exists and that there was a significant difference in the opportunities available for male and female participants, male ($M = 3.454$, $SD = 0.446$) and female ($M = 2.889$, $SD = 0.220$); $t(14) = 3.21$, at $p = 0.006$ with male participants being availed more opportunities in sports than their female counterparts. The study also established a minimal increase in the number of women participating in sports as compared to that of men and a small decrease in the gender imbalance. There was a significant difference between some of the views of the committee members, coaches and athletes on cultural factors that cause gender disparity in sports in Uganda. On the other hand, there was no significant difference in the views of the committee members, coaches and athletes on the social, economic and political factors that cause gender disparity in sports in Uganda. The study recommended that national sports organisations in Uganda ought to establish gender equity policies and committees. There should also be a plan to sensitise the masses on the importance of gender equity in sports for the benefit for both men and women in Uganda. There should be deliberate efforts to recruit and bring more women into the sports field at all levels.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Throughout human history, there has been gender imbalance in sports; women have been underrepresented and discriminated against (United Nations, 2007). Whereas men were encouraged and catered for or given opportunities to participate in sports, women had no such opportunities and there were no organized sports activities for them over a long period of time (Wesson, Wiggins, Thompson & Hartigan, 2002). This might have been the case because sport was traditionally seen as a male preserve and was considered inappropriate for women to get involved (Beashel & Taylor, 1996).

In many societies, it has been considered inappropriate for women to engage in sports and if they did, they were perceived as ‘masculine. On the other hand, men who did not engage in sports were labelled ‘unmanly’ (Sever, 2005). This could have been due to the fact that society had always been patriarchal, and men tended to deny or reduce the opportunities for women in the types of sports they could participate in (Wesson et al., 2002). Njororai, Achola and Mwisukha (2003) notes that women’s under-representation in sports is not only reflected in their low participation as players, but also in sports leadership and spectatorship. In Britain, for example, women were hardly involved in sports before the First World War (Beashel & Taylor, 1992). Honeybourne, Hill and Moors (1996) note that much as the women population in Britain was over 50%, it was only 10% of the women who participated in some sporting activity as compared to the 33% of the men. This clearly shows the under-representation of women in sports in

Britain. Another illustration of the ratio of men to women's participation in sports in Great Britain is shown by the participation in the Summer Olympics over the years. Much as the number of female athletes had been steadily increasing, 22% in 1976 to 39% in 1992, it was still low as compared to men. For the case of coaches in the same period, the situation was worse as it was a mere increase from 4% in 1976 to 8% in 1992 (Honeybourne et al., 1996).

Apart from the situation in Britain, the development of the Olympic Games shows another example where women were excluded from participation in sports, not only from playing, but also from spectating. For many years, since the revival of the modern Olympics Games in 1894, the leadership in the International Olympic Committee (IOC) was provided by men only (Galligan et al., 2000; Hargreaves, 1994 and Morris, 1984). It was not until 1981 that a woman was brought on the scene of the Olympic Games Management Committee as a co-opted member (International Olympic Committee, 2005a). The first woman was elected onto the Executive Board of the International Olympic Committee in 1990. In 1997, another woman became a Vice President of the International Olympic Committee and it was in 2004 that a second woman became the Committee's Vice President. In spite of these steps towards allowing women leadership positions in IOC, out of 116 active members of the International Olympic Committee, only 12 (10.34%) were women in 2005. However, by the year 2005, the International Olympic Committee Commissions and Working Groups began to include more women than ever before (International Olympic Committee, 2005a).

Between 1985 and 2005, the IOC tried to ensure that women's programmes at the Olympic Games are increased. This is evident in the increase of participation of women in the Olympic Games over the years, from 11% in 1960 to 41% in 2004 for the Summer Games and from 22% in 1960 to 37% in 2002 for the Winter Games (International Olympic Committee, 2005a). In addition, the IOC put a condition that all sports seeking inclusion in the programme had to include women's events. That notwithstanding, International Olympic Committee (2005b) noted that while the participation of women in physical activities and the Olympic Games had steadily increased, the percentage of women in governing bodies and administrative bodies of the Olympic Movement was still low. The Feminist Majority Foundation (1995) reported that there were still significantly fewer women coaches and administrators than men.

During the 1990s, the International Community committed itself to address gender equality and empowerment. This was done through world summits and global conferences. For instance, the UK Sports Council (1998) emphasized the Brighton Declaration of 1994, which stressed developing a sporting culture that would enable and value the full involvement of women in every aspect of sport. It further quoted the Platform for Action put in place in 1995 that strongly emphasized the creation of gender-sensitivity programmes for women and girls of all ages in sports; and the promotion of full and equal participation of girls in sports. The UK Sports Council (1998) also highlighted the Windhoek Call for Action of 1998, which reaffirmed the Brighton Declaration and called for action throughout the world to further the

development of equal opportunities for girls and women to participate in sport in its broadest sense.

Following the resolutions and declarations of the conferences on sports, some achievements have been realised in ensuring gender equity on the international scene. For instance, the IOC did not only adopt the recommendations of the Conferences, but also agreed to have at least 10% of the offices for women by 2000, raising it to 20% by the end of 2005 at National level (International Olympic Committee, 2005a). By January 2005, 54 (29.3%) National Organising Committees (NOCs) had women taking up more than 20% of their executive positions and 125 (67.9%) NOCs had achieved the 10% objective set for the year 2000. Similarly, 10 (29%) International Federations (IFs) of Olympic Sports had women in more than 20% of their executive boards and 19 (54%) IFs had achieved the 10% target set for the year 2000 as of July, 2005.

For the case of Africa, Mazrui (1986) lamented the imbalance between male and female participation in sports, which had been male dominated over the years. Under-representation of women in sports was highlighted as most prevalent in Africa. For instance, Njororai et al (2003) reported that Kenyan women's participation in sports was very low at national sports federations, universities and in the contingents of officials that accompanied athletes to the World Sports Championships.

Makwasi (1995) noted that many Ugandans seemed to harbour the prejudice that men were better performers than women and therefore gave women less chances and

opportunities for continued participation. Ananura (2004) observed that Ugandan female footballers had to overcome cultural bias in order to continually participate in sports. In addition, the gender imbalance was seen at the national level, not only in some contingents representing the country in the international competitions, but also in the composition of committees of various national sports organisations. For example, in 2007, the Uganda Olympic Committee Board had 91% male against 9% female members; Executive Committee of the National Council of Sports had 82% male and only 18% female members. In addition, the national federations comprised about 76% male membership on their executive committees (National Council of Sports, 2007). With this information, the study was interested in finding out if the situation has been the same over the years or whether there has been an improvement or decline in the balance between male and female members who are participating in sports.

Regardless of the prevailing circumstances, it is of paramount importance to note that all people, male and female, need to participate in sports. This is due to the fact that sports has many benefits such as promoting mental and physical well-being, and reducing the risk of chronic diseases later in life (Honeybourne, Hill & Moors, 2002; Marshall, Acton, Hubbard & Doreen, 1993). This makes it important for both men and women in all spheres of life to participate in sports. It is therefore against this background that the researcher identifies the need to conduct a study on the trends towards gender equity in sports participation in Uganda.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The International Olympic Committee (2005b) emphasises that participation in sports is a human right and a valued social activity for everyone, male and female alike. In addition, participation in sports has numerous long-term benefits which cannot be underrated or overlooked; these include self-expression, personal achievement and good health (Beashel & Taylor, 1996; Garos, 2006). Unfortunately, there has been gender disparity because women's participation has been very low compared to that of men world over, which deprives them of the sports benefits (Houlihan, 2003; Mazrui, 1986). In the light of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the International women's conferences' recommendations to improve gender balance in sports, there has been need to investigate the situation in Uganda. This study therefore, looked at the current status and trends of women participation in selected competitive sports in Uganda. It also focused on determining the causes of gender disparity in sports in Uganda. It was intended to find out whether there was an increase in the number of women participating in sports and a decrease in the gender imbalance. It also aimed at suggesting ways of achieving gender equity in sports in Uganda. The specific issues addressed included the current gender status on: policies, leadership, programmes, facilities and equipment and funding in sports organisations.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to examine the trends towards gender equity in selected competitive sports in Uganda; it assessed the status of gender equity in the sports,

whether equal opportunities were being accorded to both men and women in sports in Uganda.

1.4 Objectives

The objectives of the study were:

- i) To find out whether there is gender disparity in participation in competitive sports in Uganda.
- ii) To determine the trends towards gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda in terms of proportion of male and female participants over the years.
- iii) To determine the opportunities available for both women and men's participation in competitive sports in Uganda.
- iv) To examine the social, cultural, economic and political factors that affect gender equity in participation in competitive sports in Uganda.
- v) To examine possible strategies that can be adopted to improve gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses which were formulated in line with the purpose and objectives of the study were used:

- H₀₁ There is no significant difference in the views of sports participants about women and men's involvement in competitive sports in Uganda.
- H₀₂ There is no significant difference in the proportion of male and female participants in competitive sports in Uganda.

H₀₃ There is no significant difference in the opportunities available for men and women's participation in competitive sports in Uganda.

H₀₄ There is no significant difference in the responses of board members of national sports organisations, coaches and athletes on the following factors that influence gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda.

- a) social
- b) cultural
- c) economic
- d) political.

1.6 Research Question

The following question was used in the study:

What are the possible strategies that can be adopted to improve gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda?

1.7 Significance of the Study

The information obtained from the study provides an insight into the current situation with regard to participation in competitive sports across gender in Uganda. This may be used as a basis for review of the situation and attainment of gender equity in competitive sports by sports administrators. The study suggests measures that may be taken by sports federations and officials to bridge any gap in gender disparity that may be existing in competitive sports in Uganda. It will also contribute to the body of knowledge in the area of sports and gender. It avails empirical data which may be useful in the formulation of policies by the National Council of Sports of Uganda,

Uganda Olympic Committee and the government authorities with regard to sports and gender. The study will avail documentation in the area of equity in sports that may help researchers to establish facts about sports and gender in Uganda. The information obtained may help in acknowledgement of the right of every person to participate in sports and provides the rationale for awarding special opportunities to the underprivileged in sports.

1.8 Delimitations of the Study

The study was delimited to gathering information from sports officials, coaches and athletes who participated in competitive sports at national level in various sports organisations. These organisations included the National Council of Sports, Uganda Olympic Committee, and selected sports federations/associations in Uganda. Information was also sought from documents in the sports organisations; these included constitutions, strategic plans, sports policies and guidelines, reports and minutes of executive committee meetings. The study was delimited to 10 out of 19 sports federations which were selected using stratified random sampling for both team sports and individual sports. The national federations for the following sports were used: football, handball, hockey, netball, and volleyball from the team sports; and athletics, boxing, swimming, table tennis and tennis. The sports disciplines of these national federations were selected because they are among those included in the All Africa Games, and they are registered with both National Council of Sports (Uganda) and Uganda Olympic Committee. The trends in the ratios of male to female sports participants in Uganda were delimited to a period of about twenty years (1988 to 2009).

1.9 Limitations of the Study

Literature on gender issues in sports in Uganda is scanty, and it was time-consuming to have it obtained. Some of the respondents were spread far from the researcher's station, and this necessitated more time and visits during the study. Since most of the people who participate in sports in Uganda have other activities that they are involved in, it was rather difficult for the researcher to access them easily due to their busy schedules. There was need therefore, to sacrifice more time and reorganise activities accordingly so as to reach them for the data. Record keeping in some of the sports organisations was not thorough and did not cover the required period of time. So the researcher had to visit some of the officials individually and out of office to fill in the gaps from their personal files. This led to the researcher spending more time in the field than originally planned for.

1.10 Assumptions of the Study

During the course of the study, the researcher assumed that the subjects would give honest responses. It was also assumed that they would return the instruments properly filled and in time. In addition, the assumption was that documents will be found in place, readily available and that they would be up to date.

1.11 Conceptual Framework

This study is based on the concept of equity in sports. Accordingly, the International Olympic Committee (2005b) notes an important fact that participation in sports is a human right and a valued social activity for everyone, male and female alike. Beashel

and Taylor (1996), Garos (2006); UK Sports Council (1998) and United Nations (2007) recognise the value of sport, that when practiced fairly and equitably, it enriches society and enhances friendship between nations, provides a wide range of benefits to individuals in terms of offering an opportunity for self-expression, personal achievement and good health. Hence, it is imperative that a sporting culture which enables everyone to fully participate in sport is developed. Unfortunately, sport has traditionally been a male domain, and there is need therefore, to promote gender equity in this field (United Nations, 2007; Wessons et al. 2005). It is in view of this that the United States put in place Title IX Policy which emphasizes on gender equity in sports (Priest & Summerfield 1994). Title IX further notes that it is not only important to increase opportunities for women in sports, but to change the perception that sports participation is not important for girls and women.

UK Sports Council (1998) explains the Brighton Declaration which under its principle of equity and equality in society and sport stresses the importance of equal opportunity and elimination of all forms of discrimination. It advocates for fair allocation of resources, power, and responsibility without discrimination. In addition, Bob and Graeme (1993) recognize the equal opportunities approach which advocates for change within the system and leads to policies of accessibility and entitlement. Every effort should be directed towards redressing any inequitable balance in the benefits available to women and men. In order to ensure gender equity in sports, the factors that must be addressed include policies, leadership, programmes, facilities, equipment and funding of all groups at different levels. The Brighton Declaration and the International Olympic

Committee note that these variables play a key role in influencing the participation of men and women in sports, and contribute immensely to the gender equity as illustrated in Fig 1.1.

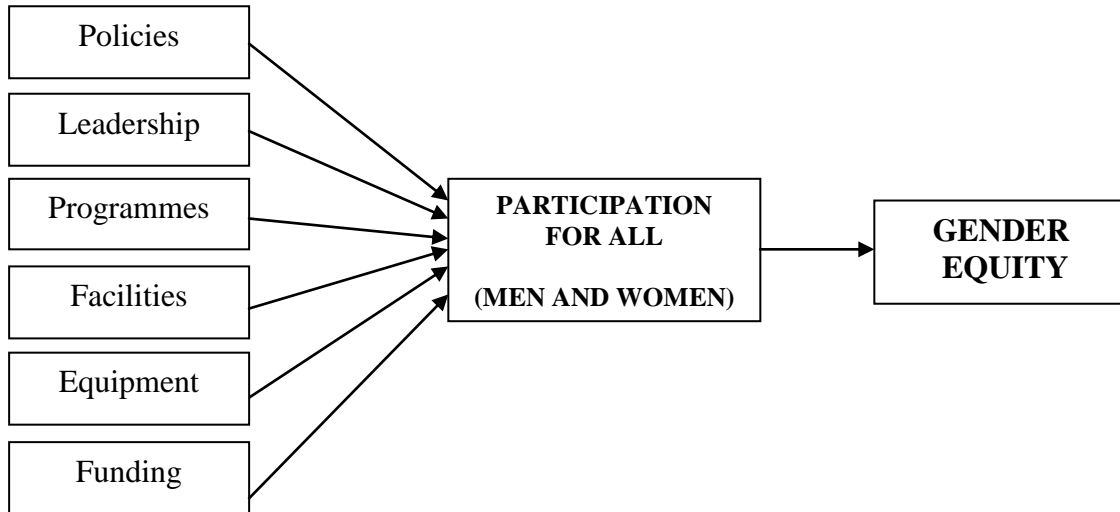


Fig 1.1 Adapted from the Brighton Declaration (UK Sports Council, 1998) and the International Olympic Committee (2005b).

As shown in Fig 1.1, it is clear that participation for all, that is male and females in sports (dependent variable) is influenced by policies, leadership, programmes, facilities, equipment and funding (independent variables). These variables could influence participation of men and women positively or negatively, and may in turn affect gender equity in sports. For the purpose of the present study however, the variable covering national policies was not considered. This is because Uganda as a nation is currently in the process of establishing such a policy as there has been none.

1.12 Operational Definition of Terms

Athletes People who actively participate in different sports disciplines in Uganda.

Equipment	Implements/items which are not fixed and they are used to play various sports such as balls, rackets, bats and javelins.
Facilities	Developed sports structures such as stadiums, gymnasiums, playgrounds for various sporting activities, squash courts and swimming pools.
Funding	Financial support given to facilitate various sports activities.
Gender Equity	Equal representation of male and female athletes and leaders in sports in Uganda, including equal distribution of overall athletic opportunities and resources across the gender.
Opportunities for Sports Participation	Availability of sports facilities, equipment, funding, allocation of coaches, chances for participation and leadership in sports.
Policies	Principles that guide sports' activities and programmes.
Sports Leadership	Being an official in executive committees of national sports organisations in Uganda, or a coach.
Sports Participation	Involvement in sports at management, administrative and playing levels.
Strategies for Gender Equity	Availing equal opportunities for leadership across gender and formulating policies that promote equal representation of both men and women in sports as active

participants and leaders. This also includes balancing provision of funds, equipment and facilities for both male and female sports participants.

Trends in Gender Representation Ratios of men to female involved in sports in Uganda for the last twenty years (1988 to 2009).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature available in the specific area of gender and sport. The literature has been reviewed under the following sub-headings: benefits of sports, gender equity in sports, steps taken to reduce gender disparity, international trends towards gender equity and related studies.

2.2 Benefits of Sports

It is evident from various studies that there exists gender disparity in sports world over. Yet, every person should be able to participate in sports as it is associated with both good health and long life. The International Olympic Committee (2005a) states that sport belongs to all human beings and that it is important to men and women as it provides opportunities to learn, experience success, teamwork and moments of excellence. In addition, International Olympic Committee (2005a) highlights sport as a medium of communication and emancipation. It helps build participants' physical and psychological well-being and awareness. International Olympic Committee (2005b) adds that participation in sports is a human right acquired at birth to practice sport since it teaches respect for rules, tolerance and solidarity; helps to develop the body and spirit; and gives joy and pride. Since women have been underrepresented in sports, they have missed out on the many benefits enjoyed by their male counterpart. It is through sports that women and young girls can discover their physical ability, which in turn boosts

their self esteem and makes them become aware of their role in society (Beashel & Taylor, 1996; International Olympic Committee, 2005b; United Nations, 2007).

The UK Sports Council (1986) in the Brighton Declaration of 1994 recognized the value of sport, that when practiced fairly and equitably, it enriches society and friendship between nations, provides a wide range of benefits to individuals and promotes contribution that women can make to sport. The Brighton Declaration further stated that participation in sports can enrich, enhance and develop women's lives. Garos (2006) added that participation in sports is a cultural activity, which, if practiced equitably, can offer an opportunity for self-expression, personal achievement, and good health. Therefore, it is imperative that a sporting culture is developed that will enable women and girls to fully participate in sport.

Women were often perceived as being too weak for sport, particularly endurance sports (United Nations, 2007). Such stereotypes have tended to fuel gender-based discrimination in sports that needs to be removed to help women gain health benefits. The health benefits of sport which include physical activity are well-established for men and women. Regular participation improves quality of life, lowers risk of disease and offers numerous psychological and social benefits (United Nations, 2007). Participation in sports can prevent non-communicable diseases which account for over 60% of global deaths, cardiovascular diseases which account for half of all deaths among women over 50 in developing countries. Participation in sport helps reduce effects of osteoporosis, which women have a higher risk of developing than men. It also aids in preventing type-

2 diabetes, hypertension and arthritis. Active involvement in sports helps to manage weight and contributes to the formation and maintenance of healthy bones, muscles and joints (United Nations, 2007).

Beashel and Taylor, (1996); Garos , (2006) and United Nations (2007) further noted that sports provide a myriad of benefits for women and girls and can be a powerful tool for women's empowerment and gender equality. Sports can facilitate development of the sense of ownership of women and girls of their own bodies, which can enable them to make better choices in their reproductive lives (Meier, 2005; United Nations, 2007). Through sport, girls acquire new interpersonal networks and access to new opportunities, allowing them to become more engaged in school and community life. They develop skills in communication, teamwork, leadership and negotiation (Huggins and Randell, 2007; United Nations, 2007). The skills and values learned through sport are especially important for girls, given that in many countries adolescent girls have fewer opportunities than boys for social interaction outside the home and beyond family networks (United Nations, 2007).

Because sport was traditionally perceived as a male domain, women's and girls' participation in sport also challenges gender stereotypes, and has thus potential for reducing discrimination and breaking down entrenched attitudes (Wesson, 2005). Girls' participation can also have a significant impact on the attitudes of boys and young men towards gender equality (United Nations, 2007). Seeing girls succeed in soccer, which

in many parts of the world is considered a male domain, can lead to boys reconsidering their perceptions of the roles and capabilities of girls.

Sporting events and arenas have been effectively used to get important information for women and girls on their reproductive rights and health and on HIV/AIDS (Meier, 2005; United Nations, 2007). Sport has also been an effective channel for information to men and boys on gender equality, including equitable sexual relations and on violence against women (Lopiano, 2002). The United Nations (2007) made the observation that women's increased involvement in sport could also promote positive development in sport by providing alternative values and attitudes, knowledge, experiences and capabilities. Women's increased participation in decision-making in sport diversifies the talent pool among coaches and managers, administrators, and other officials. According to Hannan (2008), increased numbers of women in key positions can provide positive role models and mentors for girls in sport. In addition, participation of women in leadership positions can bring diversity and alternative approaches and expand the talent base in areas of management, coaching and sport journalism, and thereby promote gender equality since it may challenge gender stereotypes and discrimination (United Nations, 2007).

2.3 Gender Equity in Sports

At first, all competitions in ancient Olympics were for men only. Women were neither allowed to take part nor to watch the games (Beashel & Taylor, 1992). Hargreaves (1994) noted that the founder of the Modern Olympics, Baron Pierre de Coubertin,

opposed women's participation claiming that 'women's sport' was against the 'laws of nature' and 'the most un-aesthetic sight human eyes could contemplate'. Male supremacy in the IOC ensured that throughout the history of Modern Olympics, men made decisions about women's participation, and male standards also became generalised standards (Wesson et al., 2005).

The situation of gender imbalance has not changed much. This was reflected in the Brighton Declaration of 1994 which observed that women were still underrepresented in sports' management, specifically in coaching and officiating at the higher levels (Wesson et al., 2005; United Nations, 2007). Furthermore, UNESCO (2001) asserted that fewer opportunities were given to women to access sport activities and to participate in sport ruling bodies. According to Siedentop (2001), women still struggled for an equal share of facilities and budgets; and were seriously underrepresented in coaching and administrative positions in sport. UNESCO (2001) also lamented about the marginal and insufficient gender dimension within sport policies. It was even worse in terms of women's access to training and competition in sport, which has been historically denied to women.

Siedentop (2001) decried the fact that the nineteenth century 'feminine virtues' of piety, purity, submissiveness and domesticity were alien to sports competition. In the same vein, Therberge (2000) reiterated that sport was clearly a gendered activity, that is, an activity that not only welcomed boys and men more enthusiastically than girls and women, but also served as a site for celebrating skills and values clearly marked as

'masculine'. In addition to this, Wesson et al. (2005) highlighted the Brighton Declaration which acknowledged that sport and sporting activities are an integral aspect of the culture of every nation; this obviously includes both men/boys and women/girls. The Declaration further highlighted the inequalities that exist in participation levels and opportunities for women and girls as compared to men and boys.

The findings of the research by the Australian Sports Commission (2006) highlighted the little change over the past 10 years in the participation of women and girls in all aspects of sport. The Commission also asserted that women had remained underrepresented at all levels in coaching, officiating and leadership. In addition, Everhart & Pemberton (2001) observed that the development of school sport had marginalized and devalued women's sport, and the women who participate over time. They suggested that it was because of this that sport participation by women and girls had actually been suppressed. It is however important to note that women not only need equal opportunity and access to sport, fitness and physical education but also need open, visible support for exploring their potential in these areas (Siedentop, 2001).

In Africa, sport activities continue to be considered as a male preserve. This is evident in the family, and also in other institutions and in sport itself. For instance, there is a wide spread perception that sport is not a decent activity for girls. There is also a tendency by some men to stop their partners or wives from actively engaging in sport (Massao, 2001; Massao & Fasting, 2002). As a result, marriage or other relationships have often

marked the end to a sporting career for most of the women, since few men have the tolerance to allow their partners to continue with sport.

The situation in Uganda may not be different from most communities within the Africa continent. Musoke (2007), citing Green and Hardman (2005) noted that women who participated in the male domain of sports in Uganda and specifically in those activities which were not seen as stereotypically feminine ran the risk of their sexual identity being questioned. Musoke further decried the fact that sport in general, as highlighted by Penney and Evans (2002), was associated with the defeminisation of women and masculinisation of men.

2.4 Steps taken to Reduce Gender Disparity in Sports

After the First World War, the attitude of many people towards women and their role in society changed. For example, in the 1920 Olympic Games, there were 136 sportswomen from 20 countries. When the Winter Olympics were initiated in 1924, women began to be included and since then, the number of women taking part in sport kept on increasing (Beashel & Taylor, 1992). The IOC continued to ensure an increased number of women's events on the Olympic Programme in cooperation with the IFs and the Organising Committees. For instance, since 1991, a requirement that all new sports disciplines suggested for inclusion in the Olympic Programme must feature women's events was put in place (International Olympic Committee, 2005b). In 1995, the International Working Group on Women and Sport was created as a consultative body composed of representatives of the three constituent bodies of the Olympic Movement,

that is, IOC, IFs and NOCs, an athletes' representative and independent members. In 2004, the consultative body became a full Commission known as the IOC Women and Sport Commission. This commission advises the IOC President and Executive Board on policies to adopt so as to increase female participation in Sport at all levels. In addition, more efforts have been made at international level to improve the lives of women through adoption of international instruments and programmes of action aimed at committing governments to empower women in their countries.

Uganda, like many other African countries committed herself to implement the international instruments and programmes of action. For example, in 1985, Uganda committed herself to the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) which states that the full and complete development of the country, the welfare of the world and the cause of peace require the maximum participation of women on equal terms with men in all fields (Nabacwa, 2001). In the same year, after the United Nations International Conference for women which was held in Nairobi, Kenya, some women in Uganda started mobilizing to advance the cause of women, to bring women together and struggle for their rights and equality (Matembe, 2002). The government has tried to create a good atmosphere for women and the national constitution of Uganda that was constituted in 1995 provided for equality of both genders by recognizing the existence of inequalities and emphasizing the need for elimination of all forms of discrimination (Musoke, 2007; Republic of Uganda, 1995). However, the active participation of women continued to be low due to lack of skills in

advocacy, lack of adequate resources to mobilize them and the continued power and culture structures that promote gender inequalities (Nabacwa, 2001)

Wesson et al., (2005) highlighted female participation in sports in USA, which historically lacked gender equity like everywhere else. However, it radically changed during the 1970s and this was visible at all levels from the youths to intercollegiate to amateur to professional. This was due to the women movements, fitness movements and federal legislation (Title IX, 1972). In addition to this, Sport Canada (1986) committed itself to continue its efforts in ensuring that the needs of women in sport were identified, promoted and supported in all its policies and programmes.

World Conferences on Women and Sports have been organised by the United Nations since the 1990s. For instance, the Brighton Declaration in 1994 was put in place with the aim of developing a sporting culture that would enable and value the full involvement of women in every aspect of sport. The International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG) was established to follow up the adoption of the Brighton Declaration in all parts of the world. International Olympic Committee (2005a) pointed out that every four years, IOC organized a World Conference on Women and Sport to analyse progress made in the field within the Olympic Movement and define a prioritised line of action to improve and increase women's participation. The Brighton Declaration of 1994 sought an increase in the involvement of women in sport at all levels and in all functions and roles.

The International Women and Sport Strategy for the years 1994 to 1998 was created to coordinate work on women and sport issues internationally and to enable the sharing of model programs and successful developments. Further to this, the United Nations (1996) in the Platform for Action agreed to create and support programmes in the educational system, workplace and in the community to make opportunities to participate in sport, physical activity and recreation available to girls and women of all ages on the same basis as they are made available to men and boys.

2.5 Global Trends towards Gender Equity in Sports

Women were not represented in the inaugural Paris Congress that organized the first modern Olympic Games of 1896 and neither were they given a chance to compete in the games (International Olympic Committee, 2005a). Much as women participated in the games in 1900, they were excluded in athletics until 1928. A woman was first co-opted as an IOC member in 1981 (International Olympic Committee, 2005a). In the last twenty years however, IOC has directed its efforts towards ensuring that women's programmes at the Olympic Games are increased. The Olympic Committee further demands that all sports seeking inclusion in the Olympic programme must include women's events. It is after this decision in 1990 that the first woman was elected onto the Executive Board of the IOC. In 1997, another woman became a Vice President of the International Olympic Committee and in 2004 a second woman became the IOC Vice President. Out of the 116 active members of the IOC, only 12(10.34%) were women in 2005. Today, the IOC Commissions and Working Groups include more women than ever before.

International Olympic Committee (2005b) makes an observation that while the participation of women in physical activities and the Olympic Games has steadily increased, the percentages of women in governing and administrative bodies of the Olympic Movement are still low. The Feminist Majority Foundation (1995) notes that there are still significantly fewer women coaches and administrators than men coaches and administrators. International Olympic Committee (2005a, 2005b, 2008a, 2008b) and Wesson et al. (2005), show the trend in the increased participation of women in the Olympic Games as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Table showing Participation of Men and Women in the Olympic Games.

YEAR	SUMMER			WINTER		
	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
1896	311	-	311	-	-	-
1900	1318	12 (00.90)	1330	-	-	-
1904	617	8 (01.28)	625	-	-	-
1906	877	7 (00.79)	884	-	-	-
1908	2020	36 (01.75)	2056	-	-	-
1912	2491	55 (02.16)	2546	-	-	-
1916	-	-	-	-	-	-
1920	2628	64 (02.38)	2692	-	-	-
1924	2956	136 (04.40)	3092	281	13 (4.42)	294
1928	2724	290 (09.62)	3014	468	27 (5.45)	495
1932	1281	127 (09.02)	1408	274	32 (10.46)	306
1936	3738	328 (08.07)	4066	672	80 (10.60)	755
1940	-	-	-	-	-	-
1944	-	-	-	-	-	-
1948	3714	385 (09.38)	4099	636	77 (10.8)	713
1952	4407	518 (10.50)	4925	623	109 (14.89)	732
1956	2813	371 (11.65)	3184	687	135 (16.48)	819
1960	4736	610 (11.41)	5346	521	144 (21.65)	665
1964	4457	683 (13.29)	5140	986	200 (16.86)	1186
1968	4749	781 (14.12)	5530	1081	212 (16.39)	1293
1972	6068	1070 (14.95)	7156	1015	217 (17.60)	1232
1976	4834	1251 (20.56)	6085	900	228 (20.20)	1128
1980	4238	1088 (20.42)	5326	833	234 (21.93)	1067
1984	5458	1620 (22.89)	7078	1002	276 (21.60)	1278
1988	6197	2194 (26.15)	8391	1128	317 (21.94)	1445
1992	6652	2704 (28.90)	9356	1313	488 (27.10)	1801
1994	-	-	-	1215	522 (30.05)	1737
1996	6806	3512 (34.04)	10,318	-	-	-
1998	-	-	-	1389	787 (36.17)	2176
2000	6582	4069 (38.20)	10,651	-	-	-
2002	-	-	-	1513	886 (36.93)	2399
2004	6262	4306 (40.74)	10568	-	-	-
2006	-	-	-	-	-	-
2008	6450	4746	11196	-	-	-

NOTE: The values in brackets show the participation of women as a percentage of the total number of participants.

Table 2 shows that there has been a continuous decrease in gender disparity in the Olympic Games over the years; women's participation has grown increasingly particularly in the last two decades.

Wesson et al., (2002) present an example of Great Britain, where the gender gap in the summer Olympics has been reducing as shown in figure 2.1.

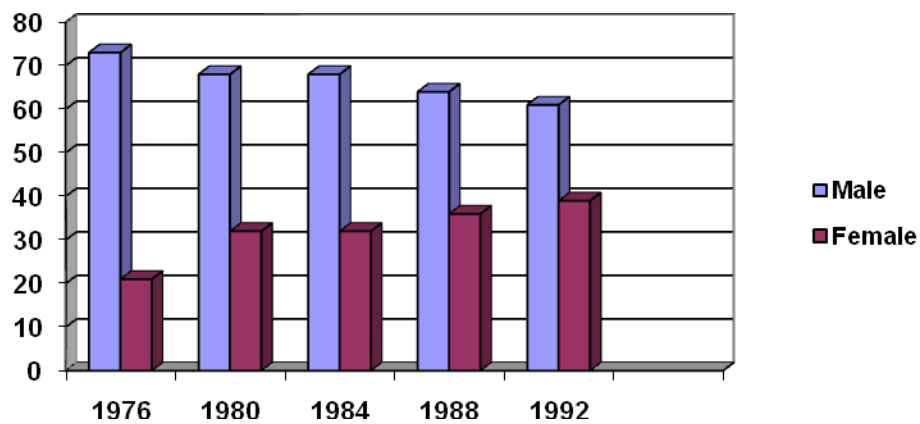


Fig 2.1 Percentages of Male and Female Athletes in Great Britain

Much as the number of female athletes in Great Britain has been steadily increasing, it is still low as compared to that of men. For the case of coaches, the situation shows more gender imbalance as seen in figure 2.2.

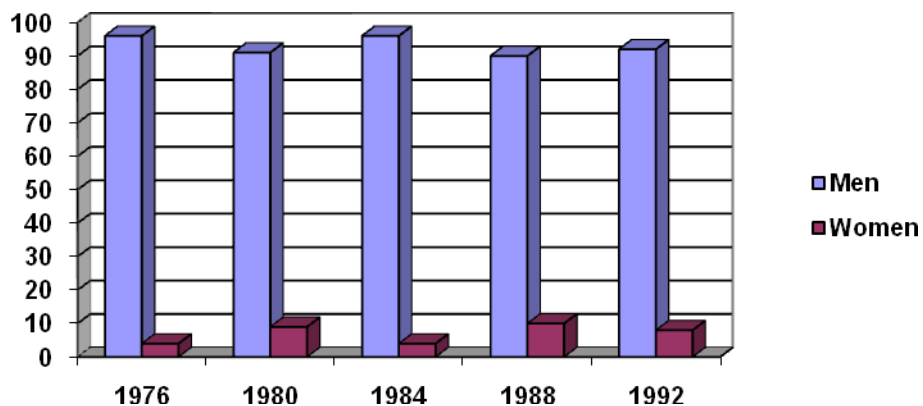


Fig 2.2 Percentages of Male and Female Coaches in Great Britain

Another example of gender disparity is reflected in the way the IOC has been awarding scholarships to athletes as shown in figure 2.3.

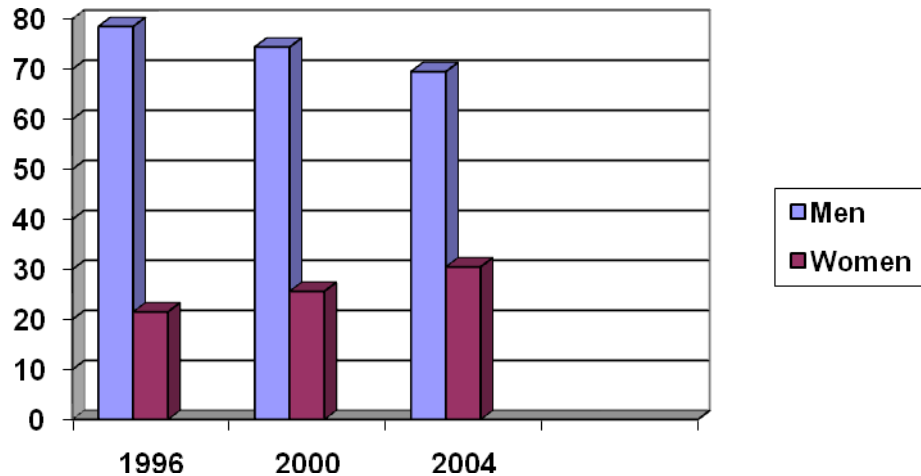


Fig 2.3 Percentages of Scholarships Awarded to Men and women between 1996 and 2004

It is evident from figure 2.3 that the scholarships awarded to women are much less than those given to men (International Olympic Committee, 2005b).

Though Canada has had a gender-equity policy since 1986, it is still far from being fully implemented (Mackinnon, 2005). There are still gaps in terms of participation of women in the field and their presence in key leadership roles where they can impact decision-making. For instance, approximately only 11% of the national teams are coached by women. Haga (1999), on the other hand, cites the life situation of Norwegian women which has changed over recent years with developments which have provided women with the skills, courage and self-assurance they need in order to fill the demanding positions in government, business and sports.

2.6 Related Studies

Mumford (2005) conducted a study on women's participation in sports in two-year colleges within the states of Maryland in which he examined the degree of participation and opportunity for female students and coaches. Respondents for this study were 18 athletic directors of all two-year colleges with membership in the Maryland Junior College Athletic Conference. A questionnaire and document analysis were used to gather data. Results of the study showed that female students participated in far fewer numbers in sports than male students. It was further revealed that relatively few women held administrative or coaching positions within existing sport programmes. However, over the last 32 years, female students had seen substantial gains in sports participation opportunities as a result of the federally mandated legislation known as Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972.

A national survey in United States by Acosta and Carpenter (2008) revealed the highest ever participation by women in the nation's intercollegiate athletics programs. However, it showed a depressed representation of women as coaches of women and men's teams. When Title IX was enacted in 1972, over 90% of the head coaches for women's teams and about 2% of the coaches of men's teams were females. By 2008, 42.8% of women's teams were coached by a female head coach and 57.2% of women's teams were coached by a male head coach. In addition, 2 to 3 % of men's teams were coached by a female head coach. Acosta and Carpenter (2008) noted that much as there was a significant increase of female athletics directors from 18.6% in 2006 to 21.3% in 2008, the representation of female sports managers has remained low. The survey

highlights the reasons for high levels of female sports participation as second generation of Title IX, lawsuits supportive of Title IX, societal acceptance of females as athletes, improved and increased media coverage focused on female athleticism and advocacy efforts of individuals and organisations. Successful energetic advocacy efforts have increased sport opportunities for girls and women. However, it is believed that a significant number may be denied access to participation opportunities simply because too few opportunities for female athletes have been created even in the face of the highest participation levels in history.

A study carried out in Nigeria considered the social factors and female participation in sports in Ondo and Ekiti states (Morakinyo & Olufolake, 2005). The descriptive survey research design was adopted and stratified random sampling technique was used to select 1,800 female athletes for the study. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the collected data. The study revealed that educational system, mass media, peer groups, economic values and medical care as social factors had significant influence on females' participation in sports in the two states. The study recommended more athletic programmes for females and that responsibilities of administration and organisation should be taken up by women.

In the study on underrepresentation of women in sports leadership in Kenya, Mwisukha (2005) examined the factors that led to the underrepresentation of women in sports leadership in the country. A random sample of 180 subjects including athletes from national teams, officials of national sports federations, undergraduate sports science

students, universities' games tutors, officials of the national sports council, and officials of the national Olympic Committee of Kenya provided the data. A questionnaire was used for collecting data which was then analysed using descriptive statistics, t-test and ANOVA. The results of the study showed that inadequate financing of women to further training in sports was the main economic factor that contributed to the underrepresentation of women in sports leadership. Other factors included low participation of women in sports activities, lack of adequate number of women role models, traditional beliefs, myths and stereotypes that demean women, among others. However the study by Mwisukha (2005) did not directly look at the trends towards gender equity in sports and it was carried out in Kenya.

In a case study on the factors affecting participation of female students in sport at the Institute of Teacher Education, Kyambogo in Uganda, Nabwami (2001) observed that much as the female students were very interested in sports, there was lack of motivation, time, facilities and coaches. The limitation with this study was that it did not address gender equity in Uganda.

On the other hand, Musoke (2007) looked at gender equality and equity in physical education in Uganda by focusing on the girls' experiences in Ugandan physical education classes. The study used observation, interviews and document analysis techniques to generate data from purposefully selected to include pupils and PE teachers from 5 schools, officials from the Ministry of Education and Sports, and a member of the National Curriculum Development Centre. Analytic induction and Kvale's process

of interview analysis were used for data analysis. Musoke (2007) found out that girls faced discrimination from both teachers and boys. From the study, it was also found out that boys were favoured by teachers and the curriculum. However, the study did not look at gender representations in sports within the schools and out of the schools.

In addition, Moore & Konrad (2010) offered a reflection of contributions made by the original paper “Women in sport management: advancing the representation through HRM structures.” They found out, in the field of sport management, that women rated their leaders as less committed to gender equity than men did and that experiencing a gender equity lawsuit increased top management’s philosophical support of gender equity. Moore & Konrad (2010) further established that the support given by top management for gender equity was positively associated with both substantive human resource management (HRM) practise and the percentage of female managers in the organisation. The same study found out that the presence of substantive HRM practices for gender equity was unrelated to the employment of female sport managers. This study however, did not address the factors that contribute towards gender equity in sports.

2.7 Summary

The literature reviewed in this chapter indicates that it is imperative for every human being to participate in sports. However, women have been underrepresented at all levels of sports participation, that is, at managerial, coaching, officiating and athlete level. This makes them miss the many benefits that come with participation in sports. Steps have

been taken by the IOC to reduce gender disparity at international level. The developed countries, such as UK have also taken some steps in reducing the disparity. Related studies reviewed above show that there is gender imbalance in sports the world over. The participation of women is less as compared to that of men. Studies have addressed the factors causing the imbalance and some have dealt with women's participation only. It is in the light of this that the study investigated the trends towards gender equity in sports in Uganda.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the procedures which were used in the study. These include the research design, variables, location of the study, target population, sampling techniques and sample size, research instruments, pilot study, data collection techniques, data analyses, and logistical and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

The descriptive survey research design was used in this study. This is a design that enables the researcher to provide a systematic description of current phenomena that is factual and as accurate as possible (Kothari, 2004; Amin, 2005). The descriptive survey research design was therefore suitable for the study because it enabled the researcher to determine the current status of gender representation in sports participation, trends towards gender equity and determine the causes of gender imbalance in sports in Uganda. The descriptive survey research design also enabled the researcher to gather data without manipulating the variables under investigation (Ahuja, 2005; Amin, 2005; Thomas, et al., 2005).

3.3 Variables

This study investigated the extent of gender equity in sports in Uganda. The influence of social, cultural, economic and political factors on gender equity in sports in the country was addressed. Other specific independent variables considered were policies,

leadership, programmes, facilities and equipment, and funding of sports at different levels. All these variables play a key role in influencing participation in sports and contribute to gender equity if appropriately and adequately addressed (International Olympic Committee, 2005a, 2005b; UK Sports Council, 1998). The extent of involvement in sports by men against that of women constituted the dependent variables.

3.4 Location of Study

The study was carried out in Uganda. It focused on sports organisations that included the National Council of Sports, Uganda Olympic Committee, ten selected national sports federations/associations, national coaches, and national athletes.

3.5 Target Population

The researcher aimed at getting information from men and women in the sporting arena at national level in Uganda. These included officials of the National Council of Sports (11) and those of the Uganda Olympic Committee (11), members of the National Executive Committees/Boards of sports federations/associations (124), national coaches (50) and national level athletes (287). Thus, a total number of 483 persons constituted the target population. The researcher involved federations/associations whose sports are included in the All Africa Games programme, and are registered with both National Council of Sports in Uganda and Uganda Olympic Committee. From the 19 national federations/associations, 10 were selected using stratified random sampling. The strata included federations for team sports and those for individual sports to ensure more

accurate representation of the two types of sports (Ahuja, 2005; Amin, 2005). The federations/associations for the following sports disciplines were included: athletics, boxing, football, handball, hockey, netball, swimming, table tennis, tennis, and volleyball.

3.6 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

Stratified random sampling was used in selecting officials of the National Council of Sports and Uganda Olympic Committee, members of the National Executive Committees/Boards, the national coaches and national players of the already selected sports federations/associations. This was as per guidelines given by Haag (2004) and Oso and Onen (2005). The stratified random sampling technique was used to ensure that both men and women were included in the sample and were well represented (Haag, 2004). Within each stratum, simple random sampling was used to select the respondents and, as such, at the time of the study each member had an equal probability of being selected (Amin, 2005). The study used 92 (26.3%) officials of national sports organisations, 50 (14.3%) coaches and 208 (59.4%) athletes giving a total of 350 respondents out of a target population of 483. This is in line with the figure of 333 resulting from the sample size calculator at confidence level of 95% and confidence interval of 3 as shown in appendix A (Creative Research Systems, 2003).

3.7 Research Instruments

Questionnaires and documentary analysis were used to collect data. The researcher, in consultation with the supervisors, designed two sets of questionnaires, one for those

respondents who were involved in the management of sports, that is, officials of national sports organisations and coaches at national level (Appendix F). The other set was for the athletes (Appendix E). The questionnaires consisted of close-ended items to allow quick responses and controlled expression of opinions (Amin, 2005). They had 4 sections seeking information on demographic data, opportunities available for participation, causes of gender disparity and strategies for addressing gender disparity in sports in Uganda. Questionnaires were used to save on time, enable respondents express their opinions and answer freely; and to give them adequate time to give well thought out answers in line with guidelines given by Ahuja (2001) and Kothari (2004). The researcher also developed a guide for the documentary analysis (Appendix G) which helped in categorising the information gathered from related documents and archival records from the sports organisations. The documentary analysis guide sought statistics which would give the trends towards gender equity; and for information on gender equity policies and committees. The documents that were looked at during the study included strategic plans, constitutions, minutes, events and annual reports from the targeted sports organisations. These documents enabled the researcher to gather information on the policies and guidelines in place, the programmes carried out, training schedules and the attendance of officials and athletes at national competitions.

3.8 Pre-test

A pilot study was conducted to train 4 research assistants who assisted in the main study and to pre - test the instruments for data collection. The instruments used in the study were pre - tested on 2 randomly selected national federations that were not used in the

main study. The pre - testing was carried out to establish the reliability of the instruments which enabled the researcher to check and improve the items as elaborated below.

3.8.1 Validity

The instruments that were designed were critiqued by lecturers in the department of Sport Science, Kyambogo University to identify ambiguities which were removed, and items that did not address the purpose of the study (Ahuja, 2005; Amin, 2005). The Sport Science lecturers who are also experts and the supervisors helped to rate the instruments on effectiveness of significant aspects concerning the purpose and appropriateness to the target group (Amin, 2005). After necessary adjustments, the instruments were pretested before the main study was carried out as suggested by Haag (2004) and Amin (2005). The average Content Validity Index (CVI) was used to determine the validity of the questionnaire items as shown below:

$$\text{CVI} = \frac{\text{Number of items declared valid}}{\text{Total number of items.}}$$

This CVI was at 0.83 which is greater than the limit of 0.7 for acceptance of an instrument's validity (Haag, 2004; Amin, 2005).

3.8.2 Reliability

In order to establish the reliability of the instruments, a pretesting was done. This enabled the researcher to establish the consistency of the instruments in measuring what they were intended to (Amin, 2005). The instruments were then administered to twenty (20) members of Uganda Badminton Association and twenty (20) members of Uganda

Basketball Federation, none of whom were eventually included in the actual study. The test-re-test procedure was used with a period of 2 weeks' interval. This was to find out if the scores and responses obtained were the same or close to the same when the questionnaires were re-administered (Amin, 2005 & Sprinthall, 1994). The two sets of responses were correlated and a reliability coefficient was found to be 0.82. This was accepted as it was greater than 0.5, and so the instruments were adopted in this study.

3.9 Data Collection Techniques

The researcher and the research assistants, who had been trained during the pilot study, administered the questionnaires to the respondents within three months' time. Sports federations and teams under study were also visited by the researcher to obtain information from their records and documents over a period of six months.

3.10 Data Analysis and presentation

The data that was obtained was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 11.5, to get statistical values that were relied upon in the discussion of findings. Frequencies, percentages and means were presented in tabular form and displayed in graphs and charts. The frequencies were used to organise raw data in a meaningful way for easy interpretation (Kothari, 2004). The percentages provided a general summary of the collected data and means were used to provide a single measure that summarised the data (Hinton, 1995).

Inferential statistics of t test and one way ANOVA were used in assessing differences between the groups (Thomas et al, 2005). Specifically, hypothesis H₀₁ was tested using one-way ANOVA to test whether there was a significant difference in the views of sports participants about women and men's involvement in competitive sports. Hypothesis H₀₂ was tested using independent sample t-test to find out whether the proportions of male and female sports participants differed significantly over the years. Hypothesis H₀₃ was tested using independent samples t-test to establish whether there was a significant difference in the opportunity index for male and female sports participants. This is in line with the guidelines given by Hinton (1995). Hypothesis H₀₄ was tested using one-way ANOVA to test whether the views of the executive members, coaches and athletes were significantly different or not. The hypotheses were tested at .05 level of significance.

Where the ratings were significantly different, a post hoc test of Tukey HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) was done to determine the exact source of the differences. This particular test was preferred because it is used by SPSS when group sizes are unequal (www.upa.dpx.edu). In addition, it determines how large the difference between the means of any two particular groups must be in order to be regarded as significant (<http://en.wikipedia.org>).

Some of the data was analysed qualitatively through establishment of trends and their patterns. This was to ascertain if there was a move towards gender equity in sports in Uganda. This permitted the study to go beyond the statistical results (Orodho, 2004) to

provide an in-depth explanation of the trends towards gender equity. Specifically, a multiple regression was conducted to predict the length of time it will take for gender equity to be achieved in competitive sports in Uganda. In addition, descriptive statistics were used to examine possible strategies that would be adopted to improve gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda.

3.11 Logistical and Ethical Considerations

The researcher obtained an introduction letter from the Department of Physical and Health Education, formerly called Exercise, Recreation and Sport Science of Kenyatta University which gave information to the respective respondents about the purpose of the study (appendix B). The letter was used to request for permission to conduct research from the Department of Physical Education and Sports, Ministry of Education and Sports, (appendices C and D). This department is responsible for sports in Uganda. The researcher then visited the respective sports organisations to collect the data. The researcher also explained the purpose of the study to the respondents and the importance for them to fill the questionnaires honestly and completely. Respondents were urged not to write their names on the questionnaires. Furthermore, all data that were gathered were treated as confidential and used only for the purpose of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter covers the results and discussion of the study on demographic information of respondents, opportunities for the male and female athletes in sports, factors that cause gender disparity and strategies that can be used to reduce gender imbalance in sports in Uganda. The items from the questionnaires on the above factors were weighed on a 5-point likert scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD). They were scored as 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively for further analysis to be carried out.

4.2. Questionnaire Returns

A total of 350 questionnaires were administered. From these, 303 of the questionnaires were appropriately filled and returned, giving a return rate of 86.6% of the sample which is 62.7% of the target population. The distribution and return of the questionnaires is summarised in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Return Rate of Questionnaires

Subjects	Questionnaires given out	Questionnaires returned	Questionnaires poorly filled in or not returned
Board/Executive Members	92	74	18
Coaches	50	41	9
Athletes	208	188	20
TOTAL	350	303 (86.6%)	47 (13.4%)

As shown in table 4.1, 303 questionnaires that were fully and appropriately filled were returned representing 86.6% of the questionnaires sent out whereas 13.4% were either not returned or were inappropriately filled in. Therefore, 86.6% of the sample whose questionnaires were fully filled was used in the analysis, presentation of results and discussions in the study.

4.3. Demographic Information of Respondents

The study sought to establish the demographic factors of the respondents. The factors included gender, age, status/position and experience. Gender included male and female, age comprised several age groups (below 17, 17 to 20, 21 to 25, 26 to 30, and above 30), status/position referred to executive committee/board members of national sports organisations, coaches and athletes; whereas experience was in terms of the length of time they had spent in the categories considered. A total of 303 respondents who filled and returned the questionnaires were included in the study.

4.3.1 Demographic Details by Gender

The proportion of male and female subjects in the sports organisations who participated in the study was determined as this was central in the study. The results are shown in figure 4.1.

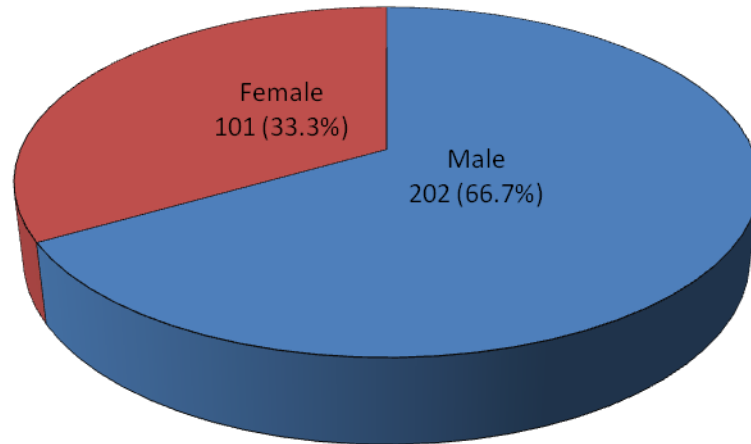


Figure 4.1 Demographic Distribution of the Respondents by Gender

The findings as shown in figure 4.1 revealed that majority of the respondents were male (202, 66.7%) while the female were minority (101, 33.3%). This shows that there were more male participants in sports than the female counterparts. This could have been due to the fact that sports activities are considered more masculine and not feminine (Patel, 2008). Furthermore, sports activities in Africa continue to be legitimatised as a male preserve (Massao & Fastings, 2002).

4.3.2 Distribution of Respondents by Age

In this section, the study sought to establish the categories of the respondents in terms of age. The categories were represented as shown in figure 4.2.

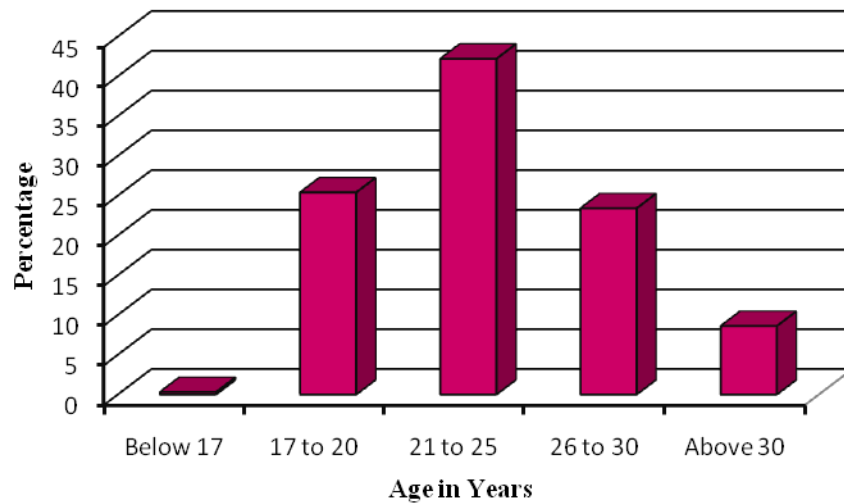


Figure 4.2 Age Categories of the Respondents

The proportion of respondents in the age range of seventeen to twenty (25.4%) was slightly greater than that of the age range between twenty six and thirty which was 23.4%. There was only 1 (0.3%) respondent in the age range below seventeen, while those above thirty years of age were 26 (8.7%). Thus, 128 (42.2%) of the respondents were clustered between the age of twenty one and twenty five years, which formed the biggest group of the sample. This finding is in agreement with the generally held view that people who are active in sports are often distributed according to their respective age brackets.

4.3.3 Demographic Information of the Respondents by Position/Status in Sports

The study considered the proportion of respondents in the categories of Board/Executive Committee members, coaches and athletes in the various sports organisations. From the results, 188 (62.0%) of the respondents were athletes,. Members of the executive boards of national sports organisations were 74, constituting 24.4% of the respondents, whereas

the coaches were 41, which was 13.6% of the total number of respondents. The results obtained are summarised in figure 4.3.

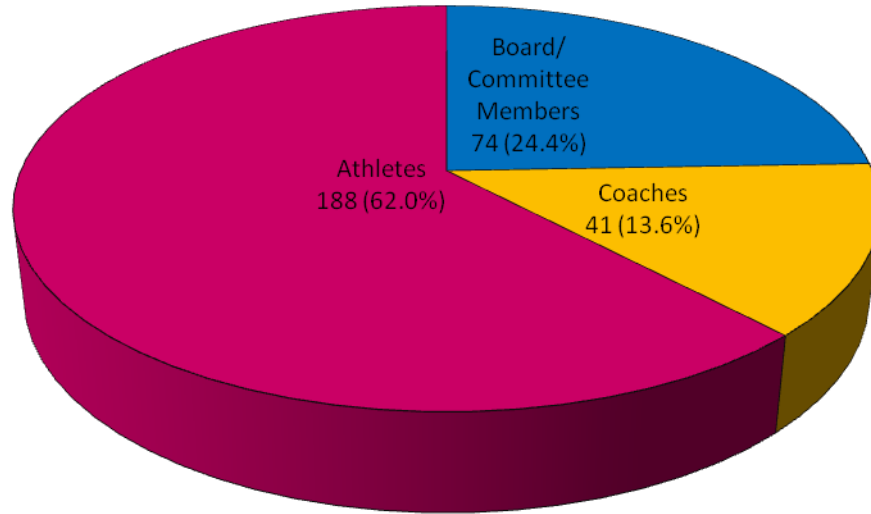


Figure 4.3 Respondents' Positions/Status

4.4 Respondents' Experience in Sports

The study sought to find out the length of experience of participation of the respondents in sports at different levels. The distribution obtained is shown in figure 4.4 below.

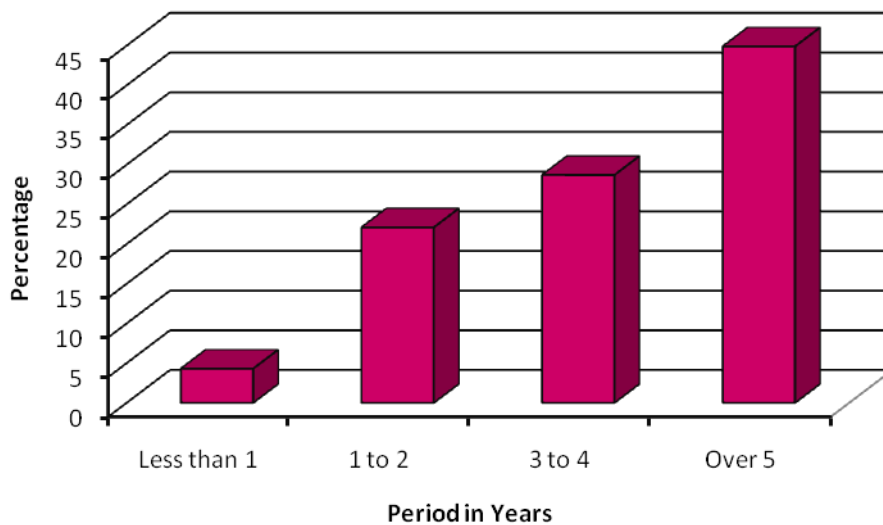


Figure 4.4 Length of Experience of Respondents' Participation in Sports

The results reveal that a higher proportion of the respondents, 136 (44.9%), had spent over five years in their respective sporting activities. Those who had spent three to four years in the sporting activity constituted the second highest proportion of 87 (28.7%), followed by those who had one to two years' experience (67, 22.1%). 13 (4.3%) of the respondents had spent less than a year in their respective sporting activities. This distribution of respondents was a clear representation of the sample since more experienced persons are likely to give a more reliable response.

4.5 Gender Representation of Participants in National Sports Organisations in Uganda

To establish whether there was gender disparity in sports in Uganda, data was gathered to find out the participation of women in sports as compared to that of the men. The study further used data from various documents to establish the proportions of the numbers of male and female sports participants. The results from the questionnaires are as shown in table 4.2 below:

Table 4.2 Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents on Men and Women's Participation in Competitive Sports

ITEM	SCORE	RESPONSES					
		BOARD/EXECUTIVE		COACHES		ATHLETES	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
Fewer women than men participate in sports	Strongly Disagree	1	1.4	3	7.3	4	2.1
	Disagree	1	1.4	2	4.9	11	5.9
	Undecided	1	1.4	1	2.4	4	2.1
	Agree	26	35.1	9	22.0	79	42.0
	Strongly Agree	45	60.8	26	63.4	90	47.9
	<i>Total</i>	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0

The results as shown in table 4.2 indicate that majority of the Board/Executive members, who were 71 (95.9%), reported that fewer women than men participated in

sports activities. This was brought out by 26 (35.1%) Board/Executive members who agreed and 45 (60.8%) Board/Executive members who strongly agreed. This was similar to responses given by the coaches whereby (26, 63.4%) coaches strongly agreed and 9 (22.0%) coaches agreed. In addition, most of the athletes, 169 (89.9%) were of the same view and 90 (47.9%) athletes strongly agreed whereas 79 (42.0%) athletes agreed. The means of the responses by different categories of respondents were calculated to find the extent to which they agreed or disagreed to the participation of men and women in competitive sports and the results are shown in figure 4.5 below:

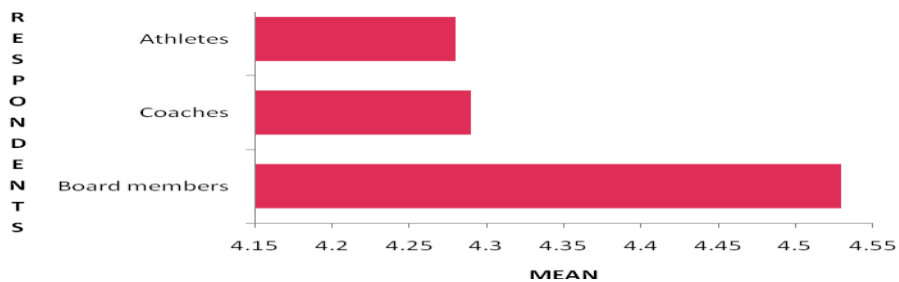


Figure 4.5 Overall Means of Responses on Men and Women's Participation in Competitive Sports

From figure 4.5 above, it is evident that the Board members had the largest mean (4.53). The second largest was that of coaches (4.29), followed by the athletes whose mean was 4.28. This implies that the views of the board members, coaches and athletes put a remarkable emphasis on the fact that women were underrepresented in sports participation. Further analysis was carried out using one way ANOVA and the results are as shown in table 4.3 below:

Table 4.3 ANOVA Summary Table on Men and Women's Participation in Competitive Sports

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.436	2	1.718	2.009	0.136
Within Groups	256.551	300	0.855		
Total	259.987	302			

$$F(2,300) = 3.03, \text{ at } p < .05$$

The results from table 4.3 above shows the Board members had the largest mean (4.53) followed by the coaches (4.29) and then the athletes (4.28). However, despite the slight differences in the means, the ANOVA test results which are $F(2,300) = 2.009$, at $p < .05$ indicate that there was no significant difference in the views of sports participants about women and men's involvement in sports, therefore, H_{01} was accepted. The respondents' views show that fewer women than men participate in sports and this implies there is gender disparity in competitive sports in Uganda. The results are in line with results of other studies which have been carried out in various places which also show that the participation of women is still low and accounts for their under-representation in sports (Houlihan, 2003; Meier, 2005; Mumford, 2005; Sport England, 2000 and UNESCO, 2006). In addition, it was recorded in 2006 that 19% of women participated in regular sporting activity compared to 24% of men in the United Kingdom (UK Sport, 2006). A possible explanation for this difference could be attributed to the traditional masculine values and historical male dominance embedded within sport (Ebben, 1998; Patel, 2004; Patel & Boyes, 2006). Huggins and Randell (2006) also assert that in Africa and other developing regions, the heavy burdens of household chores and responsibilities imposed on women limit the time that they have for engagement in sport.

4.5.1 Gender Representation in Management/Executive Committees

To establish if there were any variations in the percentages of male and female members on the management boards of various sports organisations in Uganda, the percentage of male and female members on the Boards/Executive Committees of national sports organisations was compiled from the records of the sports federations and organisations. The results obtained for the period 1988 to 2009 are shown in figure 4.6 below:

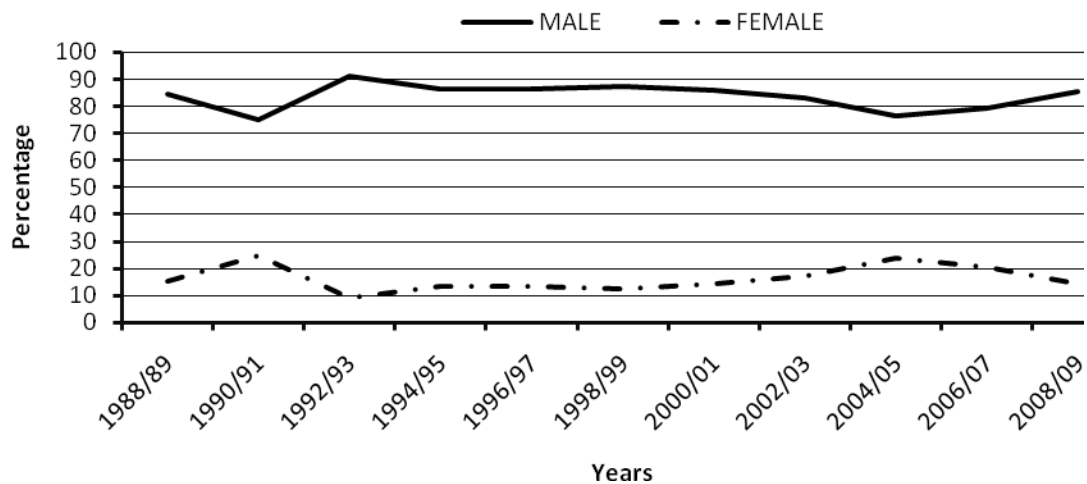


Figure 4.6 Proportion of Male to Female Members of the Boards/Executive Committees

From the results in figure 4.6 above, there were more male members (an average of 85%) as compared to female members (an average of 15%) over the years. At the same time, the results show that the percentage of women in management of sports in Uganda is still very low. This difference showed that the gap between the two has not shown much decrease despite the efforts made through conventions such as the Beijing Platform for Action of 1984 that called on governments, educational authorities and other educational and academic institutions to support the advancement of women in all

areas of athletics and physical activity, including administration at the national level (United Nations, 2007).

These findings correspond with those of Huggins and Randell (2007) who observed that women are underrepresented in management of sports teams and that the absence of women at high levels limits the potential for meaningful reform toward gender equality. Similarly, Wesson et al., (2005) had noted that the number of women in administrative and decision making positions of sport organizations was very small. Additionally, Shaw (2006) decries the fact that there was gender imbalance of high ranking managerial positions where very few women were able to access senior management levels. Furthermore, the United Nations (2007) reports that from the local level to the international level, women are constrained from accessing positions of leadership and decision making. An example of this disparity can be found from the International Olympic Committee where the number of women on the Executive Board was 6.6% in 2005 (International Olympic Committee, 2005). Other examples have been highlighted by United Nations (2007) in Czech Republic where only 33 (8%) of all members of executive boards in Czech sport Federations are women; and only 3 women have ever been members of the executive board of the Czech Olympic Committee in its 105-year history.

Further examination of the results show a slight decrease in the gap for the period 1990/91 in Uganda. This could have been brought about by the empowerment of women by the Government of Uganda under the rule of the National Resistance Movement

(NRM) which came into power in 1985 (Matembe, 2002; Musoke, 2007). A slight decrease was also evidenced in 1995, the year when the national constitution of Uganda was instituted and provided for the equality of both genders and outlawed all practices that impinge on the rights of another person (Republic of Uganda, 1995). At the time, the revision of the national laws was yet to be done to ensure the adequate implementation of the constitutional provisions. A similar decrease in the gap was witnessed in the period 2004/05. This decrease at the time could be due to the strategies put in place by the IOC urging sports organisations to target at least 20% women in decision-making by 2005 (International Olympic Committee, 2005). Further analysis of the results in this category was carried out using an independent samples t-test to compare member representation in male and female members of the Board/Executive Committees as shown in the table 4.4 below:

Table 4.4 Independent Samples t-test of the Ratios of Male to Female Members of the Board/Executive Committees

Group Statistics

	category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Executive Members	Male	11	83.673	4.8888	1.4740
	Female	11	16.327	4.8888	1.4740

NOTE: N represents the number of terms over a period of 22 years in 10 organisations

Independent Samples Test

		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Executive Members	Equal variances assumed	32.306	20	.000	67.345	2.0846	62.997	71.6938
	Equal variances not assumed	32.306	20	.000	67.345	2.0846	62.997	71.6938

From table 4.4 above, results show that there was a significant difference in the ratios of male to female members of the Boards/Executive Committees of sports Associations/Federations for male ($M = 83.7$, $SD = 4.9$) and female ($M = 16.3$, $SD = 4.9$); $t(20) = 32.3$, $p = .000$. These results suggest that there were more male members on the Board/Executive Committees of sports organizations than the female counterparts. Therefore, the null hypothesis, H_{02} , that there is no significant difference in the proportion of male and female participants in sports in Uganda over the years was rejected.

In addition, members of the Boards/Executive Committees were examined by scrutinizing the percentage of the male and female chairpersons and General Secretaries. The results for the chairpersons were compiled and presented in chart form as shown in figure 4.7 below:

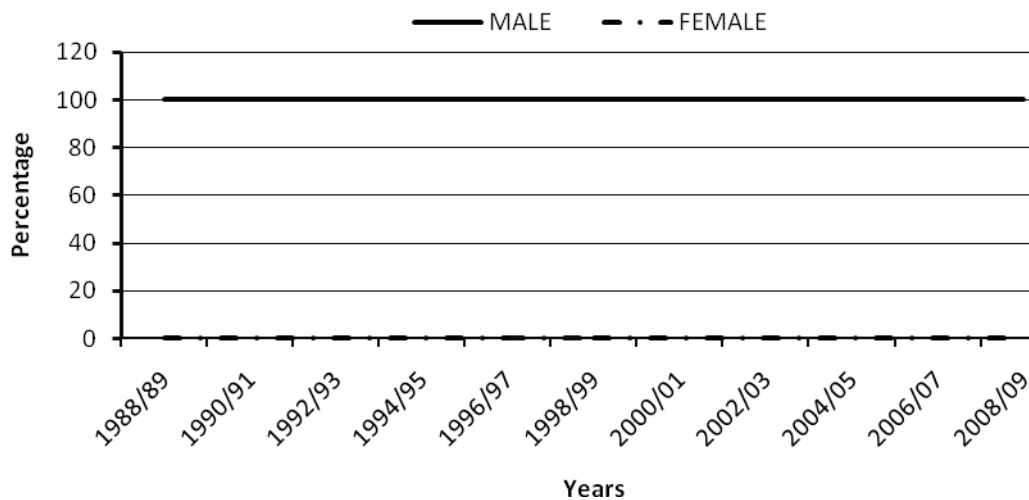


Figure 4.7 Proportion of Male to Female Chairpersons of Sports Associations/Federations in Uganda

The results show that the Chairpersons of all the committees were male and there was no Committee which was chaired by a female. This could have been caused by the fact that women were very few on the executive committees, and that the mobility of women into managerial positions is still slow (Moore, 2008 citing Duehr & Bono, 2006). Moore & Konrad (2010) citing Eagly and Karau (2002) have also observed that sport is closely associated with men and masculinity, and women might be viewed as unfit for leadership positions.

A similar example is availed by the USA where in 1972 more than 90% of women's programs in intercollegiate sports were administered and directed by women (Acosta & Carpenter, 2000). By 1994, less than 21% of those same programs were administered/directed by a female, and by 1999 the percentage of female heading athletic programmes had dropped to 17.8% (Acosta & Carpenter, 2000).

Similarly, the percentages on the gender of the General-Secretaries of the sports organisations in Uganda during the period 1988 to 2009 were compiled. The results showed that during the said period, the General-Secretaries of sports Associations/Federations have been mainly male. The results are summarised in fig 4.8:

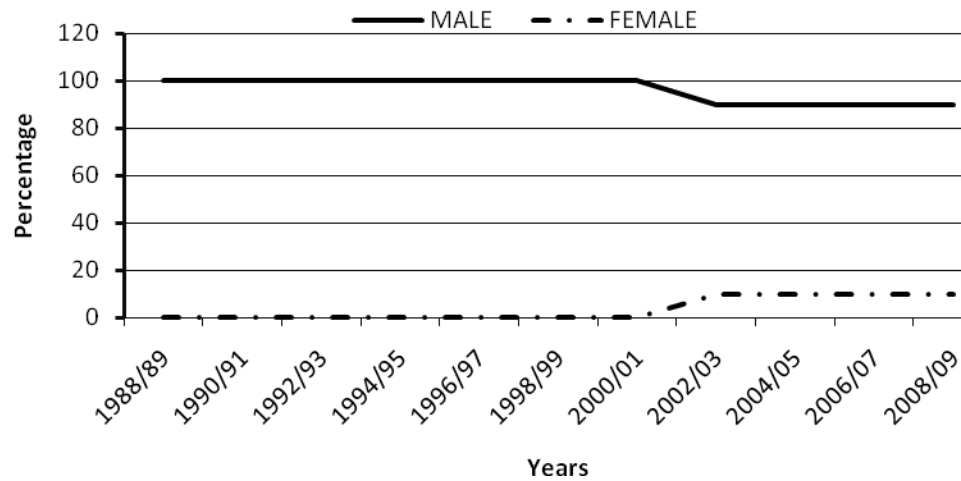


Figure 4.8 Proportion of Male to Female General-Secretaries of Sports Associations/Federations in Uganda

From the results, it is evident that leadership in sports in Uganda has continued to be dominated by men over the years and there were no female role models in sports leadership for a long period. These results concur with what Shaw (2006) noted that women continued to be underrepresented at higher levels of management. It was not until 2002/03 that there was an entry of their female counterparts as General-Secretaries, but the gap remains large.

In addition, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the numbers of male and female General Secretaries of the selected sports organisations in Uganda. The results are shown in table 4.5 show that there was a significant difference in the ratios of male to female General Secretaries of sports Associations/Federations for male ($M = 96.4$, $SD = 5.0$) and female ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 5.0$); $t(20) = 43.1$, $p = .000$.

Table 4.5 Independent Samples t-test of the Ratios of Male to Female General Secretaries of Federations

Group Statistics

	category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
General Secretaries	Male	11	96.364	5.0452	1.5212
	Female	11	3.636	5.0452	1.5212

NOTE: N represents the number of terms over a period of 22 years in 10 organisations

Independent Samples Test

		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
General Secretaries	Equal variances assumed	43.103	20	.000	92.727	2.1513	88.2397	97.2148
	Equal variances not assumed	43.103	20	.000	92.727	2.1513	88.2397	97.2148

These results from table 4.5 above indicate that there were more male General Secretaries on the Board/Executive Committees of sports organizations than the female counterparts. Hence, the null hypothesis, H_0 , that there is no significant difference in the proportion of male and female participants in sports in Uganda over the years was rejected.

4.5.2 Gender Representation in Coaching of National Teams in Uganda

At the national level, various teams are assigned coaches. An examination of the gender of the coaches revealed that all men's teams were being coached by male coaches for the over 20-year period. The results obtained are summarized in figure 4.9 below:

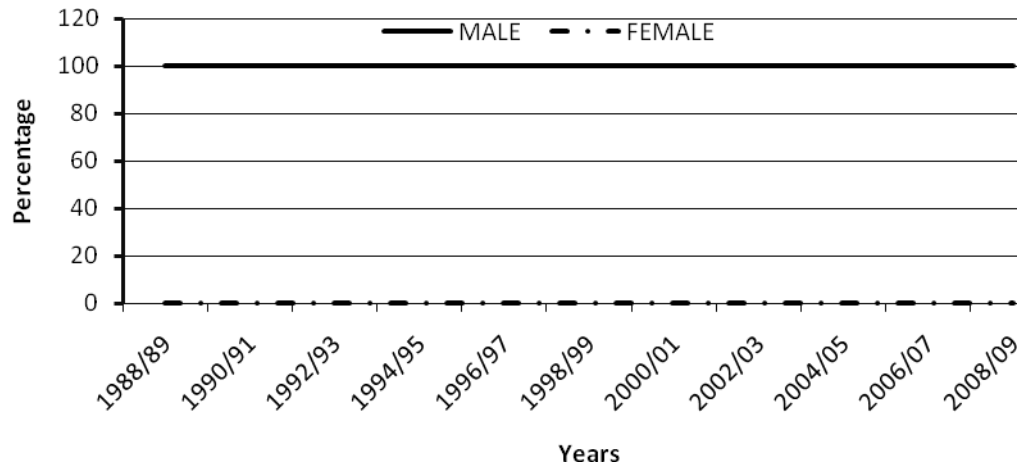


Figure 4.9 Gender of the Coaches for Male Teams in Competitive Sports in Uganda

The results as shown in figure 4.9 above indicate that all coaches of men's teams were male. A possible explanation for using male coaches in the teams could be attributed to the traditional masculine values and historical male dominance imbedded within sport (Patel, 2004; Patel & Boyes, 2006). It is also noted by Hannan (2008) that the dominance of men in coaching and management also reinforces traditional patriarchal power hierarchies. Similarly, West et al., (2001) assert that women remain underrepresented in sports coaching roles relative to their numbers as participants and it could have been caused by the perception that coaching is a masculine role. In addition, Acosta and Carpenter (2000) assert that there has been no increase in opportunities for women to coach men. For instance, about 2% of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) of men's programs had a female coach at the helm (Acosta & Carpenter, 2000).

In addition, the gender of the coaches at national level for female teams and players was examined and the results are shown in figure 4.10:

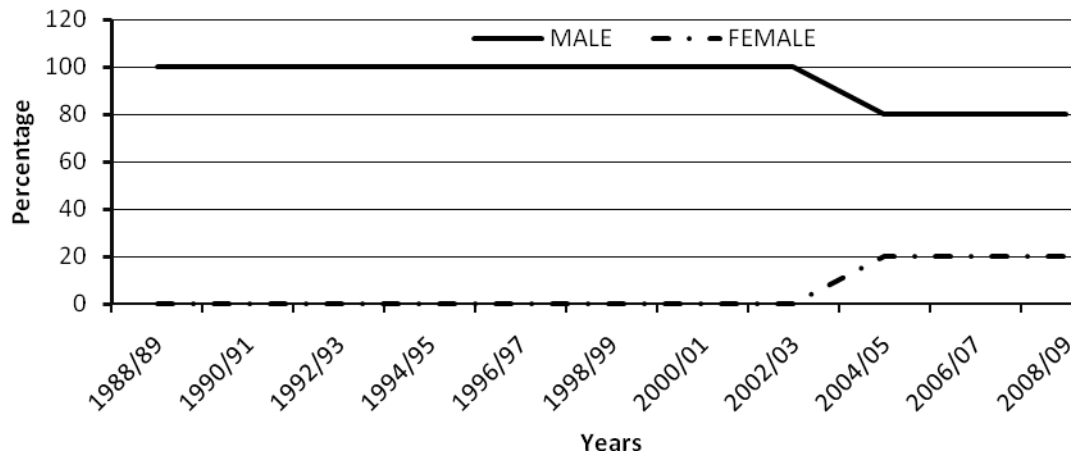


Figure 4.10 Gender of the Coaches for Female Teams in Competitive Sports in Uganda

As shown in figure 4.10 above, female national teams of various games had male coaches until 2004 when only a proportion of 20% began to be coached by female coaches whereas 80% continued being coached by the male. These findings tally with those of Mumford (2005) who found that the majority of the women’s teams were coached by men and those women comprised only a proportion of 23% of the coaches in Maryland colleges. Another example is from the Czech Republic where only 21% of elite athletes were being coached by women (United Nations, 2007). The results are also in agreement with what Huggins & Randell (2007) highlight that women are significantly underrepresented in coaching positions. This situation of having many more male coaches than female ones could be due to the fact that the word “coach” still tends to connote masculinity in the world of sports (McGinnis, Chun & McQuillan, 2003). Acosta and Carpenter (2000) also make an observation that coaching

opportunities for men in women's sports have been increasing dramatically. For example, it was also observed that in the United States as women's sports programs expanded and began to receive more financial support and recognition, men began applying for, and getting women's sport coaching positions (Acosta and Carpenter, 2000).

The proportion of coaches for female teams was further analysed using an independent samples t-test to establish if there was a significant difference in the proportion of male and female participants and the results are shown in table 4.6:

Table 4.6 Independent Samples t-test of the Ratios of Male to Female Coaches of Female Teams

Group Statistics

	category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Coaches of female teams	Male	11	94.545	9.3420	2.8167
	Female	11	5.455	9.3420	2.8167

NOTE: N represents the number of terms over a period of 22 years in 10 organisations

Independent Samples Test

		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Coaches of female teams	Equal variances assumed	22.365	20	.000	89.091	3.9834	80.7816	97.4002
	Equal variances not assumed	22.365	20	.000	89.091	3.9834	80.7816	97.4002

From table 4.6 above, results show a significant difference in the ratios of male and female coaches for female teams for male ($M = 94.5$, $SD = 9.3$) and female ($M = 5.5$, $SD = 9.3$); $t(20) = 22.4$, $p = .000$. These results suggest that there were more male coaches for female teams of sports organizations than the female counterparts. This implies that there was gender disparity in relation to the number of male and female coaches for female sports teams in Uganda. Hence, the null hypothesis, H_{02} , that there is no significant difference in the proportion of male and female participants in sports in Uganda over the years was rejected.

4.5.3 Representation of Athletes in Uganda's National Competitions by Gender

The participation of athletes in various games, by gender, over the years (1997 – 2009) at national level in Uganda was summarised in figure 4.11:

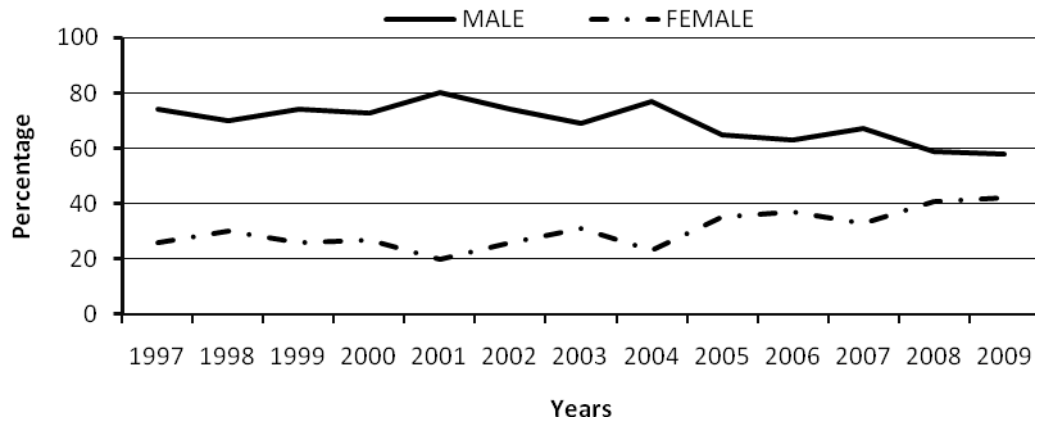


Figure 4.11 Ratio of Male to Female Athletes in Uganda's National-Level Sports Competitions

In the analysis, it was evident that for the period 1997 to 2004, the gap in gender disparity was almost constant. There were approximately 3 female athletes to every 7

male athletes (30% female representation) in national competitions. This situation could have been due to the fact that the dominant male sport value system had defined and delimited the parameters of sport for women and girls (United Nations, 2007). From 2005 onwards, however, the gap appears to have started decreasing, whereby the number of female athletes participating in national-level sports competitions increased in relation to that of male athletes. This increase may also have been as a result of the changing attitude of women towards sports. Further analysis using an independent samples t-test was carried out to establish whether there was a significant difference in the numbers of male and female athletes at national level and the results are shown in table 4.7 below:

Table 4.7 Independent Samples t-test of the Ratios of Male to Female Athletes at National Level

Group Statistics

	category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Athletes	Male	11	71.455	5.1646	1.5572
	Female	11	28.545	5.1646	1.5572

NOTE: N represents the number of terms over a period of 22 years in 10 organisations

Independent Samples Test

		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Athletes	Equal variances assumed	19.485	20	.000	42.909	2.2022	38.3154	47.5028
	Equal variances not assumed	19.485	20	.000	42.909	2.2022	38.3154	47.5028

From table 4.7 above, results show that there was a significant difference in the ratios of male to female athletes of sports Associations/Federations for male ($M = 71.5$, $SD =$

5.2) and female ($M = 28.5$, $SD = 5.2$); $t(20) = 19.5$, $p = .000$. These results suggest that there were more male athletes of sports organizations than the female counterparts. These findings are in agreement with Huggins & Randell (2007) who contend that the number of female athletes lags behind that of male in all countries around the world. The implication of this is that there were more male athletes than the female counterparts. Therefore, H_0 that there is no significant difference in the proportion of male and female participants in sports in Uganda was rejected. These findings are in agreement with Huggins & Randell (2007) who contend that the number of female athletes lags behind that of male in all countries around the world.

4.6 Trends of Male and Female Participation in Competitive Sports

This study sought to examine the trends towards gender equity in sports in Uganda in terms of proportion of male and female participants over the period 1988 to 2009. This was done by looking at the involvement of sports participants in various positions/status over the years.

4.6.1 Trends of Gender Representation in Sports Management

At the level of management, the number of male and female members of executive/boards of sports organisations in Uganda over the years was computed and a line of best fit was drawn through the points. The results obtained are in figure 4.12 below:

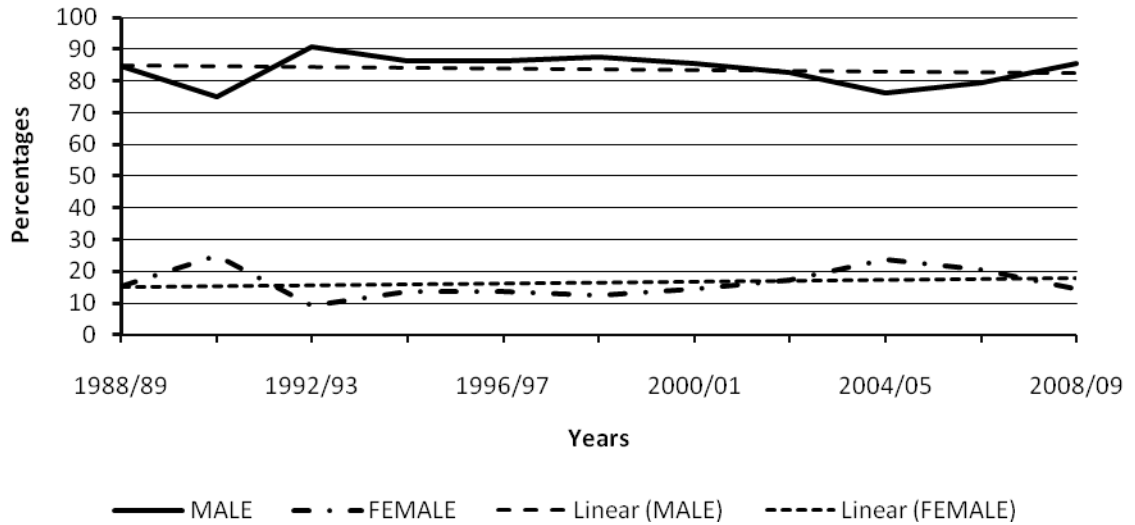


Figure 4.12 Trends for Members of Boards/Executive Committees of Sports Organisations

In the results, it was observed that the lines of best fit through the trends for male and female members of executive/boards are slightly converging though they are almost parallel to each other. In addition, a forecast to find out if there is a likelihood of ever achieving gender equity in sports in Uganda within executive/boards was done for the next 240 years. The results are as in figure 4.13 below:

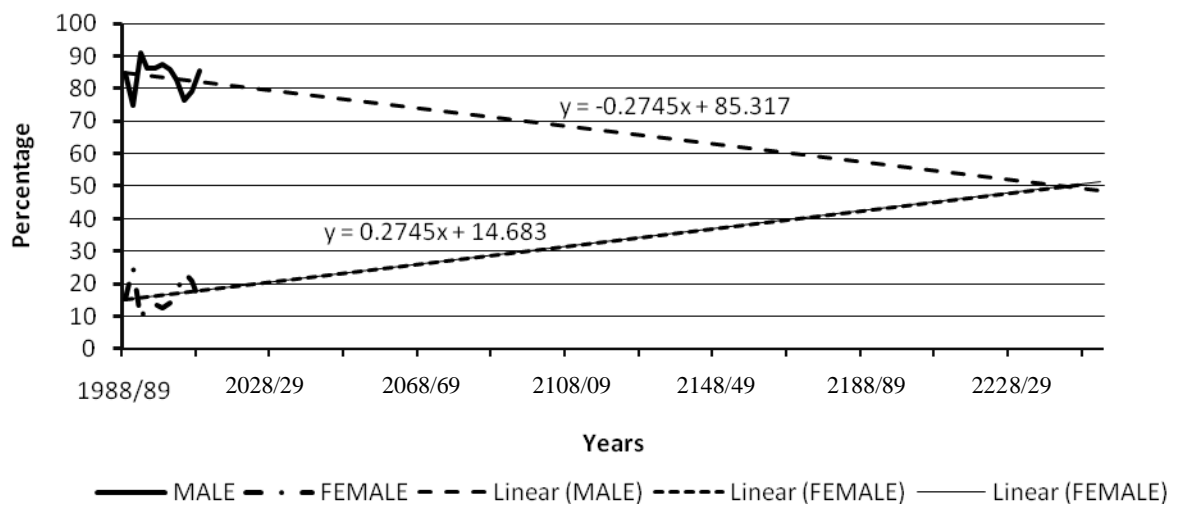


Figure 4.13 Forecasts of the Trends Towards Gender Equity for Boards/Executive Committee Members

The results in figure 4.13 show that it will take the next 240 years to achieve gender equity in relation to the number of men and women on executive/boards of sports organisations in Uganda if the conditions and circumstances remain the same. This implies that the trend towards gender equity in sports in Uganda is minimal in relation to executive/board members in sports organizations. This calls for strategies to be put in place to bring more women on board so that they are able to influence decisions and policies in sports in Uganda.

4.6.2 Trends of Gender Representation in Coaching at National Level

The representation of male and female coaches for teams at national level was compiled and presented in figure 4.14:

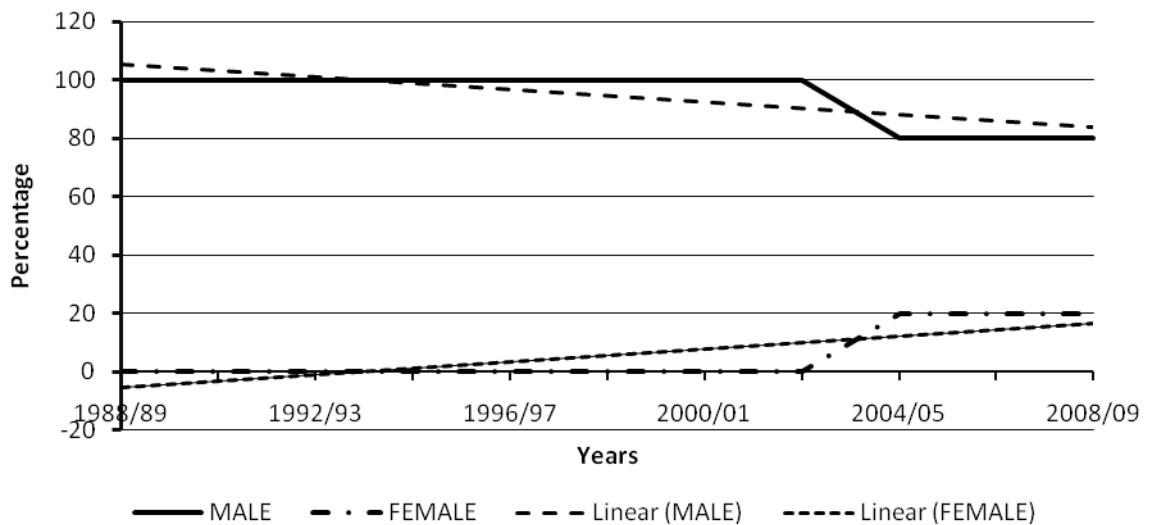


Figure 4.14 Trends of Coaches for Female Teams in Competitive Sports in Uganda

Figure 4.14 above shows that the gap between the trends of the two groups (male and female) was gradually narrowing. This is an implication that there was a trend towards

gender equity in sports in Uganda in relation to coaches of female teams. This is similar to the situation in Britain where the number of female coaches increased from 2% in 1976 to 10% in 1988 (Wesson et al., 2002). Further analysis of regression was conducted and the results are as shown in figure 4.15 below:

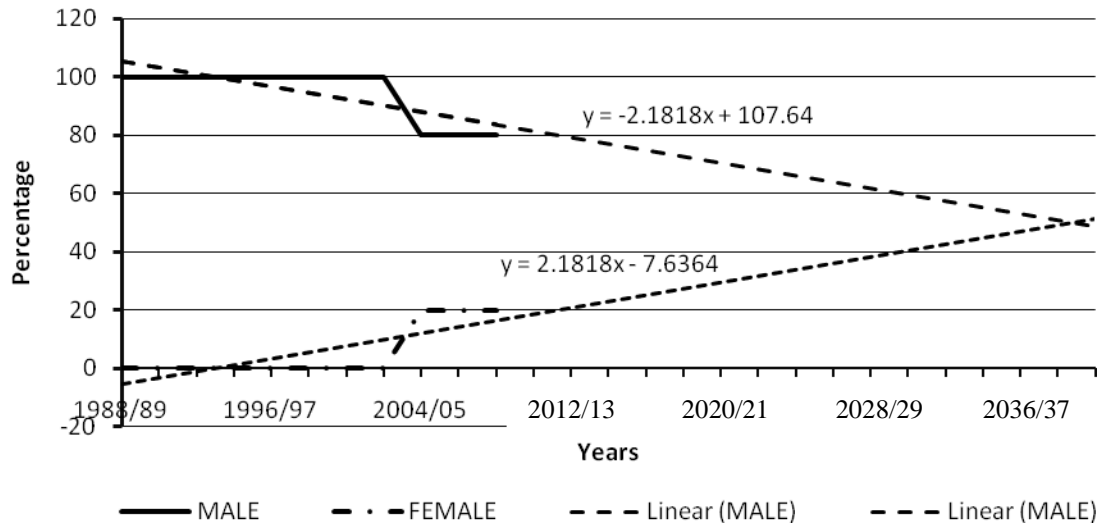


Figure 4.15 Forecasted Trends for coaches of Female Teams in Competitive Sports in Uganda

From figure 4.15 above, the results showed that gender equity would be realised, if all things remained constant, in Uganda in the year 2039. This long period deprives women of the chances and benefits of coaching and being coached by female coaches. It also limits the access to female role models for the girls as they continue to participate in sports. The situation in United States colleges has been different as shown in a study by Acosta and Carpenter (2008) who observed that 90% of the coaches who coached women's sports in 1972 were female, by 1999, the number had dropped to 45.6% and by 2008 it was only 42.8%.

4.6.3 Trends of Male and Female Participants in Sports

The number of athletes who participated in competitions at national level in Uganda was computed and the line of best fit drawn. The results are displayed in figure 4.16 below:

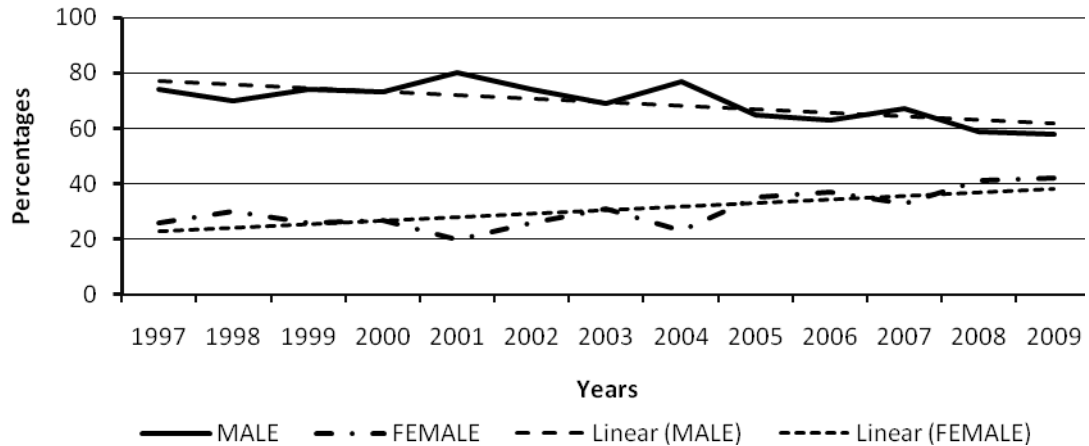


Figure 4.16 Trends of Male and Female Athletes' Participation in Competitive Sports in Uganda

In regard to athletes, the trends as shown in figure 4.16 above indicate a continuous decrease in the gap as years go by. This is a clear indication of trends towards gender equity in sports in Uganda. The results are in agreement with the case of Britain where the female athletes were 20% in 1976 and the number increased to 39% in 1992 (Wesson et al., 2002). In addition, regression analysis was carried out to forecast the expected situation as far as achieving gender equity is concerned. The results are shown in figure 4.17 below:

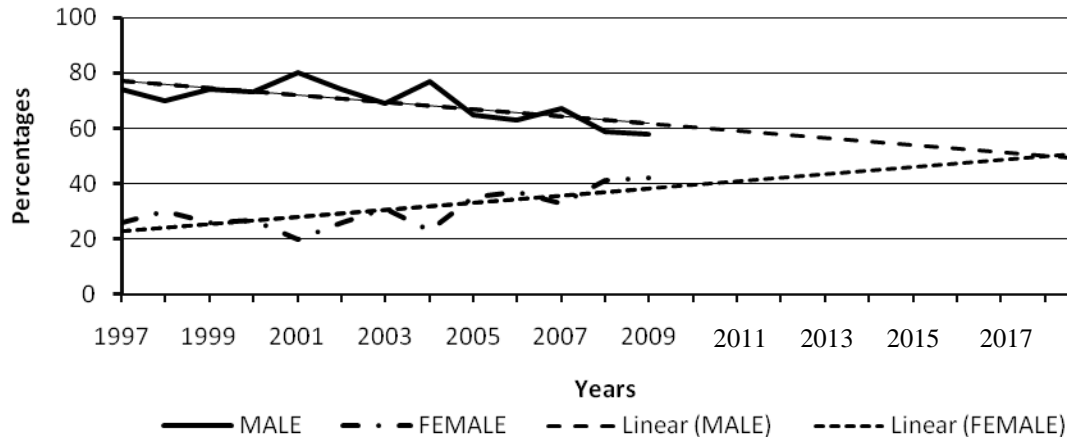


Figure 4.17 Forecasts of the Trends Towards Gender Equity for Athletes

The results in table 4.17 above show that if the trends in sports participation in Uganda remained the same, gender equity would only be achieved by the year 2017.

4.8 Opportunities Available for Participation of Male and Female in Sports

In order to determine the extent of gender disparity in the opportunities available for participants in sports, both male and female participants were required to rate the different aspects of the opportunities available to them based on their perception of the situation. The responses obtained are summarised as shown in table 4.8 below:

Table 4.8 Opportunity Index for Male and Female Participants in Competitive Sports

OPPORTUNITIES	Facilities	Equipment	Uniform	Participation	Competition	Assignment of Coaches	Coaches time	Funding
MALE	3.43	3.32	3.36	4.28	3.88	3.31	3.33	2.79
FEMALE	2.99	2.93	2.95	3.01	1.74	2.97	2.99	2.35

From table 4.8 above, the opportunity index, (male = 3.43, female = 2.99), indicated that sports facilities were more readily available to the male players compared to female players. This is in line with what was found out by Huggins and Randell (2007) that men's teams are given preferential access to sports fields or weight training rooms. Similarly, the opportunity index, (male = 3.32, female = 2.93), shows that equipment was more readily available to male participants than to their female counterparts. This is in agreement with Women's Sports Foundation (2008) which affirms that men's teams receive better equipment. In addition, results show that uniform were more readily available to the male participants as compared to the female participants (male = 3.36, female = 2.95).

Results show that the opportunity index for male is higher than the one for female (male = 4.28, female = 3.01) in respect to participation. This implies that male players were accorded more opportunities to participate in sports activities than the female players. This corresponds with what was found in UK in 2002 that 65% of men as compared to 53% of women had participated in sports in the 4 - week period prior to the interview (Godwin & Godwin, 2004). The historic lopsidedness of female participation in sports is often explained by gendered socialization. Participation in sports is considered an important way to construct a masculine self-identity (McGinnis, Chun & McQuillan, 2003). It is suggested by Everhart & Pemberton (2001) that because the development of school sport has, over time, marginalised and devalued women's sport, women and girls participation has actually been suppressed. Women's Sports Foundation (2008) asserts

that male athletes still have more opportunities to participate as they still receive more preferential scheduling.

In addition, the results show that in relation to competition, the opportunity index for men is 3.88 is higher than that for women which is 1.74. The implication is that men are given more chances to participate in competitions when compared to the women. This is similar to the results of the survey in UK in 2000 where more men (40%) took part in organised competition as compared to the women (14%) (Godwin & Godwin, 2004). This could be due to the discrimination against women concerned with regulations of competitions and rules of major sporting facilities (United Nations, 2007). On the contrary, Hall (2006) found that both men and women in Canada had equal access to training and competitive environments. The results further indicate that more of the men's teams than women's teams were regularly assigned a coach. This is shown by the opportunity indices, (male = 3.31, female = 2.97). Additionally, the assigned coaches gave more time to men's teams as shown by an index of 3.33 while women's teams were given less time (female = 2.99).

The results reflect inadequate funding for both male and female teams (male = 2.79, female = 2.74). Therefore funding among the sports activities in Uganda did not seem to be much of a gender issue but rather a general problem though the results show that it was slightly better for men than for women. A research on Canadian university athletics has shown that women received fewer scholarships than men, and men's teams received a greater share of operating budgets (Canadian Interuniversity Sport-CIS, 2001;

Danylchuk & MacLean, 2001). Women's Sports Foundation (2008) notes that male athletes still receive more funding, preferential scheduling and more scholarship opportunities.

From the results as discussed above, it is clear that opportunities in regard to availability of facilities, equipment, uniforms, chance to participate, allocation of coaches, coaches' time, competitions and funding, were more accorded to male than to female participants.

This is shown in figure 4.18 below:

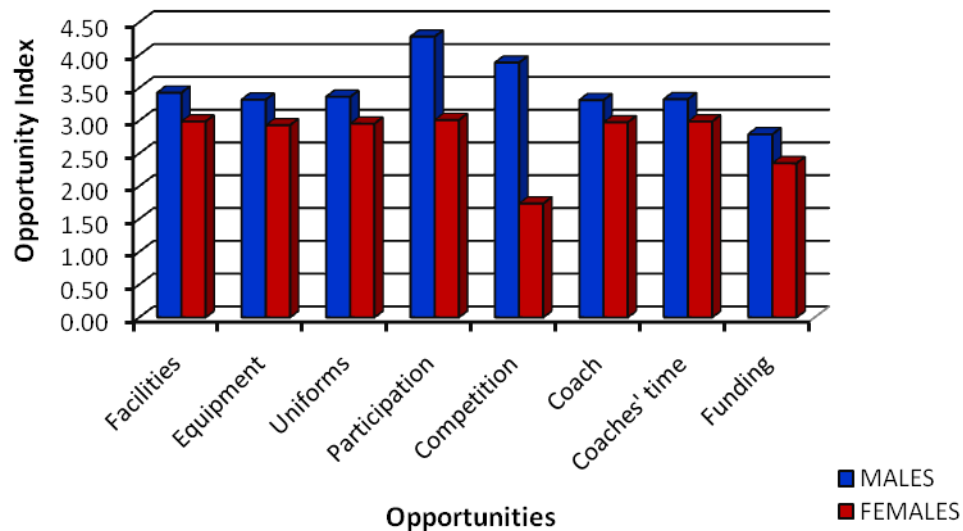


Figure 4.18 Opportunity indices for Male and Female Sports Participants

Figure 4.18 above indicates that availability of the chance to take part in competitions had the smallest index for females whereas it had the second largest index for the male counterparts. This was followed by availability of chances to participate in sports whereby the opportunity index for men was the biggest yet the index for women was second smallest. For all the opportunities for sports, the opportunity index was higher

for men than that for women. These results are consistent with those of other studies (Daldine, 1992; Priest and Summerfield, 1994; United Nations, 2007; Women's Sports Foundation, 2008) which indicate that sports opportunities are more availed to men than to women.

The independent sample t-test was conducted to find out if the two groups (male and female) differ significantly in the opportunity index and the results are shown in table 4.9 below:

Table 4.9 Independent Sample t-test of the Opportunity Indices for Male and Female Sports Participants

Group Statistics

	CAT	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
opportunities	for men	8	3.45421	.446070	.157709
	for women	8	2.88944	.219990	.077778

NOTE: N represents the number of opportunities availed to men and women

Independent Samples Test

		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
opportunities	Equal variances assumed	3.212	14	.006	.56477	.175846	.1876	.9419
	Equal variances not assumed	3.212	10.2	.009	.56477	.175846	.1742	.9555

According to the results shown in table 4.9, there was a significant difference in the opportunities available for male and female participants, male ($M = 3.454$, $SD = 0.446$) and female ($M = 2.889$, $SD = 0.220$); $t(14) = 3.21$, at $p = 0.006$ with male participants being availed more opportunities than their female counterparts. This indicates that

gender disparity exists in the opportunities available. Therefore, the null hypothesis, H_{03} , that there is no significant difference in the opportunities available for male and female sports participants in Uganda was rejected. Basing on respondents rating, on average, opportunities are more available to male (mean = 3.454) compared to the female participants (mean = 2.889). The implication of this is that opportunities in sports, that is, facilities, equipment, uniforms, participation, competitions, funding and coaches were more available to men than they were to the women.

4.9 Causes of Gender Disparity

Respondents holding various positions in the sports arena were asked to rate the factors that influenced gender disparity in sports. The respondents were categorized in three groups, namely the Board/Executive Committee members, the coaches and the athletes, whereas the causes were in four groups, that is, social, cultural, economic and political factors. Each of these factors had several areas of concern as shown in the sections that follow. The social factors that were considered included proportion of participation of women and men in sports, levels of women's interest in sports and whether or not there were female role models in sports. The cultural factors included people's beliefs that sports are meant for men not women, that leadership in sports was for men and not women, while economic factors included funding for women and financial empowerment for women during elections. On the other hand, the political factors that were investigated included legislative policies to support gender equity, availability of gender equity committees, and awareness of gender issues by both the leaders and the athletes.

4.9.1 Social Factors

The rating of respondents on different items under social factors that influenced gender balance in sports was sought and the results are shown on table 4.10 below:

Table 4.10 Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents on Social Factors that led to Gender Disparity

ITEM	SCORE	RESPONSES					
		BOARD/EXECUTIVE		COACHES		ATHLETES	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
Women's interest in sports is lower than men's	Strongly Disagree	2	2.7	3	7.3	5	2.7
	Disagree	8	10.8	4	9.8	14	7.4
	Undecided	4	5.4	1	2.4	8	4.3
	Agree	33	44.6	17	41.5	92	48.9
	Strongly Agree	27	36.5	16	39.0	69	36.7
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
Hardly any women models in sports	Strongly Disagree	9	12.2	10	24.4	38	20.2
	Disagree	29	39.2	15	36.6	64	34.0
	Undecided	6	8.1	4	9.8	26	13.8
	Agree	20	27.0	9	22.0	41	21.8
	Strongly Agree	10	13.5	3	7.3	19	10.1
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0

The results in table 4.10 show that a large proportion of the Board/Executive members, 60 (81.1%), agreed that the interest of women in sports was lower compared to that of men. This is shown by 33 (44.6%) Board/Executive members who agreed and 27 (36.5%) Board/Executive members who strongly agreed. Similarly, 33 (80.5%) coaches were of the same view that women's interest in sports was low whereby 17 (41.5%) coaches agreed and 16 (39.0) coaches strongly agreed. In addition, 161 (85.6%) athletes were in agreement that the interest of women in sports was lower compared to that of men. This is revealed by 92 (48.9%) athletes who agreed and 69 (36.7%) athletes who strongly agreed. On the contrary, Sportscotland (2007) contends that women are underrepresented at all levels and sectors of sport not because of lack of interest by

women, but by a long history of direct and indirect forms of discrimination. SportsScotland (2007) adds that the way in which sports are organized and resourced contributes towards putting off women and girls from participation. Further, evidence has been presented by Everhart & Pemberton (2001) to show that gender bias and gender discrimination are manifested in sport through differences in both the quantity and quality of the sport experience and the programmes that are available. Furthermore, they also note that the virtual elimination of female from sport administrative leadership and dramatically reduced numbers of female sport coaches has also contributed to gender disparity.

In addition, the results of the study as shown in table 4.10 indicate that a big fraction of the Board/Executive members, which is 38 (51.4%), believe that there are women role models in sports. This is shown by 29 (39.2%) Board/Executive members who supported and 9 (12.2%) Board/Executive members strongly supported the idea. This was a similar view with 25 (61.0%) of the coaches whereby 15 (36.6%) coaches were in agreement and 10 (24.4%) coaches were in strong agreement on the same point. Likewise, 102 (54.2%) athletes supported this view. That is 64 (34.0%) athletes who indicated and 38 (20.2%) athletes who strongly indicated that there are women role models in sports. This contrasts with what was found out by Meier (2005) from several studies which revealed that both male and female sports participants did not have any female role model to look up to. In addition, Shehu (2006) asserts that there are very few role models to show girls that the female can participate in sport and succeed. Similarly, Huggins and Randell (2007) note that female sports figures are noticeably

absent, which gives girls less exposure to female role models. Without female athletes to look up to, women lose out on encouragement, inspiration and exhilaration. This could partly explain the reason for their underrepresentation in the various spheres of sports.

The means of the responses by different categories of respondents were calculated to find the extent to which they agreed or disagreed to the participation of men and women in competitive sports and the results are shown in figure 4.19 below:

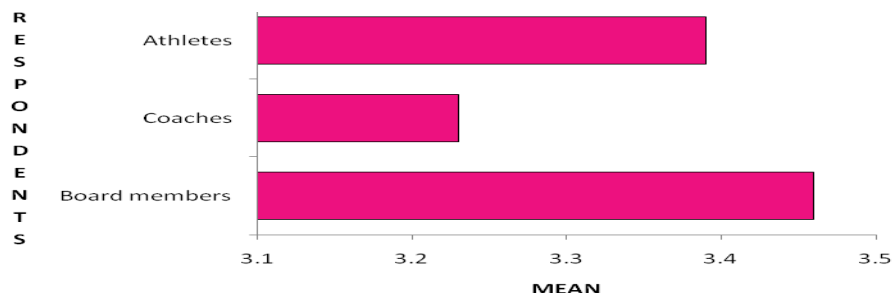


Figure 4.19 Overall Means of Respondents' Views about Social Factors that Lead to Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda

From figure 4.19 above, it is evident that the Board members had the largest mean (3.46). Athletes recorded the second highest mean (3.39) and lastly the Coaches who had a mean of 3.23. This implies that the views of the board members, coaches and athletes put an emphasis on the contribution of social factors to gender disparity in competitive sports in Uganda.

For further analysis, the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. This was to determine if there was a statistically significant difference of the position of the respondents in the sporting arena on their rating of the extent to which the various social factors influenced the gender imbalance in sports in Uganda. The results are as shown in table 4.11:

Table 4.11 ANOVA Summary on Social Causes of Gender Disparity

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.745	2	1.372	0.753	0.471
Within Groups	1098.437	603	1.822		
Total	1101.182	605			

F (2, 603) = 3.03, at p < .05

The ANOVA results as shown in table 4.11 above were $F(2, 603) = 0.753$, at $p < .05$, this indicates that there was no significant difference in the views of the respondents. Hence, the null hypothesis, H_{04} , that there is no significant difference in the responses of board members of national sports organisations, coaches and athletes on the extent to which social factors influence gender disparity in sports in Uganda, was accepted. This shows that the different categories of respondents were in agreement that all the items under social factors contributed to gender disparity in sports in Uganda.

4.9.2 Cultural Factors and Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports

Considering the various items under the cultural causes of gender disparity, different categories of members in sports rated them as shown on table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents on Cultural Factors that Cause Gender Disparity

ITEM	SCORE	RESPONDENTS' STATUS					
		Board/Executive		Coach		Athlete	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
Sports are not for women but for men	Strongly Disagree	5	6.8	7	17.1	30	16.0
	Disagree	15	20.3	8	19.5	42	22.3
	Undecided	4	5.4	2	4.9	14	7.4
	Agree	29	39.2	15	36.6	55	29.3
	Strongly agree	21	28.4	9	22.0	47	25.0
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
Men should be the leaders	Strongly Disagree	3	4.1	2	4.9	25	13.3
	Disagree	11	14.9	7	17.1	32	17.0
	Undecided	2	2.7	2	4.9	5	2.7
	Agree	30	40.5	17	41.5	57	30.3
	Strongly agree	28	37.8	13	31.7	69	36.7
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
No chance for women to lead	Strongly Disagree	9	12.2	1	2.4	33	17.6
	Disagree	36	48.6	11	26.8	55	29.3
	Undecided	7	9.5	3	7.3	19	10.0
	Agree	13	17.6	15	36.6	50	26.6
	Strongly agree	9	12.2	11	26.8	31	16.5
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0

The results show that most of the Board/Executive members, 50 (67.6%), agreed that people's belief that the sporting activities are not meant for women was a contributing factor to women's low participation in sporting activities. This is shown by 29 (39.2%) Board/Executive members who agreed and 21 (28.4%) Board/Executive members who strongly agreed. A larger proportion of 24 (58.6%) coaches had the same view. This number is a result of 15 (36.6%) coaches who agreed and 9 (22.0%) coaches who strongly agreed. Additionally, this was the same view with 102 (54.3%) athletes whereby 55 (29.3%) athletes agreed and 47 (25.0%) athletes strongly agreed. Sport England (2000) has the same opinion as that of the respondents that there is a widespread belief that sports is a more appropriate activity for men than for women. Several studies emphasize that sports is frequently regarded as masculine

(Sportscotland, 2007). Further still, a study conducted by Everhart and Pemberton (2001), presented evidence that gender bias in sports is not only a product of different sport histories and traditions, but also inherent incompatibility between female and male sports cultures and values. It is due to this that efforts are required to remove misconceptions related to women's participation in sports (United Nations, 2007).

The results show that a big proportion of the Board/Executive members, 58 (78.3%) were of the view that it is traditionally believed that men should be the ones to lead. This number comprises 30 (40.5%) Board/Executive members who agreed and 28 (37.8%) Board/Executive members who strongly agreed. This concurred with the views of 30 (73.2%) coaches whereby 17 (41.5%) coaches agreed and 13 (31.7%) coaches strongly agreed. A large number of the athletes, 126 (67.0%) were of the same view. This is a total of 69 (36.7%) athletes who strongly agreed and 57 (30.3%) athletes who agreed on this. This could be one of the causes of gender disparity in sports in Uganda. According to Moore (2010), certain fields like sport or the military are particularly closely associated with men and masculinity, and women might be viewed as particularly unfit for leadership positions in these arenas. Positions of power are still assumed to be masculine (McGinnis, Chun & McQuillan, 2003), and this could be one of the reasons for few numbers of women involved in sports leadership than men.

From the findings of the study, 45 (60.8%) Board/Executive members believe that women are allowed opportunities to lead. 36 (48.6%) Board/Executive members supported and 9 (12.2%) Board/Executive members strongly supported this idea.

Similarly, 88 (46.9%) athletes were of the same view. This is from 55 (29.3%) athletes who upheld the view and 33 (17.6%) athletes who strongly supported the point. On the contrary, 26 (63.4%) coaches indicated that women were not given the chance to provide the leadership. This is shown by 15 (36.6%) coaches who agreed and 11 (26.8%) coaches who strongly indicated so. The means of the responses by different categories of respondents were calculated to find the extent to which they agreed or disagreed to the contribution of cultural factors to gender disparity in competitive sports and the results are shown in figure 4.20 below:

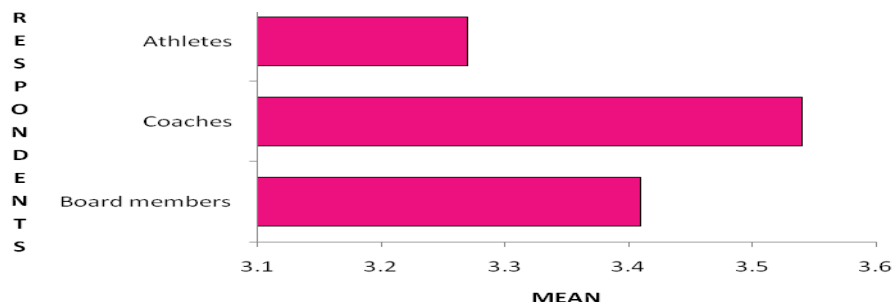


Figure 4.20 Overall Means of Respondents' Views about Cultural Factors that Lead to Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda

The results in figure 4.20 show that the coaches had the highest mean (3.54) on cultural factors that cause gender disparity. They were followed by board members whose mean was 3.41, and the lowest mean (3.27) reflects the views of the athletes on the same factors.

Further analysis to determine the rating of the respondents according to their positions/status was carried out and the results are shown in table 4.13 below.

Table 4.13 ANOVA Summary Table on Cultural Factors that Cause Gender Disparity

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9.329	2	4.664	2.354	0.096
Within Groups	1794.951	906	1.981		
Total	1804.279	908			

$$F(2, 906) = 3.03, \text{ at } p < .05$$

The ANOVA results were $F(2, 906) = 2.354$, at $p < .05$, indicating that there was no significant difference in the views of the respondents. Therefore, the null hypothesis, H_{04} , that there is no significant difference in the responses of board members of national sports organisations, coaches and athletes on the extent to which cultural factors influence gender disparity in sports in Uganda, was accepted.

4.9.3 Economic Factors

Economic factors as causes of gender disparity in sports were rated differently by the different members in sports and the results are shown in the table 4.14 below:

Table 4.14 Frequencies and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents' Rating of Economic Factors as Being Causes of Gender Disparity

ITEM	SCORE	RESPONDENTS' STATUS					
		Board/Executive		Coaches		Athletes	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
Women are not appropriately funded	Strongly Disagree	8	10.8	2	4.9	22	11.7
	Disagree	22	29.7	4	9.8	25	13.3
	Undecided	7	9.5	5	12.2	26	13.8
	Agree	18	24.3	14	34.1	78	41.5
	Strongly Agree	19	25.7	16	39.0	37	19.7
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
Women are not financially empowered during elections	Strongly Disagree	6	8.1	5	12.2	17	9.0
	Disagree	30	40.5	9	22.0	32	17.0
	Undecided	8	10.8	4	9.8	39	20.7
	Agree	16	21.6	12	29.3	65	34.6
	Strongly Agree	14	18.9	11	26.8	35	18.6
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0

The results in table 4.14 above show that the number of Board/Executive members who indicated that women are not appropriately funded was 37 (50.0%) and it was rated the highest. This is from 18 (24.3%) Board/Executive members coaches who agreed and 19 (25.7%) Board/Executive members who strongly agreed. However, the rating did not diverge substantially from that of 30 (40.5%) Board/Executive members who were of a different view. 22 (29.7%) Board/Executive members who disagreed; and 8 (10.8%) of the Board/Executive members who strongly disagreed and thought otherwise. More so, 30 (73.1%) of the coaches, and 115 (61.2%) athletes indicated that women were not appropriately funded. This is similar to what was found out in the study of Hoeber (2007) that in Canadian University athletics, women received fewer scholarships than men and men's teams received a greater share of the operating budgets. In addition, it is the same case at the international level. The funding for women sports activities as compared to that of men is much lower. An example is shown by the scholarships which are given through the Olympic Solidarity Programmes. In 2000, it was only 25.6% of the funding that went to women athletes, for the Olympic Games at Athens in 2004, only 30.5% was given to women athletes. For the funding towards sports leaders and administrators in 2002, only 27.3% was the contribution given to the women (International Olympic Committee, 2005). The results also show that a larger proportion of Board/Executive members, 36 (48.6%) as compared to 30 (40.5%), believe that women are being financially empowered during election. Conversely, more coaches, 23 (56.1%) and 100 (53.2%) athletes responded that the women were not. These results are consistent with the findings of Morakinyo and Olufolake (2005) in Nigeria.

The means of the responses by different categories of respondents were calculated to find the extent to which they agreed or disagreed to the contribution of economic factors to gender disparity in competitive sports and the results are shown in figure 4.21 below:

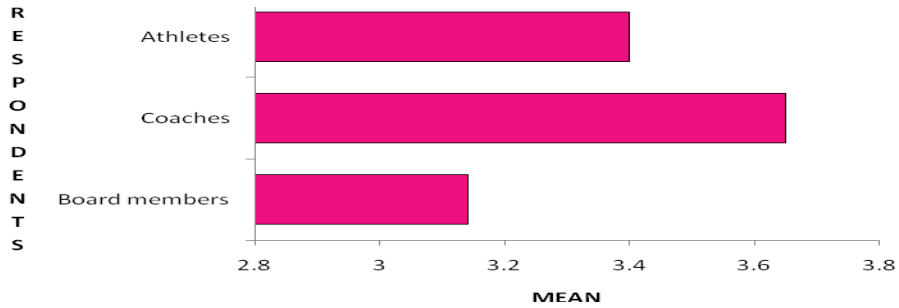


Figure 4.21 Overall Means of Respondent's Views about Economic Factors that Lead to Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda

From the findings as presented in figure 4.21 above, coaches had the largest mean (3.65), followed by athletes (3.40) and then Board members (3.14). Further analysis using ANOVA was carried out to test if the differences were significant and the results presented in table 4.15 below:

Table 4.15 ANOVA Summary Table on Economic Factors as Causes of Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14.866	2	7.433	4.506	0.011
Within Groups	994.594	603	1.649		
Total	1009.460	605			

$F(2, 603) = 3.03$, at $p < .05$

The results of ANOVA in table 4.15 above were $F(2, 906) = 4.506$, at $p < .05$ which indicates that there was a significant difference among the views of the members

holding different positions in the sports on the rating of economic factors that cause gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda. Therefore, the null hypothesis H_{04} , that there would be no significant differences in the responses of board members, coaches and athletes on the extent to which economic factors have led to gender disparity in sports in Uganda was rejected. To determine the exact source of the differences in the rating, a post hoc analysis using Tukey HSD test was carried out and the results were as shown in table 4.16 below:

Table 4.16 Summary of Tukey HSD test by Position on Economic Factors as Causes of Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports

(I) category	(J) category	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
board	coach	-.51(*)	.177	.011	-.93	-.10
	athlete	-.27	.125	.079	-.56	.02
coach	board	.51(*)	.177	.011	.10	.93
	athlete	.24	.157	.270	-.13	.61
athlete	board	.27	.125	.079	-.02	.56
	coach	-.24	.157	.270	-.61	.13

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As shown in table 4.16, the findings show that the difference in the rating was brought about by the difference between the views of the Board/Executive members and the coaches. The difference in the views between Board/Executive members versus athletes and coaches versus athletes did not cause any significant difference on the rating of the

4.9.4 Political Factors and Gender Inequity in Sports

Various members who hold different positions in the sports field were asked to rate various political factors on the extent that they contributed to gender inequity in sports.

The findings are shown in table 4.17 below:

Table 4.17 Frequencies and Percentage Distribution of the Respondents' Rating on Political Factors as Causes of Gender Disparity in Sports

ITEM	SCORE	RESPONDENTS' STATUS					
		Board/Executive		Coaches		Athletes	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
No legislative policies that support gender equity	Strongly Disagree	9	12.2	5	12.2	18	9.6
	Disagree	25	33.8	11	26.8	42	22.3
	Undecided	6	8.1	3	7.3	27	14.4
	Agree	22	29.7	15	36.6	59	31.4
	Strongly Agree	12	16.2	7	17.1	42	22.3
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
No gender equity committee in place	Strongly Disagree	10	13.5	5	12.2	11	5.9
	Disagree	15	20.3	10	24.4	40	21.3
	Undecided	9	12.2	5	12.2	32	17.0
	Agree	28	37.8	12	29.3	66	35.1
	Strongly Agree	12	16.2	9	22.0	39	20.7
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
Leaders not aware of gender issues	Strongly Disagree	9	12.2	8	19.5	19	10.1
	Disagree	32	43.2	16	39.0	54	28.7
	Undecided	7	9.5	0	0.0	27	14.4
	Agree	18	24.3	8	19.5	53	28.2
	Strongly Agree	8	10.8	9	22.0	35	18.6
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
Athletes not aware of gender issues	Strongly Disagree	6	8.1	8	19.5	27	14.4
	Disagree	22	29.7	10	24.4	55	29.3
	Undecided	5	6.8	5	12.2	35	18.6
	Agree	32	43.2	11	26.8	43	22.9
	Strongly Agree	9	12.2	7	17.1	28	14.9
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0

As evident, the results show that 34 (46.0%) of the Board/Executive members, indicated that there were legislative policies that support gender equity in sports. This is given by 25 (33.8%) Board/Executive members who supported and 9 (12.2%) Board/Executive members who strongly supported the idea. On the contrary, the same number, 34 (45.9%) of Board/Executive members believed that there were no legislative policies that support gender equity in sports. This is shown by 22 (29.7%) Board/Executive members who agreed and 12 (16.2%) Board/Executive members who strongly agreed on this issue.

However, most of the coaches, 22 (53.7%) indicated the unavailability of legislative policies. This is confirmed by 15, (36.6%) coaches who agreed and 7 (17.1%) coaches who strongly agreed. The views of the coaches concurred with those of 101 (53.7%) athletes. Those who agreed were 59 (31.4%) athletes and those who strongly agreed were 42 (22.3%) athletes.

Results from table 4.17 further show that 40 (54.0%) of the Board/Executive Committee members indicated that there was lack of gender equity committees in the various national sports organisations. This number comprises 28 (37.8%) Board/Executive Committee members that agreed and 12 (16.2%) Board/Executive Committee members that strongly agreed. Similar views were shown by 21 (51.3%) coaches which is 12 (29.3%) coaches who agreed and 9 (22.0%) coaches who strongly agreed. In addition, 105 (55.8%) of the athletes were also in agreement whereby 66 (35.1%) athletes agreed and 39 (20.7%) athletes strongly agreed. The results also show that 41 (55.4%) of the

Board/Executive Committee members responded that leaders were aware of gender issues. This total is given by 9 (12.2%) Board/Executive Committee members who strongly supported the point and 32 (43.2%) Board/Executive Committee members who supported it. Likewise, 24 (58.5%) of the coaches were in agreement and this is shown by 8 (19.5%) coaches who strongly supported and 16 (39.0%) coaches who supported the issue. On the contrary, 88 (46.8) of the athletes were of the view that leaders were not aware of gender issues. This is from 53 (28.2%) athletes that agreed and 35 (18.6%) athletes that strongly agreed. Much as 88 (46.8%) athletes supported the idea, it was only 73 (38.8%) athletes who did not support it.

On the other hand, 41 (55.4%) Board/Executive Committee members were of the view that athletes were not aware of gender issues. This total is given by 32 (43.2%) Board/Executive Committee members who agreed and 9 (12.2%) Board/Executive Committee members who strongly agreed. 18 (43.9%) coaches, that is, 11 (26.8%) coaches who agreed and 7 (17.1%) coaches who strongly agreed indicated that athletes were not aware of gender issues. At the same time, an equal number of 18 (43.9%) coaches did not agree with the point. This is shown by 10 (24.4%) coaches that disagreed to the point and 8 (19.5%) coaches who strongly disagreed to it. 82 of the athletes responded that athletes were aware of gender issues. This is from 55 (29.3%) athletes who supported this point and 27 (14.4%) athletes who strongly supported it.

The means of the responses by different categories of respondents were calculated to find the extent to which they agreed or disagreed to the contribution of political factors to gender disparity in competitive sports and the results are shown in figure 4.22 below:

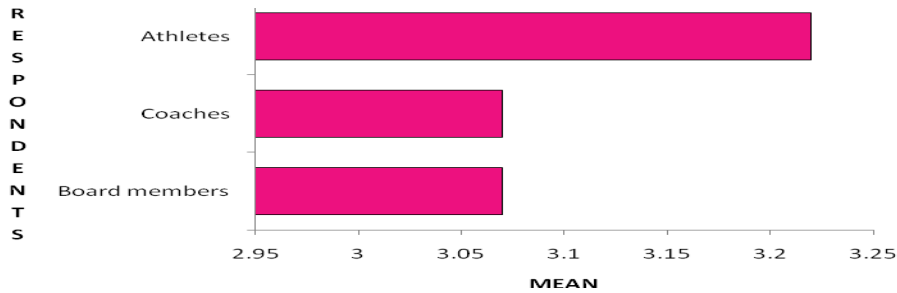


Figure 4.22 Overall Means of Respondents’ Views about Political Factors that Lead to Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda

According to the results in figure 4.22, athletes had the largest mean (3.22), followed by coaches and board members with a mean of 3.07 each.

Furthermore, one-way ANOVA was conducted to find out whether there were significant differences in the rating of the various political factors as being responsible for gender inequity. The results are shown in table 4.18:

Table 4.18 Summary Table of ANOVA Results of Political Factors as Causes of Gender Disparity

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.947	2	3.473	2.031	0.132
Within Groups	2067.379	1209	1.710		
Total	2074.326	1211			

F (2, 1209) = 2.29, at p < .05

The results of ANOVA which were $F(2, 1209) = 2.031$, at $p < .05$ show that there was no significant difference among the ratings of all the aspects believed to be the political causes of gender disparity by members holding different positions in sports in Uganda. Therefore, the null hypothesis, H_{04} , that there would be no significant differences in the responses of board members, coaches and athletes on the extent to which political factors have led to gender disparity in sports in Uganda was accepted.

4.10 Strategies to Enhance Gender Equity

In order to alleviate the situation of gender disparity in sports, a number of strategies thought to correct the situation were presented to the members holding different positions in the sporting arena. The results as shown in table 4.19 indicate that majority of Board/Executive Committee members, 73 (98.7%), agreed that media coverage for outstanding athletes should equally cover men and women. This is shown by 54 (73.0%) Board/Executive Committee members who strongly agreed and 19 (25.6%) Board/Executive Committee members who agreed. In addition, 40 (97.5%) coaches had the same views whereby 32 (78.0%) coaches strongly agreed and 8 (19.5%) coaches agreed to the point. Likewise, 180 (95.7%) of the athletes gave the same view. This comprised 130 (69.1%) athletes who strongly agreed and 50 (26.6%) athletes who agreed to this. The finding is supported by the fact that promotion and popularisation of women's sport requires an increase in media coverage as called for in the 1998 Windhoek Call for Action (United Nations, 2007).

Table 4.19 Frequencies and Percentages of the Respondents on Strategies to Improve Gender Equity in Competitive Sports

ITEM	SCORE	RESPONDENTS' STATUS					
		Board/Executive		Coaches		Athletes	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
Media coverage for outstanding athletes should equally include men and women	Strongly Disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Disagree	1	1.4	0	0.0	5	2.7
	Undecided	0	0.0	1	2.4	3	1.6
	Agree	19	25.7	8	19.5	50	26.6
	Strongly Agree	54	73.0	32	78.0	130	69.1
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
Equal financing of men and women	Strongly Disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	5	2.7
	Disagree	6	8.1	1	2.4	8	4.3
	Undecided	1	1.4	1	2.4	4	2.1
	Agree	20	27.0	12	29.3	42	22.3
	Strongly Agree	47	63.5	27	65.9	129	68.6
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
Equal empowerment during sports electioneering	Strongly Disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5
	Disagree	4	5.4	1	2.4	7	3.7
	Undecided	3	4.1	0	0.0	6	3.2
	Agree	21	28.4	11	26.8	54	28.7
	Strongly Agree	46	62.2	29	70.7	120	63.8
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
Old girl networks should be enhanced	Strongly Disagree	1	1.4	1	2.4	2	1.1
	Disagree	0	0.0	1	2.4	7	3.7
	Undecided	0	0.0	1	2.4	8	4.3
	Agree	22	29.7	12	29.3	65	34.6
	Strongly Agree	51	68.9	26	63.4	106	56.4
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
There should be gender equity committees	Strongly Disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	1.6
	Disagree	0	0.0	1	2.4	3	1.6
	Undecided	1	1.4	1	2.4	6	3.2
	Agree	29	39.2	14	31.7	56	29.8
	Strongly Agree	44	59.5	26	63.4	120	63.8
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0
There should be gender equity policies	Strongly Disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	1.6
	Disagree	0	0.0	0	0.0	5	2.7
	Undecided	3	4.1	2	4.9	5	2.7
	Agree	30	40.5	11	26.8	58	30.9
	Strongly Agree	41	55.4	28	68.3	117	62.2
	Total	74	100.0	41	100.0	188	100.0

Further, the results in table 4.19 indicate that 67 (90.5%) of the Board/Executive Committee members were of the view that equal financing of men and women in sports is one of the strategies that would improve gender equity in sports in Uganda. This consists of 47 (63.5%) Board/Executive Committee members who strongly agreed and

20 (27.0%) Board/Executive Committee members who agreed. It was the same case with the coaches where 27 (65.9%) coaches strongly agreed and 12 (29.3%) coaches agreed giving a total of 39 (95.2%) coaches. Similarly, 171 (90.9%) athletes had the same view whereby 129 (68.6%) athletes strongly agreed and 42 (22.3%) athletes agreed. Additionally, 67 (90.6%) of the Board/Executive Committee members believed that equal empowerment during sports electioneering would reduce gender disparity. This is shown by 47 (62.2%) Board/Executive Committee members who strongly agreed and 20 (27.0%) Board/Executive Committee members who agreed. Similarly, 40 (97.5%) coaches had similar views; 29 (70.7%) coaches strongly agreed and 11 (26.8%) coaches agreed. Also, 174 (92.5%) of that athletes indicated the same view where 120 (63.8%) athletes strongly agreed and 54 (28.7%) athletes agreed.

The results show that 73 (98.6%) of the Board/Executive Committee members were of the idea that “old-girl” networks should be enhanced. This total is given by 51 (68.9%) Board/Executive Committee members who strongly agreed and 22 (29.7%) Board/Executive Committee members who agreed. Likewise, 38 (92.7%) coaches indicated that the networks should be enhanced. This is shown by 26 (63.4%) coaches who strongly agreed and 12 (29.3%) coaches who agreed. 171 (91.0%) athletes had similar views whereby 106 (56.4%) athletes strongly agreed and 65 (34.6%) athletes agreed. Sport is a domain that utilizes informal networks (commonly referred to as “good old boys networks”) to promote homologous reproduction in hiring practices. This practice of men hiring other men for key leadership positions has been well-documented (Lovett and Lowry, 1994; Quarterman *et al.*, 2006; Stangl and Kane, 1991).

This might call for a translation into women hiring other women for key leadership positions to make a balance in sports organisations.

Table 4.19 further shows that 73 (98.7%) of the Board/Executive Committee members responded that there should be gender equity committees. 44 (59.5%) Board/Executive Committee members strongly agreed and 29 (39.2%) Board/Executive Committee members who agreed. 40 (95.1%) of the coaches, that is 26 (63.4%) coaches who strongly agreed and 14 (31.7%) coaches who agreed, had the same view. Also, 176 (93.6%) athletes gave the same indication. This was 120 (63.8%) athletes who strongly agreed and 56 (29.8%) athletes who agreed. 71 (95.9%) Board/Executive Committee members indicated that there should be gender equity policies. This number consists of 41 (55.4%) Board/Executive Committee members that strongly agreed and 30 (40.5%) Board/Executive Committee members who agreed. On the same issue, 28 (68.3%) coaches strongly agreed while 11 (26.8%) coaches agreed making a total of 39 (95.1%) coaches. Likewise, 175 (93.1%) athletes had the same view whereby 117 (62.2%) athletes strongly agreed and 58 (30.9%) athletes agreed.

Mean values of respondents views were calculated to find out the rating of the strategies which would enhance gender equity in sports in Uganda in respect to the views of executive/board members, coaches and athletes. The results are shown on table 4.20:

Table 4.20 Means of Respondents' Views on Strategies to Reduce Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports

ITEM	\bar{x} Board	\bar{x} Coach	\bar{x} Athlete	\bar{x} Overall
Equal media coverage of men and women	4.70	4.76	4.62	4.66
Equal financing of men and women	4.46	4.59	4.50	4.50
Equal funding during sports election	4.47	4.63	4.52	4.52
Old girl networks should be enhanced	4.65	4.49	4.41	4.58
There should be gender equity committees	4.58	4.56	4.53	4.54
There should be gender equity policies	4.51	4.63	4.49	4.52

From table 4.20 above, it can be deduced that all categories of respondents strongly agreed on the strategies that can be adopted to reduce on gender disparity in competitive sports in Uganda. This is as indicated in figure 4.23 below:

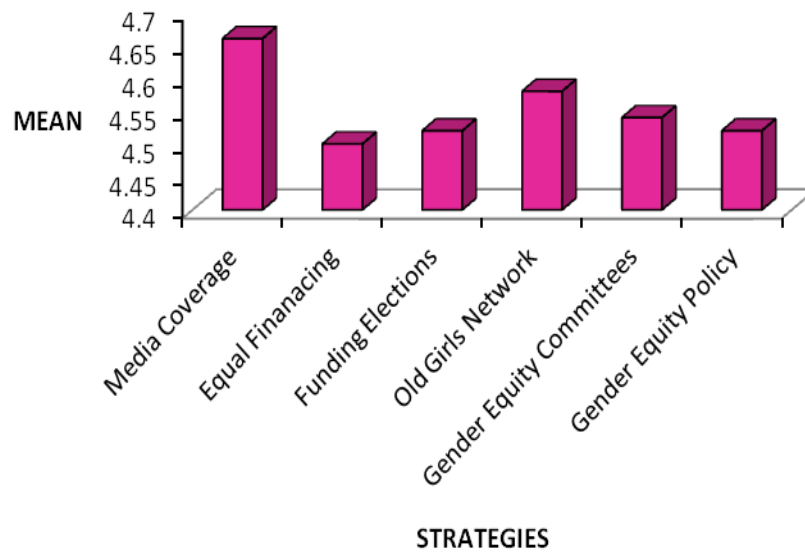


Figure 4.23 Overall Means of Strategies to Reduce Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda

Results as shown in figure 4.23 above, indicate that media coverage for outstanding athletes should equally include men and women had the highest level of rating, an average of 4.66. This was followed by enhancing old-girls networks which had an average of 4.58, and other strategies followed. All respondents strongly agreed on the strategies to improve gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations on matters related to gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda and areas for further research.

5.2 Summary

This study set out to find out whether there was gender disparity in participation in competitive sports in Uganda, determine the trends towards gender equity, determine whether equal opportunities have been accorded to both men and women in sports in Uganda, examine the social, cultural, economic and political factors that affect gender equity and the strategies that can be used to improve the gender equity. Data was collected, analysed and results presented and discussed.

In order to obtain the purpose of this study, objectives were formulated and the following hypotheses addressed.

- H₀₁ There would be no significant difference in the views of sports participants about women and men's involvement in competitive sports in Uganda.
- H₀₂ There would be no significant difference in the proportion of male and female participants in competitive sports in Uganda.
- H₀₃ There would be no significant difference in the opportunities available for men and women's participation in competitive sports in Uganda.

H₀₄ There would be no significant difference in the responses of board members, coaches and athletes of national sports organisations on the following factors that influence gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda.

- e) social
- f) cultural
- g) economic
- h) political.

In addition, the study addressed the question on the strategies that can be used to promote gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda.

The study was delimited to national sports organisations in Uganda whereby Board/Executive Committee members, coaches and athletes provided the required information. Data was gathered through questionnaires and documentary analysis guide. The obtained data was descriptively analysed using frequencies, percentages and means. Additionally, a multiple regression was conducted and lines of 'best fit' drawn to establish the trends towards and forecast on the achievement of gender equity in competitive sports in Uganda. Further analysis was carried out by using an independent samples t- test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The tests which resulted in significant differences following the one-way ANOVA were further subjected to a post hoc test of Turkey HSD to get their strengths. The hypotheses were either accepted or rejected at $p < .05$ alpha level.

The major findings are presented on gender representation of Board/Executive Committee members, coaches and athletes; trends in the numbers of male and female participants over years; forecast on achieving gender equity; opportunities available for male and female athletes; causes of gender disparity and strategies that can reduce gender disparity in competitive sports in Uganda.

5.2.1 Summary of Findings on Gender Representation of Board/Executive Committee Members, Coaches and Athletes

From the study, it was apparent that more male than female participants were actively involved in competitive sports in Uganda. This was brought out by 90.8% of the respondents. Over the years, there were more male members on the boards and executive committees as compared to females. However, there was a slight decrease in the gender gap in 1995 and in 2004/05. The chairpersons of all Board and Executive committees of national sports organisations were male for all the period from 1988 to 2009. From 1988 to 2001, all General Secretaries of the same sports' organisations were male. A change occurred in the following year, 2002, when only 1 (10%) General Secretary out of the 10 was female. All men's teams were coached by males at national level throughout the period. Furthermore, women's teams were coached by males only until 2004 when 20% female coaches were involved. A similar situation has been observed in the athletes where the gender gap has been wide and almost constant. The gap started narrowing from 2005 to 2009 whereby the number of female athletes increased slightly by about 10%.

5.2.2 Summary of Findings on the Trends in the Numbers of Male and Female Participants

The study found out that the trends for male and female members of the Board/Executive Committees were almost parallel to each other. When further analysis was carried out, results of the forecast by a multiple regression revealed that if the situation in Uganda remains the same, the achievement of gender equity for sports managers would be within 240 years' time. The trends for coaches of men's teams were parallel to each other showing no movement towards gender equity. For the case of coaches of women's teams, the trends were slightly narrowing and further analysis showed that gender equity in numbers of coaches for women's teams could be by the year 2039. The trends for male and female athletes were converging and the analysis revealed that gender equity for the athletes can be achieved around the year 2018.

5.2.3 Summary of Findings on the Opportunities Available for Men and Women in Competitive Sports in Uganda

Male athletes were availed more opportunities than their female counterparts, that is, on facilities, equipment, uniforms, competitions, assignment of coaches and coaches availability, and participation. There was a significant difference in the opportunities available for men and women's participation in competitive sports in Uganda. The chances offered to male (mean = 3.88) and female (mean = 1.74) athletes to participate in competitions showed the largest difference in the opportunity index. Basing on respondents rating, on average, opportunities were more available to male (mean = 3.454) compared to the female participants (mean = 2.889). This was a clear indication of gender disparity in competitive sports in Uganda.

5.2.4 Summary of Findings on the Causes of Gender Disparity in Competitive Sports in Uganda

The findings on the causes of gender disparity were as follows:

The social factors which cause gender disparity in sports in Uganda were addressed. The interest of women in sports seems to be lower than that of men and this could have contributed to the low participation of women. Majority of the respondents agreed that there were sports role models. On all these factors, therefore, there were no significant differences between the views of the Board/Executive Committee members, the coaches and the athletes as shown by ANOVA results, $F(2, 603) = 0.753$, at $p < .05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Considering cultural factors, the different categories of respondents agreed that people believe that the sporting activities are not meant for women but for men. In addition, it was generally agreed that traditionally it is believed that men and not women should be the ones to lead. Respondents' views were that women were given a chance to lead. The ANOVA test results, $F(2, 906) = 2.354$, at $p < .05$, showed that there was no significant difference in the views of the respondents about the cultural factors that cause gender disparity in competitive sports in Uganda. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant differences in the views of Board/Executive members, coaches and athletes on cultural causes of gender disparity was accepted.

With regard to the economic factors, it was observed from the study that women were inadequately funded during sports activities and this contributed to gender disparity in sports in Uganda. The study established that there was a significant difference in the

responses of Board/Executive members, coaches and athletes on the extent to which economic factors have led to gender disparity in sports in Uganda, $F(2, 906) = 4.506$, at $p < .05$. It was observed from the post hoc test that the difference in the rating was brought about by the difference between the views of the Board/Executive members and the coaches. Whereas Board/Executive members were of the view that women were financially empowered during elections, coaches were of the view that they were not. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant differences in the views of Board/Executive members, coaches and athletes on economic causes of gender disparity was rejected.

It was also observed that political factors contributed towards gender disparity in sports in Uganda. From the results, it is clear that there are no gender equity committees in the sports organisations at national level in Uganda. All categories of respondents were of the view that leaders are aware of gender issues. Board/Executive members' opinion was that there were legislative policies on gender equity in sports, the coaches and athletes thought otherwise. Much as the views were not the same on this issue, the difference was not statistically significant. Whereas Board/Executive members and coaches agreed that athletes were not aware of gender issues, the athletes' views were that they were aware of the issues. Again, the differences were not statistically different. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant differences in the views of Board/Executive members, coaches and athletes on political causes of gender disparity was accepted.

5.2.5 Summary of Findings on the Strategies to Enhance Gender Equity in Competitive Sports in Uganda

All categories of respondents strongly agreed on the presented strategies that could correct the situation in sports in Uganda. According to their responses, media coverage for outstanding athletes should equally include men and women. There should be equal financing for men and women; there ought to be equal empowerment during sports electioneering. Old girls networks should be enhanced. There should be gender equity committees in all sports organisations. In addition, there should be gender equity policies in sports organisations.

5.3 Implications of the Findings

The study shows that there are more male participants than female ones in competitive sports in Uganda. This was reflected through the numbers in different categories of sports participants namely Board/Executive Committee members, chairpersons and General Secretaries of sports associations/federations, the coaches of male and female teams and the athletes. This was a clear indication of gender imbalance. Additionally, the trends for male and female participants in sports showed a slight decrease in the gap especially for those in management. This implies that it would take a long time to achieve gender equity in sports in Uganda.

The results obtained revealed that opportunities in sports, in relation to facilities, equipment, uniforms, participation, competitions, funding and coaches were more available to men than they were to the women. This implies that there is gender disparity in sports.

The study shows that fewer women than men participate in sports and women's interest in sports is lower than that of men. This shows that there are some social factors which still contribute towards gender disparity in sports in Uganda. In addition, results show that cultural factors, such as, belief that sporting activities are meant for men but not for women, a belief that men should be the ones to lead and the fact that women are denied the chance to lead in sports have caused gender imbalance in sports. Furthermore, funding for women activities have not been adequate. This is an indication that there are economic and political factors that cause gender disparity in sports in Uganda. Consequently, there is need to put legislative policies and special committees in place that support gender equity in sports.

Various strategies need to be put in place to improve gender equity in sports in Uganda. For example, when media coverage is done for both outstanding men and women in sports and there is equal funding of men and women during sports activities, this can contribute to gender equity in sports in Uganda. Other strategies that can help improve gender equity in sports include "old-girl" networks, forming gender equity committees and formulating gender equity policies.

5.4 Conclusions

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

In Uganda today, there are more men in the sporting arena than women. This was clearly shown in the results by the ratio in numbers of sports participants both at managerial and athletes' level. Therefore, there exists gender disparity in sports in

Uganda. In addition, the trends shown by numbers of male and female participants in sports indicate that there will be a long period before gender equity can be realised.

Sports opportunities such as availability of sports' facilities, equipment, uniforms and coaches were more for male than for female teams. This also shows the existence of gender disparity in sports in Uganda. The availability of sports opportunities to men rather than to women was statistically significant and hence the hypothesis was rejected.

Various social, cultural, economic and political factors contribute towards gender disparity in sports in Uganda. There were no significant differences in the views of different categories of respondents on social, cultural and political factors so the null hypothesis was accepted. On the other hand, it was found out that there were significant differences in the views of the three categories of sports participants in relation to economic factors so the hypothesis was rejected.

All categories of sports' participants who were involved in the study had similar views on the strategies that can be put in place to improve the gender equity in sports in Uganda. Different categories of respondents had similar views that legislative policies, gender equity committees should be put in place if gender equity has to be increased within sports in Uganda.

5.5 Recommendations for Policy and Practice

The following recommendations have been made on the basis of the findings of this study:

1. There is need to increase the number of women is sports organisations at all levels. This can be done through sensitisation campaigns, workshops and seminars organised by the National Council of Sports, the Uganda Olympic Committee, sports associations/federations and the government through the Ministry of Education and Sports.
2. Sports opportunities in terms of sports facilities, equipment, allocation of coaches, structured competitions and funding need to be availed equally to men and women. Sports federation officials and managers of sports in public and private sectors should not only shoulder the responsibility of making available equal opportunities in these aspects but also ensure that sports facilities' schedules equally cater for both men and women. Alternatively, facilities specifically for women need to be developed to enable women to access them any time they would want to use them.
3. Sports managers in the public and private sectors should deliberately ensure that purchases for equipment and uniforms cover both women and men in the various sports disciplines. This is as far as sizes and numbers are concerned.
4. Deliberate steps should be taken by sports organisations to ensure that an adequate number of women coaches are trained to handle women's teams.

5. Managers of sports organizations should ensure that special competitions for women are organised to match the times when the women would be available to participate.
6. Special programmes, projects and funding/scholarships should be designed by the government and sports organisations to attract more women into sports.
7. Organisers of sports activities in sports organizations in liaison with media personnel should ensure equal media coverage for both men and women. Such coverage in newspapers, radio programmes and television programmes would serve as a strong motivating factor for improved participation of women in sports.
8. Each sport Federation/Association should put a gender Equity Committee and gender equity policies in place. In addition, all members of the sports associations/federations should be sensitised on gender issues to eliminate any gender biases.

5.7 Recommendations for Further Research

From the study, it is recommended that research be carried out on the following:

1. To establish if there are deliberate steps that have been taken to improve gender equity in sports in Uganda and to identify these steps if at all they are there.

2. Since this study was delimited to sports organisations at national level, it would be important to find out if the same status and trend applies to the educational institutions such as universities and schools.

3. One of the major strategies identified which could assist in improving gender equity in sports in Uganda is equal media coverage for both men and women. To expound on this, it would be important to establish the extent which media coverage does contribute and how the same could be used to reduce the disparity.

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APPENDIX A

SAMPLE SIZE CALCULATOR



CREATIVE
RESEARCH
SYSTEMS

THE SURVEY SYSTEM

Home | Products | Services | Downloads | Ordering | Research Aids |
Client List | About Us |

Sample Size Calculator

"Your Complete Survey
Software Solution"

This Sample Size Calculator is presented as a public service of Creative Research Systems. You can use it to determine how many people you need to interview in order to get results that reflect the target population as precisely as needed. You can also find the level of precision you have in an existing sample.

Before using the sample size calculator, there are two terms that you need to know. These are: **confidence interval** and **confidence level**.

This calculator requires Internet Explorer 3.0 or later or Netscape 3.0 or later or a compatible browser. Leave the Population box blank, if the population is very large or unknown.

Determine Sample Size

Confidence Level: 95%
 99%

Confidence Interval:

Population:

Sample size needed:

APPENDIX B



**KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF EXERCISE, RECREATION AND SPORT SCIENCE**

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Tel.810901-19/812722
Ext.57060
Cell phone 0202310641
Email: Mwangi.peter@ku.ac.ke
peterwanderi@yahoo.com

P.O. Box 43844 -00100
Nairobi, Kenya
www.ku.ac.ke

20th April 2008

To Whom It May Concern
Dear Sir/Madam,

**INTRODUCTION OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PhD) RESEARCH
STUDENT**

The bearer of this letter, **Ms. Ananura Eunice Kateshumbwa** is a PhD research student (Reg. No. I84/10302/06) in this Department.

She is conducting research on her PhD in Sports Science entitled, "**TRENDS TOWARDS GENDER EQUITY IN SPORTS IN UGANDA**"

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you the student and request you to assist her conduct research in your organization.

Looking forward to your cooperation,

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Mwangi P. Wanderi', written over a horizontal line.

Dr. Mwangi P. Wanderi
Chairman,
DEPT. OF EXERCISE, RECREATION AND SPORT SCIENCE

Kyambogo University
P. O. Box 1,
KYAMBOGO

28TH MAY, 2008

The Commissioner,
Physical Education and Sports,
Ministry of Education and Sports,
P. O. Box 7063,
KAMPALA.

Dear Sir,

RE: RESEARCH IN SPORTS IN UGANDA

I am a student pursuing a Ph D in Sports Science and I am required to carry out a research. The title of my research is "Trends towards Gender Equity in Sports in Uganda.

The purpose of this letter is to request for permission to carry out my research in the sports organisations in Uganda. I believe this research will contribute towards the development of sports in Uganda.



Ananura Eunice Kateshumbwa

APPENDIX D

Telegram: "EDUCATION"
Telephone: 234451/8



Ministry of Education & Sports,
Embassy House,
P.O. Box 7063,
KAMPALA
UGANDA

In any correspondence on

This subject please quote **No.MOES/05-08r**

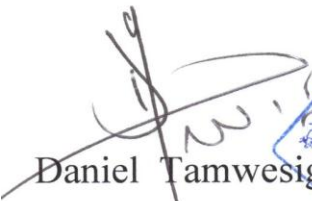
29th Sept. 2008

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

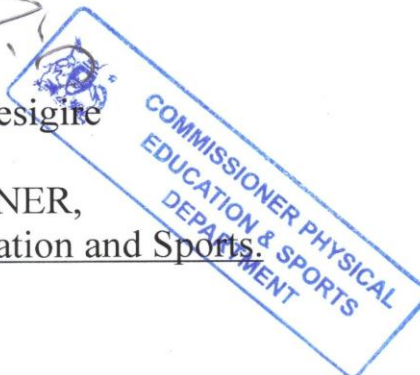
The bearer of this letter, ANANURA EUNICE KATESHUMBWA, is a Ph D student carrying out research entitled Trends Towards Gender Equity in Sports in Uganda. She has been allowed by the Ministry of Education and Sports to carry on her research.

Your organization has been selected to participate in this study. The purpose of this letter is to request you to allow her administer her instruments.

Your assistance and co-operation will be highly appreciated.


Daniel Tamwesigire

COMMISSIONER,
Physical Education and Sports



APPENDIX E**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ATHLETES**

You have been selected to take part in this study about “Trends towards Gender Equity in Sports in Uganda”. You are therefore requested to respond to the questions as sincerely and honestly as possible and to the best of your knowledge. The information is strictly confidential and is for academic purposes only. Thank you.

SECTION A: (Demographic information)

Please fill in the gaps or tick the appropriate box

1. Name of sport federation/association
2. I am an athlete Yes No
3. Sex: Male Female
4. Age: Below 17 17 - 20 21 – 25 26 - 30 Above 30
5. How long have you been in this sport?
 Less than 1 year 1 – 2 years 3 – 4 years 5 years & above

Please tick the appropriate box where SA stands for Strongly Agree, A for Agree, U for Undecided, D for Disagree and SD for Strongly Disagree

		5	4	3	2	1
SECTION B: Opportunities available for participation		SA	A	U	D	SD
6.	Sports facilities are readily available for male players					
7.	Sports facilities are readily available for female players					
8.	Sports equipment is readily available for male players					
9.	Sports equipment is readily available for female players					
10.	Sports uniforms are readily available for male players					
11.	Sports uniforms are readily available for female players					
12.	Many male players participate in sports activities					
13.	Many female players participate in sports activities					

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
14.	Men's teams have the opportunity to go for regular competitions					
15.	Women's teams have the opportunity to go for regular competitions					
16.	Men's teams are always well funded					
17.	Women's teams are always well funded					
18.	Each of the men's teams is always assigned a coach					
19.	Each of the women's teams is always assigned a coach					
20.	Coaches give enough time to men's teams					
21.	Coaches give enough time to women's teams					

SECTION C: CAUSES OF GENDER DISPARITY

Please tick the appropriate response

SOCIAL FACTORS

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
22.	Few women as compared to men participate in sports					
23.	Interest of women in sports is much lower than that of men					
24.	There are hardly any women models in sports					

CULTURAL FACTORS

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
25.	People believe that sporting activities are not for women but for men					
26.	Traditionally, it is believed that men should be the ones to take on sports leadership					
27.	Women are not given the chance to lead					

ECONOMIC FACTORS

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
28.	Women are not appropriately funded for sporting activities					
29.	Women are not financially empowered during elections					

POLITICAL FACTORS

		5	4	3	2	1
		SA	A	U	D	SD
30.	There are no legislative policies that support gender equity					
31.	There is no gender equity committee in place					
32.	Sports leaders are not aware of gender equity issues					
33.	Sports athletes are not aware of gender equity issues					

SECTION D: STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE GENDER EQUITY

		5	4	3	2	1
		SA	A	U	D	SD
34.	Media coverage for outstanding athletes should equally include men and women					
35.	Equal financing of men and women to participate in sporting activities					
36.	Equal empowerment of men and women during sports electioneering should be done					
37.	“Old girl” networks to recruit female sports leaders should be enhanced					
38.	There should be a gender equity committees in sports organisations					
39.	There should be gender equity policies in sports organisations					

Thank you very much for your cooperation and may God bless you.

APPENDIX F

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SPORTS COMMITTEE MEMBERS AND COACHES.

You have been selected to take part in this study about “Trends towards Gender Equity in Sports in Uganda”. You are therefore requested to respond to the questions as sincerely and honestly as possible and to the best of your knowledge. The information is strictly confidential and is for academic purposes only. Thank you.

SECTION A: (Demographic information)

Please fill in the gap or tick the appropriate box

1. Name of sports organisation.....
2. I am a Board/Committee member Coach
3. Sex: Male Female
4. Age: 15 - 19 20 - 29 30 – 39 40 - 49 Above 49
5. How long have you been in this position?
 Less than 1 year 1 – 4 years 5 – 10 years More than 10 years

SECTION B

Please tick the appropriate box where SA stands for Strongly Agree, A for Agree, U for Undecided, D for Disagree and SD for Strongly Disagree

		5	4	3	2	1
		SA	A	U	D	SD
6.	Sports facilities are readily available for male players					
7.	Sports facilities are readily available for female players					
8.	Sports equipment is readily available for male players					
9.	Sports equipment is readily available for female players					
10.	Sports uniforms are readily available for male players					
11.	Sports uniforms are readily available for female players					
12.	Many male players participate in sports activities					
13.	Many female players participate in sports activities					
14.	Men’s teams have the opportunity to go for regular competitions					
15.	Women’s teams have the opportunity to go for regular competitions					

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
16.	Men's teams are always well funded					
17.	Women's teams are always well funded					
18.	Each of the men's teams is always assigned a coach					
19.	Each of the women's teams is always assigned a coach					
20.	Coaches give enough time to men's teams					
21.	Coaches give enough time to women's teams					

SECTION C: CAUSES OF GENDER DISPARITY

Please tick the appropriate response

SOCIAL FACTORS

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
22.	Few women as compared to men participate in sports					
23.	Interest of women in sports is much lower than that of men					
24.	There are hardly any women models in sports					

CULTURAL FACTORS

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
25.	People believe that sporting activities are not for women but for men					
26.	Traditionally, it is believed that men should be the ones to take on sports leadership					
27.	Women are not given the chance to lead					

ECONOMIC FACTORS

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
28.	Women are not appropriately funded for sporting activities					
29.	Women are not financially empowered during elections					

POLITICAL FACTORS

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
30.	There are no legislative policies that support gender equity					
31.	There is no gender equity committee in place					
32.	Sports leaders are not aware of gender equity issues					
33.	Sports athletes are not aware of gender equity issues					

SECTION D: STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE GENDER EQUITY

		5 SA	4 A	3 U	2 D	1 SD
34.	Media coverage for outstanding athletes should equally include men and women					
35.	Equal financing of men and women to participate in sporting activities					
36.	Equal empowerment of men and women during sports electioneering should be done					
37.	“Old girl” networks to recruit female sports leaders should be enhanced					
38.	There should be a gender equity committees in sports organisations					
39.	There should be gender equity policies in sports organisations					

Thank you very much for your cooperation and may God bless you.

