UNIVERSITY OF RWANDA

COLLEGE OF ARTS SOCIAL SCIENCES (CASS)

CENTER FOR GENDER STUDIES

MASTER IN GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

GENDER EQUALITY IN THE MANAGEMENT OF SPORT ASSOCIATIONS AND FEDERATIONS IN RWANDA

A DISERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SOCIAL SCIENCES IN GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

by

BARAKAGWIRA Dahlie

REG. No: 220017194

Supervised by Dr. Joséphine MUKABERA

October, 2021

CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certify that she has read and hereby recommend for acceptance by the Centre for Gender Studies the Dissertation entitled Gender equality in the management of sport associations and federations in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Social Sciences from the Centre for Gender Studies

Names: Dr. Joséphine MUKABERA

Signature: …………………………..

Date……………………………………

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All thanks and appreciation is due to The Almighty God, who gave me life and bestowed on me his favors, which enabled me to accomplish this dissertation.

This study is not a simple work to be completed. My desire, as physical and material support from different people pushed me for getting successful work, so with open hands, my sincere thanks should go to all of them.

I have special acknowledgements to Academic and administrative staff at University of Rwanda, Center of Gender studies, also special acknowledgements go to my research supervisor, Dr. Josephine MUKABERA, for her guidance at the beginning up to the end of this dissertation.

Special thanks go to sport associations and federations leaders and participants who contributed towards the accomplishment of this dissertation by supporting in different ways.

Finally, but not last, many thanks go to my friends, and all my fellow students, through their different efforts that showed me the way to reach the goal.

DECLARATION AND COPYRIGHTS

I **BARAKAGWIRA Dahlie** hereby declare that this dissertation is my own original work. To the best of my knowledge, it contains no materials previously published or written by another person, nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at the University of Rwanda or any other institution, except where due acknowledgement is made in the dissertation. Any contribution made to the research by others, with whom I have worked at University of Rwanda or elsewhere is explicitly acknowledged in the dissertation.

I also declare that the intellectual content of this dissertation is the product of my own work, except to the extent that assistance from others in the dissertation's design and conceptions or in style, presentation and linguistic expression is acknowledged.

No part of this dissertation may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means without prior written permission of the author or the University of Rwanda.

Names: BARAKAGWIRA Dahlie

Signature: …………………………..

Date……………………………………

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATION

AAUP: American Association of University Professors

AIDS: Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome

AKWOS: Association of Kigali Women in Sports

BDWS: Brighton Declaration on Women and Sports

CEO: Chief Executive Officer

CON: National Olympic Committee

EOA: Educational Opportunity Association

EU: European Union

FERWACY: Fédération Rwandaise de cyclisme

FERWAFA: Fédération Rwandaise de Football Association

FSM: Faculté des Sciences de Monastir

G.M.O: Gender Monitoring Office

GoR: Government of Rwanda

HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus

IOC: International Olympic Committee

IPC: International Paralympics Committee

ISLP: Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy

IWG: International Working Group

MDGs: Millennium Development Goals

MIGEPROF: Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion

MINEPS: Physical Education and Sport

MINISPORT: Ministry of Sport

MSY: Ministry of Youth and Sport

MYW: Maendeleo Ya Wanawake

NOC: National Olympic Committees

NSF: National Sports Federations

NSW: New South Wales

NSW: New South Wales

RNO: Rwanda National Olympic

SLT: Social Learning Theory

UDCs: Under-developed Countries

UK: United Kingdom

UN: United Nations

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UR: University of Rwanda

UWT: Umoja Wa Wanawake Wa Tanzania

WHO: World Health Organization

WILDI: Women in Leadership Development Institute

WSI: Women Sports International

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF DIAGRAMS AND FIGURE

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to examine gender equality in the management of sport associations and federations among selected sports associations and federations in Rwanda with AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY as the case study. The researcher focused on four specific objectives named: to appraise the representation of females in AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY, to assess the impact of female representation in sport associations and federations in Rwanda, to examine barriers that affect gender equality process in the management of AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY and to offer suggestions related to improve gender equality in management of sport associations and federations. The study population was 175 participants and sample size equals to 64, Purposive sampling technique was used and Yemane Taro (1967) formula of sample size and she used questionnaire, interview guide and documentation review to collect data of this study and Microsoft Excel was used for tables and figures. From the major findings mentioned in the chapter five, findings show that respondents approved that women are represented in their management of sport organizations but share of women in the management of sport organization is still low, 47 (73%) of respondents supported that the share is between 1 and 30%, also findings revealed main impact was positive impact on society. Furthermore, findings revealed that the main challenge is lack of skills in sport and sport related activities. Findings revealed that improve gender equality policies and empowering and encouraging young women to study sport leadership can be the solution. The researcher recommended to improve gender equality, GoR should strengthen gender equality policies, increase the budget dedicated to gender equality, MIGEPROF, MINISPORT and GMO should increase awareness campaigns on all gender equality issues trough sports games. Furthermore, sport institutions should work closely with MIGEPROF, MINISPORT and GMO in order to increase girls and women participation in sport especially sport management.

Keywords: Gender equality, Management and Sport associations and federations

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Scientists have recently recognized the significance of leadership in the games industry (Peachey et al., 2015). This is due to the fact that leadership is widely recognized as one of the most important factors in improving athletic performance, particularly in the team environment within playrs (Cotterill and Fransen, 2016). Because leadership plays such an important role in sports teams, scholars have previously conducted research to examine an effective leader's approaches towards how leaders lead and also why leaders lead up in a particular way (Cruickshank & Collins, 2016). It's been stated that the skills needed for sports leaders have updated, and sports leaders presently require more appropriate skills to become an efficient and successful leader on sport's teams (Takos, O'Boyle, and Murray,2015).

Therefore, it came to believe that leadership could also be applied in a broader variety of contexts rather than solely focusing on organizational culture (Cotterill & Fransen, 2016). The significance of effectual sports leader has piqued the interest of coaches, athletes, and sport associations and federations (Fransen et al., 2014).

As history shows, females have already had to fight for equality in community. The effort just at highest levels of professional sports has already been particularly heinous. Women have already had fewer rights under the law and professional opportunities than men in recent years (Bajdo, 2005). Some argue that females have long been stereotyped as just the weaker and less intellectual gender (Cohen and Huffman, 2007). In any case, women are highly under-represented in high-level and managerial roles in Canadian professional sports (Bajdo, 2005).

conducted in 1994. The conference's goal was to speed up transformation in sporting culture, which include gender equality within sport Leadership and other initiatives established to fight for promoting female's representation within sport decision-making ranks and increasing the pool of existing talents for selection in management ranks (Branson, 2007).

According to Lapchick et al. (2013), some females have confirmed some poor leadership development opportunities, sponsors, and biased treatment, which has severely restricted their advancement to high and management roles in comparison to his\her male colleagues. According to Dreher (2008), responsibilities at home and/or work-life balance requires frequently require a higher degree of attention for females than for men, which is why females do not pursue top management positions.

Some research teams (Eagley, 2007; Carli and Eagley, 2001; Scott and Brown, 2006) believed that female under-representation was due to gender inequity in the workplace, whereas other authors think that female management practices are typically under acknowledged and rewarded (Geis, Boston & Hoffman, 1985, Bass & Avolio, 1994). In whatsoever case, that is obvious that a disproportionally large amount of women holds leadership positions in business or related industries, which is especially true in professional sports top management positions. This chapter discussed study's background, problem statement, study objectives, the study questions, study's scope, significance of study and structure/organization of the study.

Rwandan society is patriarchal, resulting in unequal social power relations between men and women, boys and girls. As a result, men dominated and women were subjugated. Gender disparities are not seen as unfair, but rather as a respected social norm. Men's superiority over women was reinforced during the colonial era. The abrupt transition from a subsistence economy to a monetary economy based on paid employment and a formal education system, for example, weakened women's position in comparison to men. It weakened their bargaining power, especially in terms of resource access and control, as well as their level of participation in the development process. While women dominated Rwandan society, there were some positive tendencies within Rwandan culture that reinforced women's social roles and ensured their autonomy. Women, for example, played an important role in household resource management and participated in decision-making at various levels (National Gender Policy,2010).

1.2 Background of study

Some define gender as a key marker of socio-economic stratification and, as an outcome, of exclusion. Not taking into consideration someone's social and economic class, there are some dissimilarities in gender in material well-being, even if the degree of inequality is different across nations and over time. Hence, gender inequality characterizes most societies, with men on

average superior positions in socio-economic, and political hierarchies (King, Elizabeth and Andrew, 2001).

Today in the globe and most especially in under-developed countries (UDCs), the females are not sufficiently served in many sectors that is to say: education, health, social status, opportunities and legal rights. In the under-developed countries, statics indicates that inequality in gender in education is high where 5% of adult female gender had any secondary education, one-half of the level for male. Research indicates that 51% of adult women had at least some secondary education, 88% of the level for men in developed countries. (Dollar and Gatti, 1999).

There is significant health inequality around the world, despite the fact that the twentieth century was marked by significant health benefits that improved the lives of the worldwide population. From the other side, it highlights the unbalanced development that has resulted in significant health disparities among countries. Health disparities can be recognized not only among countries, even within states and among populations with differences in socio - economic, racial and gender status (Albarrán, 2018).

In Wales, the levels at which females were being involved in sports management was very low. It was observed that very few women had taken up the challenging duty of coaching the different disciplines and to be in leadership of sports. A target of 50 per cent female representation in sports by 2010 was not met. In New South Wales (NSW) however, a country known to be one of the leading nations in the achievement of gender equality, challenges of women and girls being under represented in all decision-making roles of sports and recreation were still encountered (Sydney Score Board, 2015).

The writers of the Gender and Race Report Card (Lapchick, Sherrod, Anjorin & Costa, 2012) stressed the females' underrepresentation in management roles in pro sporting Leagues in USA. These writers also determined that females who work in sport leadership stated that college sport had the wickedest hiring practices for females and people of color. In fact, Lapchick et al. (2013) recommended that females and people of color are frequently left out from counted in high administration positions within pro sport squads.

It is stipulated in the Rwandan national constitution of 2003 where representation of women to higher and managerial levels where constitutional provides that women must be represented at

least 30% in decision making. President H.E KAGAME Paul has emphasized the importance of gender representation in rwandan development, stating that "gender equality wasn't just female's business; it's indeed everyone's business, and then that gender equality and female empowerment are absolutely essential to sustainable social economic growth" (Parliament conference report, 2007).

Rwanda's strong political commitment has led to considerable positive progress in promoting gender equality and female empowerment. Rwanda is the leading country in regards to women in Parliament, owing to their representation within managerial and decision-making positions (62 percent after the 2018 Parliamentary elections). Rwanda's political will and empower women also is evident in its adherence with at least 13 international and regional agreements and best practices on gender equality and females' empowerment, along with various legal and policy changes. gender parity within education sector has been accomplished at the school levels enrollment, with 85 percent of girls and 84 percent of boys enrolled (Zara, 2018).

International conference on Gender Equality within sports for social changes took place at the La Pallisse Hotel Nyandungu Rwanda, 2007, Felicite Rwemalika argued that in Rwanda, considerable number of females have joined Basketball, Volleyball and football squads; girls as well became interested to join several sports though middle aged females put efforts in organizing the mentioned types of sports (The New Times, 2007).

Dr Kirabo Kakira Aisa, city of Kigali's former Mayor who chaired the meeting, requested the participants to make a plan for females in management to be engaged in sports for social changes, also she underlines that all barriers include religious and cultural issues which refrain women participate in sports should be challenged (The New Times, 2007).

1.3 Statement of the problem
Human beings are living in a world where inequality rules. This inequality manifests in various scopes and it affects the women greatly. Inequality occurs in political, education, social, and sports spheres; where females are being discriminated against based on their gender. We have noticed that, the lower involvement of females in sports and sports management isn't entitled to the deficiency of attention in sports. This is due to a long history of direct and/or indirect methods of segregation, and a variety of other challenges that women are facing. Women's participation in sports and leadership in Rwanda has long been lower than men's due to

disparities in treatment based on socio-cultural factors such as religion, beliefs and norms, gender, and so on (Longman, 2006).

Research indicates that few females are seen to participate in the management of sports at every level within all sports disciplines (International Paralympics Committee, 2010). Statistics further indicates that out of the 16 sports associations and federations in Rwanda, few of them have at least over 20% females' representation on their national managerial committees of which most were in supporting ranks (the Chronicles,2019), according to Women Sports International (2010), females are underrepresented in the managerial and/or decision making positions in entirely sports and sport organizations.

The political will of Government of Rwanda after 1994 on equality of gender in all areas which leads to high involvement of females in political, social, economic and sports, Prime Minister Anastase Murekezi (2017) was speaking at Kigali Convention Centre while officially opening the Rwandan Prime minister while addressing women in Leadership Forum for Africa and Asia that took place in Kigali hinted out that females should enrich their leadership skills and be competent to compete for managerial position in sports and become role models and mentors for young people looking forward to work in sports activities; in his speech, he emphasized that Rwanda made makeable development in gender equality promotion with a percentage of 64% of Parliamentary seats dominated by females and that the trend is witnessed in other senior decision making positions. Even though, Rwanda has accomplished a lot in moving forward gender equality and sports, Nevertheless, the country has gaps in the representation of females in sports management. Currently, number of females in the RNO (Rwanda National Olympic) and Sports Committee ist 42,8%; then in the NSF (National Sports Federations), women are only 16%.

Also due to the gap mentioned by Prime Minister Anastase Murekezi (2017) and the lack of studies on gender equality in sport especial in Rwanda, the researcher become interested to conduct this study to examine gender equality in the management of sport organizations among selected sport associations and federations in Rwanda.

1.4 Study Objectives

1.4.1 General objective

The major goal of this study was to examine gender equality in management of sport associations and federations among selected sports associations and federations in Rwanda.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

1. To examine barriers that affect gender equality process in the management of AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY,
2. To assess the impact of female representation in AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY,
3. To suggest what can be done to improve gender equality in management of sport associations and federations in Rwanda.

1.5 Research questions

1. What are barriers that affect gender equality process in the management of AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY?
2. What is the impact of female representation in in AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY?
3. Suggest what can be done to improve gender equality in management of sport associations and federations in Rwanda?

1.6 Significance of study

The study enables the researcher herself to be familiar with research process and leads to earn the Master's degree, the study will help to enlighten the people in sports on the need to involve females in sport organizations management through its findings, the efforts to bring out the factors that affect female involvement in sports leadership and making recommendations would contribute to the promotion of gender equality within management of sport organizations.

Study significance is within the sense that its findings would influence the way the community integrate gender and sports and take each other as equal partners in leadership for enhanced sports development, the various sports associations and different organizations involved in sports would be enlightened on the knowledge about how best they could prepare the boys and girls for future responsibilities in sports. For universities, and any other researchers in future who will be

interested in the subject towards bring new elements or improvement could expand knowledge on this existing research basing on the results of this research as the empirical.

1.7 Scope and limitation of study

1.7.1 The content scope

The core of the current research centered on the Gender Equality in the management of sport associations and federations.

1.7.2 The geographical scope

This research conducted within Association of Kigali Women in Sports (AKWOS) and 2 federations (FERWACY and FERWAFA).

1.7.3 The time scope

This study covered time of 2015-2019 because during this period, women representation in sports achieved a considerable growth.

1.7.4 Limitation

This study carried out in the city of Kigali in Gasabo district, where all association and federations used as case study are located and study was limited to AKWOS, FERWACY and FWRWAFA and it was not representing all associations and federations. Furthermore, the researcher used term management instead of term leadership to represent all levels of decision making due to the fact that managers are not leaders while to other side leaders are managers and that why both terms are used in the study.

1.8 Structure of dissertation

This dissertation is made up of five chapters and organized in the following manner. The initial chapter is overall introduction, which provided the aspects of the study. It includes the research background, the problem statement, the research objectives and questions, the scope of research, the significance of the project, and the dissertation structure.

The second section presents a review of existing studies, which describes various pieces of literature related to the project work. The third chapter included a research methodology section that described the introduction, research design, study population study, sample and sampling techniques, data collection techniques, data collection procedure, analysis and interpretation of

data, pilot study, and ethical consideration. The fourth chapter covers data presentation, data processing, data analysis, and interpretation of findings interpretation. The fifth chapter comprise by introduction, discussion and summary of the findings, a conclusion, and recommendation.

1.9 Conclusion of the chapter

The reader has been given a background on the study in this chapter. It also outlined the research questions and objectives. The chapter emphasized the significance of search as well as its scope and limitations. The full thesis outline is presented towards the end of the chapter so that the reader is able to follow the sequence and organization of the thesis. Finally, the conclusion of the chapter brings this first chapter to a close.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The review of literature is the vital segment of study, it provides a foundation on which researcher justifies research questions and construct research design. The purpose of this chapter helps the researcher to learn about theoretical and organizational approaches to the research area and to develop an analytic framework. An additional researcher gets relevant information from preceding researches.

2.2 Definitions of concepts

2.2.1 Gender

According to WHO gender policy (20020, gender defines the features of females and males that are generally constructed, individuals are born either female or male, but learnt being girls and boys whom raised in women and men. The learned manners contribute to the gender identity and defines the gender roles.

In the context of this research, Gender bring up to socially structured characteristics of females and males like roles, norms and relationship between groups of females and males. Man and women gender roles are learnt from the community and family and differ by culture, society and generation.

2.2.2 The gender equality

The nonexistence of discernment on the base of someone's sex in terms of opportunities, providing resources and benefits, and/or gain services access (WHO gender policy, 2002).

In the context of this research, gender equity clarifies that females and males have equal opportunities in terms of sports including management or leadership, playing and coaching.

2.2.3 Management

According to Lawrence (1968) "Management is supervising human and physical assets into a self-motivated, hard hitting company until that achieves its goals to the fulfilment of those served and through a high degree of determination and sense of achievement on the part of individuals rendering the service".

In the context of this research, Management means organizing players, coaches and equipment to achieve the goals of the

2.2.4 Organization

A group of people work in a clear structure of tasks procedures, rules, and relationships aimed to accomplish recognizable goals and objectives (Greenwald, 2008). Into the context of this study organization may describe the women and man working under structured roles and job possess to complete the association's objectives and goals.

2.2.5 Sport organizations

Sport organization stands as social entity inside the industry of sport; it is goal-ruled, with a consciously planned activity system and a fairly recognizable boundary" (Slack, 2006). In the context of this study, Sport organizations are the associations and federations of different sports and games recognized by the Ministry of sport in Rwanda.

2.3 Women and leadership

2.3.1 A Historical review

While men were thought to have a "claim" on leadership, females had to work tirelessly to prove their managerial skills. The men's superiority over women is maintained by the historical, the social, the political, the religious, and the cultural practices and mindsets. The continuous entry of females in positions of leadership and perform in the man-dominated environment is fraught with argument and challenges. The male domination legacy that exists in the majority of the world's societies and organizations encourages women's subordination to men. e.g., Victorian views about females as fragile and weak encouraged men to take on leadership roles. While females were relegated to support roles in nurturing and childbirth (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). In terms of task distribution by gender, women's tasks were classified as "private," while men's tasks were classified as "public."

2.3.2 Women in leadership positions

Before the struggle of female's movements for properties' rights and education throughout eighteenth century United states and Europe, men who served in government were expected to have a good education. Education was regarded as an "unnecessary luxury" for women whereas their role as spouses did not necessitate intellectual skills (Couturier and Chepko, 2001).

McAllister (2006) discovered that men received excellent education, while females received just a basic education adequate for housework and educating kids to illustrate the historical background of education in United States. Furthermore, there has been concern that women's education will liberate them from household responsibilities (Freedman, 2002). Moreover, the achievement for women that came during Civil and World War I, when males were called up for military service and women assumed previously male-dominated roles, such as leadership roles (McAllister, 2006). Following the war, school administration was reformed according to the business framework, with the role of superintendent created as the highest position to which principals, vice principals, and teaching staff were subordinated.

The school board was, for the most part, the man. hermore, the women were excluded from management and administration programs in universities has limited women's opportunities to ever assume leadership roles in education; however, administrative and managerial skills were a prerequisite to become a principal or an academic inspector (McAllister, 2006). Education has evolved in tandem with other aspects of society. According to Freedman (2002), the expansion of the employability and industrialization, which created the conditions for male's paid jobs in industrial sectors outside the home, leads to women being restricted to domestic chores. It was ineffective and makes a woman reliant on men. The division of labor into "private sphere" was effeciently used to describe gender duties and responsibilities in which housework and roles were entirely ignored. Capitalism and colonialism, according to feminists, are both sources of oppression for females (Freedman, 2002).

Furthermore, Charles Darwin's theory of male dominance and gender differences, which encouraged the male domination hierarchy prevalent into Victorian times, reinforced women's subordination (Couturier and Chepko, 2001). They can be found in the majority of organizations today. Colonial and Christian priests promote the message of natural male supremacy to other parts of the planet, including Asia and Africa, and used academic achievement and religion to start preparing men for positions of leadership (Freedman, 2002). The figure depicts the emergence of women's marginalization; her loss of leadership and continuing loss of power in the public and sports sectors. sVarious researchers see academic achievement and sport as fields

where as roles of gender are constantly maintained and the dominant class has control over the agenda (Coleman, 2001; Cairncross, 2009).

Despite the fact that several international and regional entities have ratified guidelines like the Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity Laws, women are still underrepresented in most leadership positions, resulting in a clear mismatch between policy and practice. Some laws, such as the Brighton Proclamation in the UK, were met with strong opposition from males, who see this as a type of "reverse discrimination" or another way to deny their leadership roles (Freedman, 2002). Empowering policies have still not been implemented fully in some countries, further depriving women of their rights in positions of leadership. While international organizations recognize existing inequalities and have enacted a slew of laws and guidelines to empower women, women in positions of leadership have made slow progress.

Despite the fact that more women are entering higher education and the labor force, the increase in women in managerial positions has not been proportional to the changes. Only a few women hold positions of power. Statistics from around the world show that women are underrepresented in leadership positions: according to a 2006 report by the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), 66 percent of teachers were men and 34 percent were female; 43 percent of women and 66 percent of men had a permanent job (Carlson, 2008). In 2005, 14.7 percent of Fortune 500 women held executive positions, but only 2.4 percent held the position of chief executive officer (CEO) (Branson, 2007). In 2000, 5,100 women were represented in parliaments worldwide (13.8 percent), and only 39 of the world's 179 nations had elected a woman as prime minister or president.

Furthermore, women held just one tenth of global council of ministers and one fifth of assistant posts, there is clearly no accurate data on female's global representation in managerial positions within sport, especially grass roots football, or within sport management, training, or physical training. Just Henry et al. (2004) helped in providing data on females in Committee of National Olympic (NOC) around in the world in a study funded by IOC. However, these findings support the finding that females are significantly under - represented in managerial roles, only with 12.4 percent of females hired to NOC. Whereas He concentrated on the females' representation in NOCs around globe, the fact that they did not consider the position of female leaders within

sport associations and federations or/and at the grassroots level indicates a shortage of a comprehensive quantitative study a of females sport leaders worldwide.

2.3.3 African women in positions of leadership

When it comes to female leadership in Africa, it's critical to remember that "at independence, continent of Africa adapted political systems and structures developed to grant men power and privilege while consolidating women's subordination" (Tamale, 2000). ite the fact that society of African was gendered and patriarchal, males and female's roles were also seen as complementarities, and women are playing important roles in the well-being of society (Chepyator &Thomson, 2005). A ctuality, women have retained strong political and religious status in the society, as well as economic power through agricultural and commercial endeavors (Freedman, 2002). Women's authority and motherhood were regarded as critical to stability and community's growth, and in certain cultures, females shared political authority with their family members, and other community members looked to the Queen Mother for advice (Freedman, 2002).

Male (obi) and female (grandmother) monarchs shared leadership in Nigeria (Tamale, 2000). Women have also played an active role in community administration, decision-making, and decision-making (Tamale, 2000). Women were held in such high regard in the community that their roles could only be compared to Providence or Mother Earth. In short, women derived their power and authority from the respectable roles that society bestowed upon them. However, with the colonialists' introduction of the centralized administrative system and the imposition of male superiority ideologies that only recognized male authority, this came to an end. According to Falola (1995), women had some form of political control in various parts of their communities and were given special titles that recognized successful women. The African woman, in essence, wielded power in the home and even participated in decision-making, making her an old woman in her own right.

During the colonial period, changes in socio-structural organization destroyed African society's social, political, religious, and economic order and structure. As a result, women's authority has eroded, and their previous positions of power have been eliminated (Freedman, 2002). Men have been effectively promoted over women through colonial education and Christian missionary practices. At the end of the previous millennium, only 17 African countries had 10% women in

parliament (Tamale, 2000). Despite having the lowest percentage of women in political leadership of any continent, there has been a slight improvement, with Rwanda having the most women in the national legislature (Burnet, 2012). However, the growing number of women in politics has not resulted in increased decision-making power. In Africa, Nigerian women waged a "women's war" to protect their economic and political power by collecting property taxes on women's property, similar to the European feminist movement that fought for women's equality and liberation in 1929. In order to protect their dwindling power status, Nigerian women staged more resistance protests in 1959. (Freedman, 2002).

African feminist movements have generally been weaker than European feminist movements. When some African countries gained independence, they formed women's groups to represent women's interests; however, the majority of these groups' goals have been limited to empowering women at the household level rather than increasing their participation in national and international leadership positions. Women's unitary groups such as Maendeleo Ya Wanawake (MYW) from Kenya and Umoja Wa Wanawake Wa Tanzania (UWT) from Tanzania are viewed as extensions of the ruling political class, whose agenda does not represent women's issues (Tamale, 2000). (Tamale, 2000). Longwe (2000) does not hold out much hope for the full integration of African women into leadership positions, owing to the fact that national-level politics, the economy, and social structures are dominated by international leadership bodies with a patriarchal bent. While significant progress has been made in strengthening women's legislation, which has improved access to education and the labor market, a number of challenges fueled by cultural norms and gender roles expectations continue to stymie the increase in women in leadership positions.

Cultural influences and gender stereotypes meant that women were unqualified, couldn't gain authority, and didn't fit into the "web of boys," so they were unworthy of election, according to Abdelas' (2000) research on why men were hesitant to elect women as leaders. Positions in the legislative branch According to Abdela (2000), electing or appointing a few more women to positions of leadership and decision-making is insufficient if systems and political culture remain male-centered. We discovered that simply electing women leaders is insufficient to change political parties', governments', media's, and the general public's negative attitudes toward women leaders (p. 23) This statement emphasizes the fact that women will only be guaranteed

equality if patriarchal practices change, allowing women to be more accepted as leaders and their roles to be seen as complementary to male power rather than antagonistic.

Longwe (2000) contends that education and training are insufficient, and that the only ways to empower women are greater power, greater participation in decision-making, and greater control over resources. In general, in order to achieve the goal of promoting women to positions of leadership, a large number of structural, organizational, cultural, and individual transformations are required. Obviously, there is a scarcity of information on African women in positions of leadership, so this research is necessary.

2.4 Gendered leadership in sport

The theoretical framework and analytical lens for assessing the gendered nature of leadership perceptions is a three-part conceptualization of gendered social processes (Britton, 2003).

Britton (2003) differentiates three levels of gendered processes, drawing on and expanding on Acker's seminal work on gendered organisational processes: 1) structure and patterns of work (e.g., formal and informal practises and policies); 2) culture and society (e.g., images, narratives, ideologies); and 3) agency (e.g., gender appropriate behaviours, interactions, and identities) (Britton, 2003; Britton & Logan, 2008). Although the levels can be separated for analysis, they frequently interact in unexpected ways (Acker, 1992; Britton, 2003). This three-part framework enables us to examine and comprehend not only how leadership may be gendered at each level, but also connections between levels, while identifying gendered logic underlying sport leadership perceptions.

2.4.1 Structure and patterns of work

Home and domestic responsibilities have traditionally been divided into public and private spheres of work (Britton, 2003; Ely & Meyerson, 2000). The ideal worker is able to distinguish between the two spheres and concentrate on work tasks without being distracted by distractions in the private sphere. Because men have traditionally had fewer domestic responsibilities, these work arrangements benefit men and their lives (Ely & Meyerson,2000) This organisational structure, as well as the formal and informal policies and practices associated with various types of work, can be used to separate, exclude, or build gender hierarchies in groups and organisations (Acker, 1992; Britton & Logan, 2008). Sports positions, such as coaching, and the work that goes with them, for example, are extremely demanding, necessitating long and irregular work

hours as well as travel. Coaches' demands are frequently constricting to women and mothers who take on more family responsibilities, and a lack of work-life balance is, at the very least, a challenge for women (Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Leberman & Palmer, 2008), and has been cited as one of the reasons why some women leave the coaching profession (Drago et al., 2005; Kamphoff, 2010).

Other organisational processes and practises may favour men and masculine ideals while excluding others, including women (for example, hiring, job qualifications, and leadership selection). Hovden (2000) discovered that heroic corporate leadership and "heavyweight" qualifications such as sport experience, extensive political and business contacts, financial management and strategic planning competence, and financial management and strategic planning competence dominated leadership selection processes in Norwegian sport organisations.

Despite the fact that the qualifications appeared to be gender-neutral, they were more consistent "with a middle-aged male manager who is most likely interested in high-performance sport" (Hovden, p. 27). Schull, Kihl, and Shaw (2013) found that gendered political processes in the search for an athletic director resulted in gendered candidate criteria that were inherently associated with male candidates in a similar study. Work patterns and employment practises (for example, job responsibilities and qualification) influence the development of human capital, which Ployhart and Moliterno (2011) define as knowledge, skills, experiences, and other individual abilities and characteristics.

2.4.2 Culture and Society

Gendered ideologies, gendered narratives, and other symbolic expressions sustain dominant cultural images of social institutions, organizations, and occupations by creating and reproducing them (Britton, 2003; Britton & Logan, 2008). Britton (2003) and Britton & Logan (2008). These ideologies or states of consciousness are frequently unacknowledged and unquestioned, and they become woven into the fabric of social life (Britton & Logan, 2008; Ely & Meyerson, 2000). Ely and Meyerson (2008); Britton and Logan (2008) (2000) Gender narratives and assumptions have a significant impact on leadership conceptions, such as the notion that men are more likely to exhibit assertive and transactional leadership styles, whereas women are more likely to exhibit relational leadership styles (Eagly, 2007; Fine, 2009; Fletcher, 2004). (Eagly (2007), Fine (2009), and Fletcher (2004).) Sport is embedded in a hyper masculine culture (Anderson, 2009),

16

and researchers have investigated gendered ideologies in coaching, such as masculine superiority and dominance (Drago et al., 2005; Fielding-Lloyd & Mean, 2008; Messner & Bozada-Deas, 2009), as well as gendered narratives and image.

2.4.3 Agency

Gender appropriate behaviors, personas, and identities have two effects on leadership constructions (Britton, 2003). Britton (2003). Individuals may internalize gender appropriate behaviors that are congruent with the organizational or social context as they interpret their leadership experiences (Britton, 2003). Britton (2003). This entails molding one's identity to correspond with what is perceived to be gender appropriate for the situation at hand. Second, people are frequently judged based on what behaviours are perceived to be gender appropriate in a given situation (Britton, 2003). Britton (2003). Given the body of research on gender differences in leadership, which is frequently prescriptive in nature, i.e., men are expected to be assertive leaders, whereas women are expected to engage in collaborative and relational leadership practises, this gendered social process category is pertinent to our investigation. Agency and gender appropriate leadership behaviours influence the "double bind" that frequently confronts women in leadership positions.

According to Eagly (2007) Women, for example, are expected to exhibit agentic masculine traits as leaders while also displaying more collaborative and communal feminine traits as women. Both sets of expectations, however, pose difficulties for female leaders because they are judged negatively when they exhibit traditionally masculine characteristics (e.g., authoritarian, rational, hard) and undervalued when they exhibit traditionally feminine characteristics (e.g., nurturing, overly emotional, or soft) (Eagly, 2007; Fletcher, 2004) Eagly (2007) and Fletcher (2004) Overt masculinities were found to be critical to success in senior management positions in sports organisations by Shaw and Hoeber (2003).

Women who openly expressed their masculinities, on the other hand, were penalized and barred from senior positions as a result of these behaviours. According to Hurst, Leberman, and Edwards (2017), women in a variety of occupational settings have higher relational expectations of their female managers in terms of emotional understanding and support than their male managers. They also discovered that when relational expectations were not met, female employees' and female managers' relationships became strained. Hurst et alstudy .'s demonstrates

how gendered expectations about management and leadership manifest themselves in a variety of organisational settings. Male sport managers used gendered discourses to present their work in ways that created heroic masculine forms of leadership in a sporting context, according to Knoppers and Anthonissen (2008).

Participant instrumentality discourses (e.g., "toughness," "availability," and "impression management") reinforced a gendered culture that tended to exclude outsiders from sport management positions, including women and minorities. Participants also relied on "discourses of relationality" with implicit paterno-authoritarian overtones to help shape their identities as heroic individual leaders (Knoppers & Anthonissen, 2008, p. 97). Many men, for example, claimed to practise people-oriented informal relational leadership. However, the paterno-authoritarian overtones (such as the protective nature of authority) allowed the participants to establish agency, i.e., they positioned themselves as in command or command of subordinates (Knoppers & Anthonissen,2008).

Gender and leadership are both inherently social products that are influenced by socio-cultural factors. Leadership is defined as a set of social relations in which ideals and assumptions about what it means to be a man or a woman, masculine or feminine, are built, expressed, and reproduced through complex social processes (Osborn, Hunt, & Jauch, 2002). Gender is defined as a set of social relations that construct, express, and reproduce ideals and assumptions about what it means to be a man or a woman, masculine or feminine, through complex social processes (Britton & Logan, 2008; Ely & Meyerson, 2000). This framework aided in the identification of deeply rooted leadership ideologies and beliefs embedded in a specific sport culture, as well as in illuminating how gendered constructions and expectations can operate to keep women out of sport leadership positions.

2.5 Gender-specific leadership styles

While some studies claim that there is no significant difference in leadership styles between men and women (Carless, 1998; Davidson & Burke, 1994; Kolb, 1999), there is more evidence that there is a gender difference (Appelbaum et al., 2003; Eagly et al., 2003). According to Van Engen and Willemsen's (2004) meta-analysis of research on gender differences in leadership styles published between 1987 and 2000, women tend to use more democratic and transformative

leadership styles than men. In a meta-analysis of 45 studies comparing transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles of men and women,

Bass et al. (1996) discovered that female leaders were perceived by both female and male subordinates to exhibit transformational leadership behaviours more frequently than male leaders. According to Eagly et al. (2003), women are more transformational leaders than men, and they reward good performance through contingent reward behaviours, which are a key component of transactional leadership. According to Elliot and Stead (2008), a focus on men's leadership styles in the political, military, and business sectors, combined with a disregard for women's practises and experiences, has influenced leadership theory by promoting masculine discourse as the norm (Elliott & Stead, 2008; Fine, 2009). Few studies on women's leadership styles have discovered that they are more likely than men to use a transformational leadership style and more nurturing, inclusive, and collaborative strategies to encourage participation (Fine, 2009; Greenberg & Sweeney, 2005; Rosener, 1990). Rosener (1990) proposed an interactive leadership model to describe women's leadership styles, emphasising the significance of subordinate interaction as well as the transformational nature of their leadership.

This model is based on women's participation encouragement (inclusiveness, consultation, and decision-making involvement), power and information sharing (women's willingness to share information rather than use it as a form of power), enhancing others' self-worth, and energising others (by using enthusiasm and creating challenges). Fine discovered that open communication, teamwork, seeking consensus, and including all points of view were important in women's discursive constructions of leadership, which helped to identify a feminine approach to leadership in sport. She came to the conclusion that women have a moral discourse of leadership based on "open, honest, collaborative behaviour and an ethic of care" (p. 190). Stead and Elliott (2009) identified dynamic and relational leadership in their critical examination of the influence of gender on women's leadership practise and experiences. They discovered that women's leadership emerges from a series of relationships with others, the physical and geographical location where they were raised and lived, and their workplace.

Stead and Elliott's discovery of the importance of relationships in women's leadership practise lends support to Day's (2001) social-capital approach to leadership development. Day (2001) categorises his leadership development model into two components: leader development and

leadership development. Leader development seeks to improve a person's knowledge, skills, and abilities in relation to formal leadership roles. Day defines this as "human capital invested in developing an individual's intrapersonal competence to lead." Self-awareness (emotional awareness, self-confidence, and an accurate self-image are required for intrapersonal competence); self-regulation (self-control, trustworthiness, and personal responsibility); and self-motivation are required for intrapersonal competence (initiative, commitment, optimism). Day defines leadership development as the accumulation of social capital through interpersonal relationships, such as social awareness (empathy, service orientation, political awareness), and social skills (building bonds, team orientation, change catalyst, conflict management).

2.6 Current situation of women in leadership positions in the sports sector

One of the International Olympic Committee's 1997 decisions on women's sports policy was to increase the number of women in NOC leadership to 10% by 2001 and 20% by 2005. These goals were not met, according to the IOC/ISLP evaluation, due to a lack of female members or representatives in local sports federations. Because women do not volunteer for positions in their sports associations, men continue to be dominant leaders in national bodies, according to the study (Henry et al., 2004). The Women Sports Foundation's 2006 IOC Executive Representation Report, as previously stated, shows male-dominated IOC committees at all levels except the Women's Sports Committee, and the situation has not changed since the most recent data (www.lisafernandez16.com / letter / IOC- Members.pdf). From the highest offices to the latitudes or national sports federations, it is clear that the Olympic movement's leadership is still dominated by men.

The Women Sports Foundation report on sports leadership among UK executives in management and training found that leadership is a male-dominated sphere, with men in positions of leadership in all major sports federations. For example, the Central Council for Physical Recreation's executive body was made up of 24 men, with 76 percent of them being men, and high-performance managers and coaches in UK sport-funded bodies were made up of 19 men and 81 percent of them being men. mens. The governing board and committees of the UK College Sports Federation were made up of 39 men, with men constituting 61% of the membership. The Leisure and Facilities Institute trained 12 male coaches, representing 88% of the male population, while active sports coaches represented 34% of the male population.

Furthermore, less than 5% of women were represented as coaches or team leaders at the 2000 Olympic Games (Women's Sports Foundation, 2004). According to a study of German sports associations conducted by Pfister and Radtke (2009), male managers held almost all senior sports positions, including 96.6 percent of presidents and 80 percent of other senior management positions. The regional sports federations were made up of 18 men and one woman. Furthermore, women hold only 20.1 percent of the managerial positions in state associations and 14 percent of the 2,726 managerial positions in autonomous sports associations at various levels. The gender gap in management positions is even more pronounced at the national level: men hold 91 percent of the 682 positions, while women hold only 9 percent. The number of women in leadership positions decreased dramatically as women's status increased at all levels of government, from regional to national. In addition, the study discovered that only four of the 55 national sports federations had a president in 2002, and that women were generally assigned roles in women's and youth sports, while men were assigned strategic planning tasks.

Gender role hierarchies in organizational cultures prevent women from assuming leadership positions. Despite the fact that women are equally qualified as men, some of them fall short of the ideal leadership standards. Despite the fact that most studies show a low representation of women in sports, Canada appears to be the only country that has fully implemented equal opportunity policies. According to Martel (2007), the Canadian Sports Survey revealed that 42 percent of women were employed in Canadian sports administration in 1991, and that gender equality in sport had been achieved, with 49 percent of women participating. Furthermore, despite the fact that more women held leadership positions in national bodies in smaller organizations and later in 1988, the representation of women in leadership positions has steadily increased from overall underrepresentation in 1981 to improved status in 1985. (Martel, 2007)

2.7 Research studies on women in positions of leadership

As a result of the gradual increase in women in leadership positions, academics have observed recently various aspects of females in managerial positions, such as career opportunities and advancements, leadership practices, barriers and challenges, navigation barriers, and the development of female managers.

2.7.1 Career Pathways and Advancement

Noh (2010) defined a career as "life's work activities, behaviors, values, and ambitions" (p. 329). Outside of the workplace, the trajectory or professional movement occurs within organizations and in the social world. In general, women's sports careers include socialization, education and training, and mentoring, all of which can influence their sport and career choices. Job promotions and salary increases are determined by educational level, experience, hiring process, continuing work history, and career guidance (Whitely, Dougherty & Dreher, 1991).

2.7.1.1 Socialization

Socialization is a technique for assimilating people into the customs of a specific social group (Shakeshaft et al., 2007). Bandura's Social Learning Theory (SLT) is widely used to explain how socialization occurs as experiences and to identify the factors that influence people's behavior, decisions, and actions in their daily lives. Learning, according to the SLT theory, includes both social interaction and cognitive processes (Ismail & Rasdi, 2008; Pheko, 2009). According to the theory, experiences shape a person's worldview, character, and social interactions, which in turn influence their life choices and actions. As a result, socialization has a substantial influence on a person's career choice and professional development. According to research, adolescents learn to socialize when they are given opportunities to do so through motivation and interaction with their peers (Duerden & Witt, 2010). Schools and families provide environments for adolescents to learn social interactions that feed on their experiences and, as a result, influence people's behavior, actions, and life choices. Female leaders' interest in sport was influenced by their exposure to sporting environments and the availability of resources, according to studies of sport-specific socialization (Martel, 2007; McAllister, 2006).

The majority of female leaders attribute their socialization in sports to their families, school experiences, and interactions with their peers, according to the researchers (Henry et al., 2004; Martel, 2007; McAllister, 2006). According to these studies, the majority of women attribute their athletic and professional choices to their parents', partners', and friends' encouragement and support. Participation in activities through opportunities promotes skill development as well as positive socialization. Furthermore, it was discovered that developing special interests in sports management, as well as voluntary participation in sports and extracurricular activities, improves an individual's chances of obtaining managerial positions.

According to McAllister's (2006) research, most school administrators apply their competitive athlete leadership skills to their roles as school administrators. Negative socializations stifle personal development while positive socializations promote it. When patriarchal or traditional practices that exclude women are at the root of negative socialization, it occurs. According to Chabaya et al. (2009), gender role socialization is considered normal in some communities and is no longer viewed as a form of discrimination or a stereotype that needs to be challenged. This "normalization" of gender stereotypes and expectations stifles women's careers while strengthening male hegemony.

Chabaya et al. (2009) explain stereotype normalization and its negative impact on women's leadership positions, claiming that this demonstrates, in some ways, that gender socialization in a patriarchal society generates discrimination between men and women, but only in that sense. The journey is conducted in such a way that both men and women freely accept it. Teachers' perceptions of gender roles and what women can and cannot do are influenced by gender socialization (p. 241). This statement emphasizes the specific gender nature of sports and labor organizations in which women are subordinate; and, despite political concerns about empowerment, subtext within organizations has ideas about the ideal manager and thus sets standards that women cannot meet (Pfister & Radtke, 2009). According to Ismail and Rasdi (2008), positive socialization entails changing people's attitudes, cultural and social practices, and systemic changes in organizational structures. While family, friends, and school are considered the primary socialization actors, their involvement in the athlete's life extends beyond financial support, as they also serve as mentors to athletes.

2.7.1.2 Mentoring

Mentoring is also regarded as important for socialization in all male and female occupations (Oplatka, 2001). Mentoring includes both psychosocial and material assistance, allowing the learner to increase his or her social capital (Doherty and Manfredi, 2010). According to Shakeshaft et al. (2007), mentoring roles include professional development, coaching and sponsorship, providing psychosocial support and confidence building for the mentor, and serving as a friend, advisor, and role model. Mentors play an important role in assisting people in advancing in their careers by providing guidance and support. Mentors can also assist the protégé in becoming more visible by connecting them with people, inspiring them, and assisting them in

developing their own social capital (Doherty and Manfredi, 2010). The Women in Leadership Development Institute (WILDI) is an example of a successful mentoring program that prepares women for positions of leadership. This program's skills increased participants' self-confidence and enabled them to advance professionally (Lafreniere & Longman, 2008). Because mentoring is critical for the development of life and work skills, it is critical to acknowledge that a lack of mentoring or role models impedes or challenges women's advancement to positions of leadership (Greendorfer, 2001; Carlson, 2008; Chabaya et al.., 2009).

2.7.1.3 Education and training

Education is viewed as an essential component of both personal and social development. Education enables the development of management skills, which are necessary for leadership. Communities around the world have used both formal and informal forms of education to prepare young people for positions of leadership in society throughout history. During the Victorian era, sociocultural myths about the inappropriateness of strenuous activities and women's intellectual pursuits, for example, were used to deny women educational opportunities (Couturier and Chepko, 2001). There has also been a concerted effort to exclude women from university-level administration and management courses, thereby establishing control for men to remain directors or directors (McAllister, 2006).

In Africa, colonial and missionary training was initially restricted to men, with the goal of preparing them for office and, later, administrative responsibilities. By denying women the opportunity to educate themselves, male supremacy and patriarchy were effectively established in governance. These colonial practises have been used to reproduce and promote social ideologies that have been successfully used in society to normalise patriarchy (Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). Men were favoured for positions of leadership in colonial ideologies, and education was used to give them an advantage. The inability of women to obtain an education hampered their chances of obtaining managerial positions (Sperandio and Kagoda, 2010).

Following successful campaigns by women's movements in the 1960s that resulted in women's access to education and employment, women managers have emerged in recent decades interested in participating in the control of social institutions. Several studies have suggested that education and access to leadership have a positive relationship (Branson, 2007; Coleman, 2007; Henry et al., 2004; Inglis, Danylchuk & Pastore, 2000; Norman, 2010). Women on corporate

boards of top Fortune 500 companies, for example, are well educated and hired, and some are highly qualified university professors (Branson, 2007). According to Inglis, Danylchuk, and Pastore's (2000) study on women's athletic and training experiences, all eleven participants had a bachelor's degree, ten had a master's degree, and the majority of them were training while training. preparing to work as a sports manager Female sports directors in Germany also had a high level of education, with "a higher educational qualification than the national average" (Pfister and Radtke, 2006, p. 121). According to Henry et al. (2004), in an evaluation of progress in women's and sports policies to increase women's representation in the National Olympic Committee (CON), the majority of recruits had a good education, with 78 percent graduating, 29.5 percent having postgraduate degrees, and eight percent having a doctorate. Degree. It was discovered that highly qualified women in leadership positions could add more value to organisations (Vanderbroeck, 2010).

Despite having a high level of education, women in sports leadership positions were unable to find work due to unstructured job allocation and discriminatory hiring practises (Norman, 2010; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). The high expectations placed on female managers result in exceptional academic qualifications for women; however, research has shown that education does not guarantee women leadership positions in sports. Organizations may look for other criteria, such as personal characteristics, or they may believe that denying opportunities allows women to keep the status quo. However, it has been shown that a high academic qualification is related to the advanced entry of females into managerial roles.

2.7.1.4 Patterns of recruitment

Female recruitment patterns for managerial positions typically include being co-opted, nominated, or chosen for the position (Henry et al., 2004; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). One explanation could be a lack of women in positions of leadership. A second explanation refers to sociocultural beliefs about gender roles that prevent women from assuming positions of leadership and explain why women leaders are underrepresented (Chabaya, Rembe & Wadesango, 2009). According to the female modesty theory, women are hesitant to engage in self-promotional behaviours that may jeopardise their career advancement (Budworth & Mann, 2010). Due to a lack of self-confidence, women have been found to be less likely to run for leadership positions (Sperandio, 2010). Women's leadership styles contrast sharply with men's,

who follow well-planned career paths and run for leadership positions with confidence (Coleman, 1996). Other than being elected or nominated, female executives are hired for a variety of reasons. Experience, networking, social capital, and support, as well as running for political office, have all proven to be beneficial to some women (Henry et al., 2004). In addition to the previously mentioned experience and influences, female managers' advancement to management positions could be aided by mentoring programmes that train and prepare them. According to a study on the effectiveness of WILDI's leadership programmes conducted by Lafreniere and Longman (2008), 60 percent of women took on new leadership roles after graduation, and the programme prepared them well for the new roles.

Female leaders could benefit from leadership development programmes that train them and provide them with the skills they need to boost their self-confidence and advance in positions of leadership. The IOC's women's sports programmes also fund leadership training and educational programmes aimed at preparing women for active participation in sports organisation leadership on a local and international level. Despite the fact that there are programmes for developing female leaders, research indicates that organisational structures in sports are not conducive to women seeking leadership positions.

2.7.2 Leadership Practices of Women

According to Oplatka (2001), gender plays an important role in understanding leadership behaviour. Because previous research has primarily focused on male leadership, the emergence of female leaders necessitates the development of a new understanding of female leaders (McAllister, 2006). Gender socialisation and gender roles, as well as personal experiences within specific cultures, influence people's actions and perspectives, and they also help to develop leadership roles (Budworth & Mann, 2010; Coleman, 2003). Inevitably, cultural and gender factors play a role in leadership, highlighting the importance of researching women in sport.

2.7.2.1 Roles in leadership

Women are kept in subordinate roles because leadership is viewed as a male domain (Branson, 2007; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). Women hold very few managerial positions in the International Olympic Committee and its affiliated sport organisations. In education, the majority of teachers are women (80%), but men dominate administrative positions such as school principals and school principals in education (McAllister, 2006). Management positions are designed to keep

women out of government, thereby strengthening male dominance (Eddy and Cox, 2008; Webb and Macdonald, 2007). For example, in the United States, the Senior Women's Administrator position is the highest position assigned to women, indicating the upper limit for women in sport, which limits not only women's participation in decision-making, but also yours. There is a good chance of being promoted to athletic director (Hoffman, 2006).

Gender stereotypes are frequently used in school settings to assign different roles to men and women. Women, for example, were given "soft roles" like pastoral, leadership, and counselling responsibilities, as well as cleaning and gardening duties. Men were typically assigned "high opportunity" roles that included both academic and disciplinary responsibilities. As a result, they were promoted to positions of management. Women lacked the power and authority needed to advance to positions of leadership in general (Coleman, 2001), as well as the opportunity to demonstrate leadership skills (Shakeshaft et al. 2007).

According to Eisenstein (1999), role assignment is a strategy for maintaining male dominance, implying that the presence of women in the workforce is viewed as a threat to patriarchy. Normans' (2010) study confirms the findings that women are underrepresented in positions of leadership. According to Norman's research, male coaches were barred from leadership positions in men's sports while female coaches were barred from positions in women's sports. Furthermore, because older, highly skilled female trainers remained unemployed, men with lower training qualifications were appointed to higher-performing training positions. Furthermore, according to a 2004 World Sport Federation report on gender in sports leadership in the United Kingdom, sport is dominated by men, with women accounting for less than a quarter of the executive members of the Central Council for Physical Recreation of the United Kingdom.

The Institute of Leisure and Equipment, as well as high performance sports institutes in the United Kingdom Officers and committee members of the British University Sports Association were 39 men and 61 percent men, while sports coaches were 34 men and 60 percent men. At the 2000 Olympics, women made up less than 5% of the coaches and team managers. Furthermore, men held the majority of high-level positions such as company executives, presidents, head coaches, and team leaders, while women served on these organization's general committees (FSM, 2004).

Despite the International Olympic Committee's efforts to increase the number of women in leadership positions, gender roles continue to be a problem for the IOC and its affiliated organisations. According to Henry et al. (2004)'s NOC study, despite women having a high level of education, the distribution of roles favoured men because they were assigned strategic planning roles, whereas women dealt only with women and youth or general issues. Only 21.3 percent of women presidents in NOCs around the world. The lack of female representation in executive bodies in the United Kingdom, Germany, and the International Olympic Committee exemplifies existing stereotypes about female leadership positions and confirms Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruence theory on prejudice against women. The role congruence theory is used to explain biases against female leaders. Women face discrimination, according to role congruence theory, because they are perceived to be less capable of leadership than men and to be less valued. Gender stereotypes, cultural convictions, and organisational structures have all influenced role congruence theory, which has kept male dominance in leadership despite women's higher grades (Pfister and Radtke, 2009).

Gender stereotypes are based on traditional practises that are thought to promote gender differences, and men's roles are thought to be more important than women's. According to Sartore and Cunningham (2007), the unbalanced distribution of roles is due to the belief that women are unsuitable for sports careers, that women lack leadership qualities, and that sport is not adequately perceived as a male domain. The logic of the system has been used to justify gender imbalances to the point where gender stereotypes have been adopted or normalised by both dominant and subgroups, preserving the status quo (Sartore and Cunningham,2007).

2.7.2.2 Types of leadership

The executive's behaviour, actions, and decisions, as well as the methods of implementation, are all related to their leadership style (Sadler, 1997). Character traits and relationship behaviour are two behavioural patterns that define the style (Northouse, 2007). Early research on leadership was based on Western male leadership models (Sperandio, 2010). Recently, academics have focused their research on gender differences in leadership styles. Several studies have been conducted to investigate leadership styles and gender differences (Agezo, 2010; Chin, 2007; Coleman, 2003; Collins and Singh, 2006; Doherty and Manfredi, 2010; Eddy and Cox, 2008; Julien, Zinni, and Wright, 2008; Mullen, 2009). According to McAllister, women's leadership

styles differ from men's (2006). Men prefer aggressive, competitive, and direct leadership styles in general.

Female leadership, on the other hand, is relational, participatory, and empowering, and it has an impact on joint leadership (CaldwelColbert & Albino, 2007; Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). It is also interpersonal, charismatic, collaborative, dynamic, and consultative (Oplatka, 2001). (Mullen, 2009). Julien and colleagues (2008) Furthermore, women's styles are more democratic and transformative than men's, who are more transactional (Chin, 2007; Doherty and Manfredi, 2010). Previously, democratic, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles were the most popular. However, organisational behaviour research has resulted in changes in organisational management, which has resulted in a shift in the concept of leadership styles. Understanding people, developing relationships at work, and working together to complete organisational missions are all part of the new leadership concept. As a result, leadership is no longer regarded as an individual act, but rather as a collaborative process. Transformational, transactional, situational, and participatory leadership styles are examples of emerging leadership styles. Transformational leadership was proposed by Burns in 1978, and it focuses on empowering, building relationships, engaging, inspiring, and motivating employees, communicating and shaping the organization's vision, and sharing and collaborating in power (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2003).

In general, organisations seek or attempt to develop styles that are thought to be most effective in carrying out the organization's mission. Agezo (2010) discovered, for example, that female heads of high-performing schools in Ghana developed strategies that were shown to be effective in running their schools, such as teachers who set the example, go first, and provide effective direction and communication. Despite the differences in the schools, each of the leaders identified with the type of relationship the leadership had. Coleman (2003) used Gray's gender paradigms in her study on the leadership styles of school principals to determine the self-perception of male and female leadership styles and the characteristics they applied to their leadership practises. Teachers were asked to choose the words that best described their leadership style. The "androgynous" model, which crosses both sexes and favours feminine style, was preferred by the majority. A collaborative, participatory, and people-centered transformative

style was incorporated into the principal's decisions. According to Julien et al. (2008), both masculine and feminine leadership styles are more transformative than transactional.

Advocacy and social justice were also among the participants' goals because they wanted to contribute to change in their organisations. A common female leadership behaviour has been identified as the pursuit of social justice (McAllister, 2006; Shakeshaft et al., 2007). Because most organisations have specific criteria for what constitutes an ideal leader, some Doherty and Manfredi (2010) study participants felt that their leadership style or that of their superiors did not match. Gender and organisational culture both clearly contributed to style conflict. Women are forced to adopt male leadership styles in order to advance to leadership or keep their jobs because existing systems cannot be changed and are willing to maintain the status quo (Oplatka, 2001).

"The link for women is that the quickest path to higher positions is to reflect the currently expected practises based on the disembodied (male) worker," write Eddy and Cox (2008). (p. 75). While women are compelled to adopt a masculine leadership style in order to advance in their careers, the question of whether men and women have different leadership styles is ambiguous. According to Oplatka (2001), women cannot practise a specific style because they use both masculine and feminine styles. According to the situation theory developed by Bass and Fiedler in 1978, there are no gender-specific leadership styles. Leadership styles, on the other hand, are context-dependent. Because of different perceptions of individuals and society, the debate over men's and women's leadership styles will continue.

The evidence presented consists of quantitative and qualitative research findings. Surveys are typically based on self-reports, but as demonstrated by the Agezo study, perceptions can also be determined through interviews and observational measures (2010). While executives may claim to have a certain leadership style, organisational subtexts or cultures ultimately determine leadership style. These subtexts can be difficult for female leaders to navigate, but for others, adopting their preferred style is the only option.

2.7.2.3 Leadership practices and culture

Culture is defined by Ayman and Korabik (2010) as acquired and transmitted patterns of behaviour, values, or beliefs shared by a group of people. Culture consists of both visible and invisible characteristics that can influence leadership in a variety of ways (Triandis, 1993). There

is a growing sensitivity to cultural differences as the world becomes more globalised and different cultures become more interconnected. Globalization of the economy, education, and other socioeconomic aspects of life bring diversity to organisations, necessitating multiculturalism in organisations (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004). Cultural differences necessitate a different perception and application of appropriate leadership styles for a given cultural context. Organizational cultures evolve over time, influencing policies such as hiring, office structure, and the assignment of roles, tasks, and the manner in which members work within a given organisation. Organizations have a "ideal" type of leadership that they would normally recruit in the field of leadership, with the majority of them frequently appealing to male leadership role models (Pfister & Radtke, 2009). Sports organisations are viewed as hierarchical, patriarchal, and male hegemonic structures that maintain gender differences (Brown and Evans, 2004).

This male hegemonic leadership culture requires women to imitate men's leadership styles in order to "fit in" with the organisation. Participants in Martel's (2007) study admitted to adopting masculine values as a result of sports organisations' demands. Oplatka's (2001) study found that older women described their leadership style as "masculine," a behaviour that has most likely been shaped over time and influenced by culture, interactions, and other community influences. Individual leadership styles are influenced by organisational cultures or subtexts (Pfister & Radtke, 2009). Pfister and Radtke (2009) define subtexts as "things that are not explicitly written but that all members of the organisation expect." Some workplace experiences, such as discrimination against women, can have a different impact on women's careers, according to Oplatka (2001), and men are the decision makers who force women to follow strategies that may not be in line with gender expectations.

Oplatka (2001) added to the gender and organisational culture differences: "In a culture that tends to expect managers to be men, the entire experience of being a director is perceived very differently by women." and men [and] this should have an impact on men's and women's professional identities and working methods (p. 33). Patriarchal heritage and male hegemony have deeply ingrained traditional cultures and stereotypes in all aspects of social and organisational structures, particularly for women. Julien et al. (2008) discovered that, despite similarities in leadership styles between men and women, women attributed their leadership style

to gender. The women were apparently aware of their gender role and the place that their community assigns to them; as a result, they were always gender conscious, a present and constant thought that determined and controlled their daily activities. In addition to gender, women had to deal with racism and sexism in the workplace.

Despite this, Aboriginal people valued their cultural practises and incorporated them into their leadership styles. For example, the role of spirituality and community engagement was so important that all decisions were made with others and future generations in mind (Julien et al., 2008). According to Ayman and Korabik (2010), "for leaders to be effective in a diverse society, they must understand their own preferred style and behaviour, as well as how they can differentiate themselves from others" (P. 157). The contingency approach to leadership, according to these researchers, incorporates culture into its conceptualization and has been validated in several countries. Furthermore, they argue that leaders must understand and be aware of the differences between groups, as well as learn how groups are controlled and managed, and must thus incorporate

2.8 Theoretical Review

2.8.1 Gender Equality

According to Fink (2016), he urged that mentoring and education of both females and males who are already in managerial and decision-making positions at medium levels, they need to be prepared for more challenging positions. More so, he said that it is critically important that females are given such training specified the objective of raising the representation of female on international and national executive committees and boards. Mentoring programs should be launched, whether on a formal educational method or via informal basis, leads to qualifications.

The modern theory describes the conversion of economic growth in a cultural procedure of human improvement that provides rise to the emancipative worldview, redirected into self-expression ethics that give emphasis to human autonomy and choice, including the women's autonomy and choices (Welzel 2003; Inglehart & Welzel 2005; Welzel, Inglehart & Klingemann 2003). This rises into emancipative orientations improves mass expectations aimed at making elites inclusive and responsive. By this approach, rises emancipative ethics lead to expand females' empowerment through parliament and society (Inglehart & Welzel 2005, Inglehart & Norris 2003).

At its essential, the perspective of human development links public modernization to emancipative ethics throughout changes within existential constraints. The report underlines changes in contemporary societies especially conducive to females' empowerment and hence establishes a linkage between societies and cultural modernity that value better equality among genders. Finally, Welzel (2003) ties the recent human resources critical to the human development system to economic growth. But in this observation, effect of economic growth is more indirect.

2.8.2 Gender Equality in leadership positions

It is worthy that all generalizations about male versus female as effective leaders based on gender or sex show an emphasize on the Character capacity of leadership. Remarkably, Eagly et al (1995) in their theory mentioned that males and females are equally successful leaders, unless the managerial role is "gendered" (i.e., people believe the leader to be male or female). Therefore, leaders of the predicted sex and gender are extra effective; moreover, they emphasized that a leader must be competent and have the capabilities, knowledge and skills necessary to accomplish the jobs efficiently and effectively. The leader's Gender shouldn't define the competence of a leader on the Personal, Team, Interpersonal or Organizational levels. However, since Gender biases might affect competence perception of self and others, it's very important to be alert on all Gender- associated biases that have contribution on misperceptions of Competence.

According to Bell (1999) states that the classical modernization perception considers rise in human choice and democracy as a direct result of economic growth in relative to gender equality, the method holds that economic improvement is crucial to increase the pool of females eligible for social power positions. The scholars state that increased economic growth associates with a wider based distribution of occupation resources and educational. Greater access to occupational resources and educational increases women's opportunities of professional development and creating a greater pool of females eligible for power position for example political office.

Furthermore, Masden (2008) observed that individuals with higher levels of self-confidence are more likely to take on larger challenges, such as senior management positions. They also learned how to deal with adversity and disappointment, as well as how to lead from their qualified coworkers. According to Eagly (2006), females may be challenging themselves and thus their

self-confidence levels remain low. Transferable and valuable skills were learned through various career experiences.

Tan (2008) proposed that men and women lead in different ways. Women were declared to have a great deal of scheduling flexibility, autonomy, comprehensive financial parameters, and/or power. He went on to say that entrepreneurial females possessed qualities such as joy, success, and satisfaction from accomplishments, despite being better at building relationships with employees and customers. With such positive results, it's difficult to believe that women aren't assuming high-ranking leadership positions in sports at the same rate as men.

Furthermore, leadership styles, and in turn frequently employ behaviors and traits associated with effective, as Eagly and Carli (2002) argued in modern leadership theory, a female may be seen as a greater leader because she possesses traits of a modern leader. According to research, there is a progressive relationship between job satisfaction and transformational leadership. According to Burton and Welty-Peachy (2009), on transactional leadership approaches, both females and males with transformational management styles are desired. This desired leadership style is also associated with positive organizational outcomes (Eagly, 2007). Furthermore, previous studies conclude that women leaders are preferred over men due to their alignment with the transformational approach. Whatever the case, the fact remains that females are underrepresented in high-ranking leadership positions in professional sports.

2.8.3 Gender Equality in Athletic Organizations

Concerning the relationship between power, gender, and organisations, internationally renowned scholar Kanter (1977) observed that after rationality and efficiency were used to justify their positions, managers' responsibilities became strongly masculinized. She came to the conclusion that corporate structure, rather than personal characteristics, influenced gender inequalities. Females encountered challenges as a result of being assigned to dead-end jobs at the bottom of the organisation or as tokens at the top. Based on this perception, Acker (1990) proposed a theory called "gendered organisation." According to Acker, institutions are not gender balanced and should be viewed as having gender patterned grounds in their actual constitution. In other words, the distinction between man and woman, masculine and feminine, characterises their fundamental components structure, policy, ideology and practise, identity, and interaction.

According to Acker, constitutive patterning reproduces gender inequalities, whereas the distinction that defines it must include hierarchical differentiation of ethics along gendered lines.

Kvande (2007) emphasised the system's active interactive nature. She proposed that the perception of 'doing gender' allows us to identify patterns of gendered performances produced not only by individuals but, more importantly, by organisations and corporations. Connell (2009) created a modern framework for identifying a pattern of gender practises in four key areas of public life. Connell (2009) refers to the 'gender regime' as the arrangement of these four dimensions and/or the pattern of gender dealings formed by them. Connell (2009) A gender division or labour production relations, which refers to the method by which work or production is organised along gender lines, is the first dimension of a gender model. Gender relations of power, according to Connell (2009), are a technique in which collective and individual force, control, and authority are exercised alongside gender lines such as legal power, organisational hierarchy, and violence.

Human relation and emotion, the third dimension, refers to the method by which antagonism and attachment among groups and individuals are organised along gender lines, including sexual attraction, feelings of solidarity, repulsion, and prejudice. Gender symbolism and culture, according to Connel (2009), are the methods by which gender identities are well-defined and gender is understood and represented, including attitudes and prevailing gender beliefs. Though the relationships between these four gender structures can be separated, they do not function independently and are constantly and intricately intertwined.

The gender division in the context of this research refers to the tasks and roles assigned to males and females in a sport organisation, including an executive level; the next dimension of a gender model frequently refers to males' influence and dominance in decision-making, how they proceed their interests in a process. The third dimension of the gender model is related to patterns of hostility and attachment that exist in and between females and males, and includes, for example, the techniques they use to collaborate, support, or undermine and oppose each other at work. Finally, figurative relations, a fourth dimension of a gender model, are operationalized in gender equality and gender understanding, including betrayal.

2.8.4 The barriers that affect gender equality process in the management of sport associations and faderations

(Hargreaves, 2001), explaining the low representation of women in positions of leadership. Women face difficulties in all social, political, and cultural spaces, and these difficulties are not limited to any culture, geographical region, country, ethnic group, religion, or social class. Despite the passage of several laws prohibiting gender discrimination in sports, there has been little progress. As a result, sports has remained one of the most gender-balanced institutions. While the number of women participating in sports has grown over time, the proportion of women in leadership positions has remained low (Hargreaves, 2007). Greendorfer (2001) observed that "even in old age, women are subjected to gender role stereotypes in relation to physical activity... as a result of an ideological belief system that continues to discourage equal opportunities."

Researchers identified gender role discrimination, professional and family conflicts, professional interruptions (Coleman, 2001; Robertson, 2010), a lack of family support (Maürtin Cairncross, 2009), and a lack of education or experience as barriers that women face (Sperandio and Kagoda). Male hegemony and gender stereotypes (Messner, Duncan, and Jensen, 2007; Krane, Choi, & Kauer, 2007; Sabo & Messer, 2001; Norman, 2010;) (Pfister and Radtke, 2009; Burnett, 2002; Webb and Macdonald, 2007; Staurowsky, 1990;). Organizational barriers, individual barriers, and relational barriers are the three types of barriers (Mullen, 2009; Coleman, 1996; Martel, 2007).

2.8.4.1 Organizational impediments

Leadership is seen as a motivating factor in the development of leadership opportunities for women (Hargreaves, 2001). Policy and decision-making processes can be empowered, enabled, and influenced by leadership. Women in leadership positions find it difficult to participate effectively in governance due to the male-dominated socioeconomic and political environment in which they operate. Some of the challenges that women face are deeply ingrained in sociocultural and organisational structures, leadership positions, and politics that are difficult to change (Hargreaves, 2001), such as stereotypes (Agezo, 2010; Chabaya et al., 2009), a lack of guidelines and inadequate resource allocation (Bodey, 2007), unbalanced job selection and

promotion strategies, and unrealistic expectations (Carlson, 2008; Coleman, 1996; Dominici et al., 2009).

Some scholars (Scott & Brown, 2006, Eagley, 2007, Carli & Eagley, 2001) believe that women are underrepresented in the workplace due to gender inequity, whereas others believe that female management practices are frequently under acknowledged or rewarded (Geis at al, 1985, Bass & Avolio, 1994). Relationship structure, self-awareness, stakeholder management, and decision-making ability were all critical to success in the sports industry. Furthermore, they stated that the sports industry pays females less than males for comparable work (Leberman & Shaw, 2012).

2.8.4.1.a Gender stereotypes, culture, and beliefs

Most societies' traditional cultural beliefs hold that women are unfit to be leaders. Over time, men's growing power and authority improved the allocation of different roles for men and women, helping to define the roles that women now assume and subordinate roles (Eddy & Cox, 2008). Sartore and Cunningham (2007) go into great detail about how gender stereotypes contribute to women's underrepresentation in positions of leadership in sports. They explain how gender stereotypes emerge and become embedded in traditional practises, affecting all aspects of women's lives and reinforcing stereotypes about women's inability to lead. Teachers in Zimbabwe, for example, have been socialised and culturally conditioned to believe that women are incapable of leading, making them hesitant to assume leadership positions (Chabaya et al., 2009). Patriarchy pervades people's daily lives, decisions, and actions, and it harms women in positions of power. Patriarchy and related beliefs operate within organisational structures that place men's careers in high visibility positions and accelerate men's advancement to leadership positions, whereas women's pastoral or advisory roles increase their visibility while stifling career advancement (Coleman, 1996).

In the corporate world, women are frequently "transferred" to human resource roles, which are invisible and from which they cannot escape (Branson, 2007). The metaphor of "glass walls" describes situations in which women are denied the opportunity to perform other functions in order to gain the necessary experience for advancement to managerial positions, which explains the "displaced position of women" (Branson, 2007). Organizations place unrealistic demands on female managers in order to frustrate women in submissive roles. According to studies, when women reach the highest levels of management, the tasks assigned to them can be overwhelming

because they are inherently high risk and are designed to "fail them" (Branson, 2007; SanchezHucles & Davis, 2010). Furthermore, using long work hours as a criterion for effective leadership disqualifies women from positions of leadership (Pfister & Radtke, 2009; Shakeshaft et al., 2007). This assumption ignores the additional housework responsibilities that many women take on, and thus discriminates against them in hiring.

To be a sports leader or to effectively organize sports, you must have been involved in sports in other ways as a dynamic athlete or hobbyist. As a result, the factors that influence exercise for women are primarily the same factors that influence exercise management (Cox et al., 2006). According to research conducted in the United Kingdom, pressures to conform to social stereotypes led to the absence of most girls and women from sports and physical activities. Community values are so stereotypical that they often prevent women from exercising (Allender, 2006). Matafwali (2010) mentioned traditional barriers to women's exercise, such as men leaving the house alone or leaving their home. Munsaka and Matafwali (2013) added that in African tradition, girls prepare to be mothers and wives as early as possible. It was inappropriate for a girl to play with boys; instead, they were expected to do household chores that made them responsible mothers and wives.

According to UN reports (1995) conducted in various locations, traditional values and social stereotypes had a strong influence on women's participation in sport and management. A lack of role models was also cited as a common factor in several studies. Poor media coverage, poor education, mixed media coverage, and uneven financial distribution were also mentioned. Ikhioya (1999) also demonstrated that cultural attitudes and beliefs had a strong influence on the underrepresentation of women in sport in most societies, particularly in rural areas.

According to Adler (2008), the expectations and reactions of parents toward their children create concepts and/or messages of gender role stereotypes of children within physical activity. This belief may have an impact on women's participation in sports. Hums (2008) discovered that parents have a negative reaction to girls exercising more than boys. This suggests that parents often allow their children to refuse to participate in sports for stereotypically gendered reasons. Similarly, men will be more motivated to participate in dynamic sports outside the home, whereas women will be motivated to participate in activities that are restricted at home.

Furthermore, the findings show that religion has a significant impact on women's participation in sports.

According to Money (2002), the Evangelical and Catholic Churches in France and other countries were opposed to women participating in sports. Similarly, it is a widely held belief in Islam that women who believe in Islam are discouraged from participating in sports because of the specific clothing styles that are recommended for participants.

Gender discrimination is common in the workplace. Gender bias frequently impedes women's ability to perceive themselves as leaders. It could also have an adverse effect on how other people perceive these women as leaders. These women are frequently confronted with a variety of difficulties. According to Shaw and Hoeber (2003), In order to compete with men in sports organisations, women must demonstrate their ability to lead. Managers admitted to making it more difficult for women to get interviews because they assumed they would be less qualified for available leadership positions. Many women believe they are liked but not respected. They believe that taking on leadership responsibilities will result in less social support. According to Ely, Ibarra, and Kolb, people perceive men to be better suited for leadership roles because the paths to such positions were designed with men in mind; the belief that men are a better fit propels more men into leadership roles, which reinforces the perceptions that men are a better fit, thereby maintaining gendered practises (2011). As a result, despite the subtle barriers to women's advancement in leadership that organisations erect, women face a challenge in constructing leader identities.

2.8.4.1.b The Hiring Process

In terms of selection and promotion, most organisations' hiring and hiring processes favour men (Doherty and Manfredi, 2010; Dominici et al., 2009). Dominici et al., 2009; Doherty and Manfredi, 2010). Interview panels dominated by men are biassed and sexist, with women receiving low ratings (Coleman, 2001; Sánchez Hucles and Davis, 2010). Kanter's homologous reproduction theory, proposed in 1977, can help explain why women are underrepresented in administrative and managerial positions (Dominici et al., 2009). According to the theory, people prefer those with similar characteristics and exclude and discriminate against "the others" or people who are different (Norman, 2010), so interview panels dominated by men tend to prefer men when recruiting. Furthermore, men are "the ideal leaders" from a patriarchal perspective,

resulting in an organization's conscious or unconscious promotion of stereotypes (Shakeshaft et al., 2007). This accelerates men's advancement or allows them to work on committees where they gain experience, develop self-confidence, and are prepared for leadership roles (MaürtinCairncross, 2009). Gender stereotypes perform to prevent or disqualify women from assuming positions of leadership in society, as well as to strengthen male power and position in leadership and gender reproduction (Brown and Evans, 2004).

2.8.4.1.c Institutional merger

Prior to the equality legislation, women had autonomy in the separate areas of education and sport because they were in charge of the administration of their own institutions (Martel, 2007; Park, 2010). Following the men's return from World War II, a business model was developed and promoted, resulting in the establishment of a superintendent position, which elevated one man to the position of general supervisor of education (McAllister, 2006). Currently, men constitute the vast majority of school principals (McAllister, 2006). The coeducational system in the United Kingdom favours men for headmaster positions, with women only permitted to serve as assistant principals in coeducational schools or as principals in girls' schools (Coleman, 1996).

Despite having the same qualifications as men, women's opportunities to serve as directors in mixed institutions are limited due to the gender distribution of roles. Following the implementation of Title IX in sports, men's and women's sports programmes were merged, and men were appointed as sports directors, resulting in the loss of power positions for women (Hoffman, 2006; Rintala & Bischoff, 1997). Title IX legislation had an effect on physical education as well, because when men's and women's sports programmes at universities were combined into one department, the department head was automatically transferred to a male (Park, 2010). While the intention was for institutional pooling to strengthen women's activities and provide equitable access to resources, these alliances resulted in women losing power, autonomy, and control over their activities.

Despite having the same qualifications as men, women's opportunities to serve as directors in mixed institutions are limited due to the gender distribution of roles. Following the implementation of Title IX in sports, men's and women's sports programmes were merged, and men were appointed as sports directors, resulting in the loss of power positions for women (Hoffman, 2006; Rintala & Bischoff, 1997). Title IX legislation had an effect on physical

education as well, because when men's and women's sports programmes at universities were combined into one department, the department head was automatically transferred to a male (Park, 2010). While the intention was for institutional pooling to strengthen women's activities and provide equitable access to resources, these alliances resulted in women losing power, autonomy, and control over their activities.

2.8.4.1.d Inadequate support

Due to a lack of structural, organisational, and financial support, women are frequently prevented from performing their tasks or even advancing to managerial positions. The majority of female leaders attributed their success to the support they received from their families, friends, and organisations (Agezo, 2010; Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Duerden & Witt, 2010; Evetts, 1988; Robertson, 2010). Bodey identified disparities in treatment and resource allocation as barriers to women's sports in a 2007 study of Moroccan female sports leaders. Female managers were frequently not consulted or included in decision-making, and men's sports were clearly preferred. In their study of gender stereotypes in sports, Sartore and Cunningham (2007) discovered a deeply ingrained decision-making process in which decisions were made on behalf of women as if they did not exist. Women's authority is undermined by a failure to adequately recognise and compensate them for their roles and achievements, as well as to provide them with much-needed resources.

Dominici et al. (2009) discovered that while women held leadership positions in universities and worked to improve their communities, they were not recognised or rewarded, and their assigned leadership positions were not comparable to those held by men. These female leaders, on the other hand, have established centres or programmes that address critical unmet needs, frequently without the support of their faculties or universities. with little encouragement and only with the tacit approval of the directors and deans of their faculties (Dominici et al., 2009). There is no doubt that women are just as dedicated to their jobs as men and are willing to devote their time and resources to the growth of their organisations, which helps to dispel the myth that women are less committed to their jobs than men.

2.8.4.1.e Failure to take political action

According to studies, between 1998 & 2003, the employment level of females with children under the age of 1 year fell from 57.9 percent to 53.7 percent. Branson (2007) A lack of family-

friendly policies in organisations, as well as a lack of administrative support for women planning to start a family, have contributed to a drop in the number of young women in formal jobs (Bruening and Dixon, 2008; Robertson, 2010).Women have prioritised family over career due to a lack of family-friendly policies in organisations, which can result in early termination, prolonged absences, salary loss, and contract termination (Robertson, 2010). Women's advancement to positions of leadership is hampered by these career breaks (Coleman, 2001). According to Branson (2007), the American business world is a punishment for raising children because it has no economic value, which is why reproductive roles are undervalued. He also discusses how male leadership attitudes stigmatise mothers' ability to negotiate flexible work hours at work. In some cases, employers may be hesitant to hire young women of childbearing age. Women who choose to work make significant changes in their lives, rely on a strong family support system, and sometimes negotiate flexible working hours at work - Brüning, 2008; Nkomo & Ngambi, 2009)

According to Doherty and Manfredi's (2010) research on the implementation of gender equality policies in universities, universities that actively pursue gender-friendly policies outperform other organisations. Women were content with their jobs and their careers were on par with men in this situation. Clearly, enacting gender-friendly policies can help women advance to positions of leadership. Organizational barriers for women in leadership positions include culture, gender stereotypes, unbalanced hiring processes, institution mergers, a lack of organizational support, and a lack of guidelines. Women face barriers to advancement to managerial positions on an individual level as well.

2.8.4.2 Individual impediments

When compared to men, women are portrayed in the social construction of gender as weak, fragile, and incapable of physically or mentally exhausting activities (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). Women's subordination to men is increased as a result of gender role socialisation (Greendorfer, 2001). Gender stereotypes formed through life experiences can be difficult to disassociate from the individual. Negative cultural socialisation reinforces the belief that women are unfit for positions of leadership and influences the decisions they make. These choices are influenced by women's leadership attitudes and perceptions. According to Abdela (2000), self-limiting behaviours reinforce gender stereotypes about women's leadership abilities and have a

negative impact on their self-confidence. As is customary, social domain theory considers social cultures, beliefs, and socialisation systems that assign men roles superior to women (Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). Furthermore, the theory assumes that both marginalised and dominant groups tend to agree with and accept this situation as normal at some point in time, making it impossible for them to question existing inequalities.

2.8.4.2.a Lack of assurance

Women's advancement or promotion to positions of leadership is hampered by a lack of confidence. Women rarely apply for managerial positions due to a lack of self-confidence (MaürtinCairncross, 2009). Indeed, Some people have admitted to being coerced into applying for leadership positions (Coleman, 1996; Sperandio and Kagoda, 2010; Eddy and Cox, 2008). The theory of female modesty proposed by Budworth and Mann (2010) can explain these self-limiting behaviours. Female modesty theory minimises her abilities while encouraging others to contribute (Doherty and Manfredi, 2010).

Female modesty theories influence women's choices, connect to leadership positions, and financial rewards (Budworth and Mann, 2010). Men frequently use self-assertive behaviours to gain leadership positions and financial rewards, whereas women rarely do. Men have well-planned career plans for leadership positions on average, whereas women have no career plans and are hesitant to apply for leadership positions (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). According to Coleman's (2001) research, men confidently apply for jobs for which they are underqualified, whereas women only apply if all of the requirements are met. This behaviour harms society's perception of women and reinforces the notion that women are incapable of holding positions of leadership. Some female leaders admitted to being "chosen for leadership positions" by their immediate supervisor or another influential figure, whereas others were pushed into leadership positions against their will (Chabaya et al., 2009; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). (Chabaya et al., 2009; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). Mullen (2009) Women's low power status, according to Pfister and Radtke (2006), means they perceive themselves as incapable of leadership and are thus hesitant to run for leadership positions. In Uganda, for example, female teachers' failure to apply for jobs was attributed to a lack of interest due to a lack of qualifications and a lack of understanding of the application process (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010).

In sports, Henry et al. (2004) discovered that women were hesitant to run for leadership positions. The lack of women in national sports federations has been attributed to a lack of female interest in leadership positions, and the IOC's efforts to increase the number of women in leadership positions in sport worldwide have not been viewed favourably. Young (2015) asserts that women consistently undervalue their own achievements. Many people suffer from imposter syndrome, a condition in which highly competent individuals are unable to recognise their own achievements for fear of being exposed as a "fraud" (Drexler, 2013). This is a common occurrence among women and visible minorities who are concerned about being perceived as untrustworthy. Gender bias is also prevalent in the workplace. Women's ability to see themselves as leaders is frequently hampered by gender biases. It may also have an adverse effect on how other people perceive these women as leaders. Other difficulties confront these women on a daily basis. According to Shaw and Hoeber (2003), women must demonstrate leadership skills in order to be more competitive than men in sports organisations.

Managers admitted to giving women more difficult interviews because they thought they would be less suitable for the executive positions available. Many women frequently believe they are loved but unrespected. They believe that taking on leadership responsibilities will result in less social support. According to Ely, Ibarra, and Kolb (2011), people see men as more suitable for leadership roles, in part because the paths to those roles were designed with men in mind; the belief that men are a better fit is driving more men into leadership positions, increasing the perception that men are a better fit, and gender practises remain intact. As a result, despite the subtle barriers that organisations erect to prevent women from advancing to positions of leadership, women face a challenge in developing leadership identities.

2.8.4.2.b Work-family conflict
Conflict Women's roles as mothers and workers are inextricably linked, and mother and child have a dual identity and are linked to their private and public spheres (Evetts, 1988). Most women plan their careers around their family situation, taking into account their children's and spouse's needs (Eddy & Cox, 2008). This is especially true for women in various professions, and it poses a challenge because they must resolve existing tensions that can arise at the pinnacle of their careers when decisions about career advancement or retention coincide with their childbearing age (Dominici et al.., 2009).

Despite gender equality legislation, research shows that women continue to bear more domestic responsibility than men, including career breaks and even job promotion postponement for family reasons (Branson, 2007). These decisions are made by women based on family values as well as traditional gender roles in which parenting and other household tasks are regarded as feminine. Such decisions impede women's advancement in management and result in a low representation of women in management positions. According to Branson (2007), "one thing has remained constant: females are still those who adapt their person's life to fulfil the needs of children, for doing what is necessary to create a home, who give up status, income, progress, and independence" (p. 41). However, deferring motherhood and prioritising career over family are the only ways for modern professional women to maintain career advancement and growth (Coleman, 2001). Furthermore, some females have reported a lack of management development opportunities, supporters, or biassed treatment that has hampered their advancement to high-ranking leadership positions when compared to their male counterparts (Lapchick et al., 2013). When it comes to family responsibilities and work-life balance, females prioritise more than males (Dreher,2008).

2.8.4.2.c A scarcity of role models and mentors

Mentors are important for the development of one's social and even professional life because they provide guidance, advice, inspiration, motivation, and emotional support. While a lack of social networks and role models is one of the barriers to women's leadership, men have developed very strong social relationships through "boy networks" that they have successfully used to advance their interests. Men use boys' networks to assert power, expand their influence, and maintain male leadership dominance. According to Branson (2007) research on women in business, once female CEOs were fired, they never returned to business; however, men were able to continue to appear due to the networks of "old men." Women in the upper echelons often feel lonely in the absence of strong social support, so with each fall, there is no one to protect them. New teachers identified a lack of tutoring as a barrier to access to informal networks, which increased their marginalization (Carlson, 2008). As the only voices in a male-dominated governing body, woman leaders may not be taken seriously in meetings and thus cannot fully contribute to decision-making (Hoffman, 2006). In the section that follows, I'll look at the relationship barriers that women face in sports. Negative socialisation, the use of masculine standards as criteria, and the presence of power dynamics are all examples of impediments.

Furthermore, according to Matafwali (2010), a lack of role models in sport has hampered women's participation in sports management.

He reported that thinking about what a child wanted to achieve, what they had already accomplished in practice and competitions, what other children had accomplished, and successfully observing, observing, or communicating with the elderly promoted self-image development in sport. People in sport, such as teachers and coaches, as well as top athletes According to the report, when asked how they were inspired by different sports, the majority of them said their teachers at school.

2.8.4.3 Relational Obstacles

To function effectively, both the leader and the members must cultivate relationships that ensure the achievement of business objectives. Interactions teach people how to communicate with one another, understand one another, and work together to achieve common goals. In sports, the male-dominated work environment creates tensions that prevent women from achieving their goals or rising to positions of leadership (Inglis et al., 2000). Glass ceilings, glass floors (Branson, 2007), Old Boys' Networks (Staurowsky, 1990), gender discrimination (Pfister & Radtke, 2006), and power relations (Webb & Macdonald, 2007) are some of the barriers to women's advancement to leadership positions identified in studies on the underrepresentation of women in decision-making positions.

2.8.4.3.a Negative socialization

Negative socialisation has a cultural basis. According to social learning theories, both humans and their surroundings influence a person's behaviour. Through interaction, socialisation influences people's activities and decisions in life (Ismail & Rasdi, 2008). When you socialise into your community's practises and belief systems, you develop a collective consciousness that the entire community shares, which can be positive or negative. Negative socialisation, according to Chabaya et al. (2009), influences women's self-perception and lowers their self-esteem. According to Chabaya et al., (2009) a study of female teachers in Zimbabwe discovered that women underestimated their leadership abilities and were hesitant to apply for leadership positions.

According to Sartore & Cunningham (2007), social and cultural forces shape the self, in this case gender stereotypes resulting from cultural socialisation that is deeply ingrained in women's

consciousness and has contributed to the belief that strengthening them is unsuitable for leadership. According to Sperandio (2010), sociocultural gender stereotypes that require women to behave in a certain way while professing to defend and promote workplace equality are contradictory and create a mismatch between policy and practise, contributing to the marginalisation of women in leadership positions in sport.

2.8.4.3.b Male Standards

Most organisations use male standards to evaluate women for recruitment or promotion because leadership is based on male principles. These unilateral hiring criteria, which seek masculine qualities in women (Eddy & Cox, 2008; Vanderbroeck, 2010), are discriminatory and purposefully exclude women from senior management positions. Furthermore, women's obligation to adhere to masculine standards or leadership styles frequently leads to conflict or a "double bind" situation in which they are expected to behave like women; however, when it comes to recruiting executives, masculine traits are generally desired.

Furthermore, men are perceived negatively when women exhibit masculine behaviour, whereas women who exhibit feminine behaviour are perceived as "too soft" to take the lead (Vanderbroeck, 2010). Lesbians are female athletes who exhibit masculine characteristics such as aggression and competitiveness in sports (Gurthrie and Kauer, 2009). Lesbian stigma is used to terrorise and isolate women while also increasing men's power and control over women. Women's participation and success in sports, feminist theorists argue, endangers the male ego and power structure, and that men can maintain their dominance over women by using the lesbian label (Sabo and Messner, 2001; Sartore and Cunningham, 2007).

Researchers advise men and women to be aware of biological and individual differences, as applying male leadership standards to women may not accurately reflect their true leadership abilities (Eddy & Cox, 2008). The Power Dynamic Because "power establishes, maintains, and challenges certain discourses within daily social relations," power is thought to be essential for organisational operations and social relations (Webb & Macdonald, 2007). Power struggles are unavoidable when there is a dominant group. Men are accused of abusing their power in sports in order to keep women in subordinate roles. According to some studies, women's participation in sports is viewed as a threat to male power.

As a result, men have developed strategies to maintain their power and control over women. Sexual harassment, sexism, violence, and labelling of lesbians are all oppressive strategies used

by women (Cohen, 2001; Messner, Duncan, & Jensen, 2007), as are denial of information, exclusion from activity, assignment of high-risk jobs, and, in general, creating a hostile environment (Branson, 2007; Pfister & Radtke, 2006). Webb and Macdonald (2007) investigated how Foucault-derived power techniques such as exclusion, classification, normalisation, and distribution were used to oppress women. Exclusionary power techniques were used to deny women information and knowledge, according to the findings, and the training and interview processes were biassed in favour of men. The classification force technique alluded to gender roles and reinforced the notion that older women were unfit to teach, forcing them to retire early. Standardization techniques are used in the classroom to establish standards and norms for evaluation, school performance, and teacher behaviour and actions. The technique of distributive power was manifested in the way men infiltrated schools using their male bodies. While power is associated with leadership, women are hesitant to assert their rights to power in the workplace.

While female coaches represent a position of power, Therberge (1990) discovered that they were hesitant to claim and use their positions of power, preferring to see themselves as mentors who could positively influence athletes. Men and women perceive power differently, according to other research. While men are motivated to take on leadership roles and frequently recognise that power struggles force them to resign, women tend to avoid such conflicts and instead concentrate on development organisations (Pfister and Radtke, 2006). The power imbalances that create inequalities in most workplaces are challenged by feminist research theories. There is ample evidence that women in leadership positions face insurmountable challenges in a variety of workplaces.

Female leaders are unlikely to have a mentor or role model to look up to or rely on for guidance, motivation, and/or inspiration in male-dominated sports organisations. Several studies have been conducted to investigate men's roles in preventing gender equality in sports leadership. Several researchers, for example (Shaw, 2006; Radtke, 2006; Sibson, 2010), discovered that some male board members actively discouraged females from retaining or gaining seats at the assembly room table. This occurred when women were given fewer opportunities to develop and contribute than men, were excluded from male networks, or faced sexual harassment and/or intimidation.

Other research has found that males can exert control over panels by structuring selection and recruitment procedures in such a way that the man-dominated culture on sport boards is

maintained (Hall et al., 1989; Claringbould and Knoppers, 2007; Hovden, 2000). This happened when male board members nominated'suitable' women to reinvent themselves. Hovden discovered that selection discourses powerfully reflected man-centered images of corporate management skills in his research on leadership elections in Norwegian sports organisations. The term "heavyweight" was used to describe preferred management skills. Furthermore, he claimed that, despite being associated with powerful, masculine, and heroic traits, these abilities were perceived as gender neutral. The common method of finding potential board members through colleagues' and friends' networks recreated the current gender structure (Hovden, 2000).

Claringbould & Knoppers (2008) advocated for males to play an important role in the "undoing" of gender meaning in tasks or behaviour, and they surveyed how members of national boards of sport organisations in the Netherlands engaged in "doing & undoing gender in sport governance." Furthermore, they stated that male directors did gender when describing man and woman qualities but undid gender when allocating stereotypical behaviours in an unconventional way, such as allocating females responsibility for high performance sport development and/or appointing them as chairpersons. Scholars emphasised that because of their ability to affect change, influential men can become change agents. Their approach shifts the focus away from how men can obstruct gender equality and toward how men can advance gender equality in sport governance.

2.8.5 The impact of female representation in sport associations and federations

International Working Group (IWG) were formed across the globe on sports and females to support the enforcement of the supporting policies and laws in order to stress on resistant international groups and governments to authorize their own total rights legislation (Mattila, 2010). The Declaration of Brighton on the Women and Sports that had one of principles, leadership within sports was designed along with a purpose of developing a sporting beliefs that values and supports the full participation of females in each aspect of sport (WSI, 2010).

However, there was clear evidence of improvement in the way females were getting involved in sports though the evolution rate in management was still said to be very slow. 1st Female athletes were said to have begun to establish themselves in the 21 Century (Wilde, 2006). Nevertheless, regardless of the recorded increase in the number of sports participation opportunities for girls and women since the mid-1970s, Coakley (2001) said that the ranking of coaching and sports administration on females" programmes still lagged behind. He further

stated that in the recent years, the recorded increase of women participation in sports had mainly been in non-management and organization duties.

Literature review indicated that there was no part of the world which recorded equal participation of males and females in sports management. The international sports bodies like the International Paralympics Committee and the International Olympics Committee which are present in most nations of the world reported low female representation in sports in their member states (Mattila, 2010). In the United Kingdom it was reported that females were underrepresented, in the United States the reports indicated low female representation in sport associations and federations and management, in Africa particularly Tanzania, Nigeria and Botswana, females were reported to be underrepresented in sports management.

Levels at which females were represented in sports management and organisation had different impacts on sports in general. According to MSY (2012), females" involved in sports management and organisation had a direct effect on the rate at which women and girls got involved in sports. One of the effects was that development of sports in the country lagged behind. Coakley (2001) expressed that if more women were involved in management and organisation of sports, there were two signals that were transmitted to the community. Firstly, it would change the people"s perception of sports. He said that seeing females in the management and organization of sports would enable people to describe sports involvement and sports in general as vital elements in their everyday lives and in their future. Secondly, if females were not seen in the management and organisation of sports programmes it would be concluded that females' contributions and abilities within sports are less appreciated than that of males. He then concluded that unless women were seen in the management and organisation of sports, the value of sports would hardly be recognized.

According to Cox (2006), low involvement levels of women in sports disadvantaged leadership capabilities in sports together with other sectors. He described that involvement in sports and sports management expanded in a person lots of skills that could not simply be attained in other areas. Skills such as dedication, team building and application were easily learned in sports and could be used more to the daily accomplishments. Briefly, involvement in sports taught one to be a leader. It had further been witnessed that small numbers of women in sports leadership and institution slow down the process of progress and development of sports.

Mwaanga and Banda (2014) in their study among individuals living with AIDS and HIV in Lusaka attached womanly leadership to the great occasions for more information for women in societies. Their results were that the participation of individuals, females inclusive in sports, societies exposed them to educational messages that enabled the reaching of the MDGs. In the similar order, Lindsey and Banda (2010) stated that sports performed an significant role in put up to the 4 pillars of successful HIV and AIDS programs that are skills of life, access to service, knowledge, provision of supportive and safe environment. Possessing more females in sports management inspires more females in sports, exposing more women to the mentioned lifesaving programs. Canonized as an integrative strength that went further than cultural and racial differences and communicative disputes that may be came across due to language difficulties, sport delivers a unique community collaboration powers.

Spreading information among individuals is more effective such as the battle against social iniquities and diseases was very effective and keep up. More participation of females and girls in sports leadership and organization unlocked may doors for women to social development. Possessing small number of females in management take the women and the community away of the aforementioned opportunities (Darnell, 2007).

A research conducted by UNESCO (2011), on gender equality revealed that female leaders demonstrated various leadership styles, that provided girls' role models and illustrated the inclusiveness of gender within institutions. It further indicated that improved access to gender-related awareness and enabling experiences might speed up the procedure of change on the way to countless gender equality in the sports management. Impact of female representation in management highlights mainly three distinct achievements. In the first place, it was a demonstration of good leadership styles and secondly, the females in leadership provided the role models for young girls and women to emulate. Finally, inclusion of females in management accelerated the process of change towards greater gender equality. Having few numbers of women in leadership compromised leadership styles exhibited in institutions, restricted the number of role models and more hampered is the pace for change towards gender equality.

2.8.6 Suggest what can be done to improve gender equality in management of sport associations and federations

Despite gender stereotypes that women are incapable of leadership, there is ample evidence that women can lead (Hoyt, 2010). Women leaders bring a distinct perspective to leadership (Vanderbroeck, 2010), which is why more women should be appointed to leadership positions in various organisations. Women have excellent credentials and are highly educated, but they are underrepresented in positions of leadership, implying that women are constantly seeking equitable representation in governance. Only by changing systemic and organisational structures can equality be achieved. According to Northouse (2010), increasing the proportion of women in executive and other positions of leadership can increase appreciation for diverse talents while also enriching the organisation. In order to accommodate women, organisations are also encouraged to implement flexible work hours and family-friendly reforms such as maternity leave (Bruening & Dixon, 2008).

Women can use social capital and network development to mentor others and advance in their careers and positions of leadership (Doherty and Manfredi, 2010). As previously stated, networks are critical for promoting personal development and gaining group support, as evidenced by men's use of "old man's networks" to advance in the workplace and sports. According to Inglis et al. (2000), social self-help groups are important for women in training and sports management. To address challenges in sport, participants in this study were provided with social support groups from family, peers, mentors, women's leagues, and, in some cases, administration. Self-improvement strategies like continuing education, learning new skills, and taking on roles that have an impact on women's programmes have helped them stay competitive as leaders.

The authors advocated for systemic changes in hiring practises as well as the creation of safe work environments for women in order to ensure fair competition. While some women have risen to the top of their organisations, others have struggled to break through the glass ceiling, forcing women to transition from formal employment to entrepreneurship as an alternative to reaching executive CEO positions, which are thought to be impossible to attain. achieve in male-dominated organisations (Branson, 2007). Private-sector women can implement family-friendly policies that allow them to balance their roles as a mother, wife, and career woman. According to

one study, the number of female teachers increased by half after the Massachusetts Institute of Technology implemented family-friendly policies. Dominicici and colleagues, 2009 Changing systems and policies, increasing the number of women on boards of directors, and even joining private companies are some general solutions to workplace barriers. Programs aimed at both individuals and institutions could be developed to assist women in making long-term contributions to organisational leadership.

2.8.6.1 Female executive development

Female executive development is a continuous and long-term process that ensures women's greater involvement and active participation in organisational management. While men consider leadership to be in their blood, cultural beliefs and consistent organisational structures shape women's self-perception and expose them as leadership interlopers. As a result, the under-representation of women in positions of leadership has become a problem not only for international organisations, but also for educators and feminists interested in developing strategies to develop women leaders. In order to achieve the necessary reforms, these strategies include education, law and regulation enforcement, and attitude changes.

2.8.6.2 Education

According to Tamale (2000), capacity development should be used to develop women leaders by providing them with access to education, equipping them with the necessary skills for new roles, and instilling confidence in them. edifice. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of the United Nations (UN) identify access to education as a means of empowering women and increasing their chances of competing fairly with men. Despite the fact that some studies have discovered that education does not guarantee women's entry into managerial positions (Norman, 2010; Pfister & Radtke, 2006), the majority of research studies (Branson, 2007; Julien et al., 2008; McAllister, 2006) attest to the importance of management training and that quality training guarantees women's entry into management positions. As a result, women are encouraged to invest in human capital, which includes education (Northouse, 2010).

By funding leader training programmes around the world, the IOC's women's sports agenda focuses on developing female leaders and increasing their participation in NOC leadership. These programmes teach women the skills they need to be confident on social media. Participants in the 2004 IOC/ISLR research proposed leadership training on women's and sports

issues, knowledge acquisition about equality and women's projects, sports management and administration courses, confidence-building programmes, and mentoring to assist NOC leaders in improving their performance (Henry et al., 2004). These responses indicate that women leaders believe they are not adequately prepared to participate fully in the decision-making processes of their organisations. This frequently leads to dissatisfaction and resignation from sports management positions (Pfister & Radtke, 2006).

2.8.6.3 Legislation and the rule of law

Women's empowerment and advancement as leaders are aided by equal rights legislation. The history of women in positions of power shows the importance of enforcing existing laws to achieve gender equality. Many countries around the world expanded employment and educational opportunities for women as a result of the EOA of the 1960s. As a result of affirmative action policies, women now have more social, economic, and political rights. In the United States, for example, Title IX of 1972 improved access for underserved populations to education, employment, higher wages, political seats, and sports participation. Title IX requires gender equality in all federally funded educational programmes for both boys and girls (Triolas, 2008).

Even though the Title IX merger of men's and women's sports resulted in a small proportion of women in administrative positions, this and other laws have resulted in more success than failure. Affirmative Action, for example, began in the United States and has since been adopted by the majority of countries, including those in Africa, resulting in greater influence for women in the management of institutions, particularly politics. However, research has shown that legislation alone does not guarantee equal opportunities for women (Abdela, 2000), because personal, social, organisational, and cultural environmental factors all influence the effectiveness of legal laws (Pheko, 2009). Furthermore, improved political consideration on gender equality in sport at the international level should be understood in the context of history, as there is already a global conference on females and sport prepared in London by the Central Council of Physical Recreation (4-6 December 1978) the Charter of Women's Rights in Sports proposed by the Italian Sport for All organization approves.

In addition, from May 5-8, 1994, a conference on females and sport was held in Brighton, UK. The Beijing Platform for Action, adopted at the United Nations Fourth World Conference on

Women in 1995, as well as the UNESCO MINEPS conferences in 2004 and 2013, prepared by the British Sports Council and supported by the International Olympic Committee, made important policy recommendations on women and gender equality in sport. Several initiatives were launched by member states, the sports movement, the Europe Council, and the European Parliament of the EU (2003, 2007), all of which called for far greater achievements and measures (European Union,2013)

Furthermore, gender equality in sport is primarily the responsibility of international and local stakeholders, and local efforts should be made to address the role of women empowerment in sports governing bodies, many of which are club access, improved access to coaching courses, changing stereotypes, and safety and security arrangements (Burton, 2015). This, however, should not be limited to private local national initiatives; a long-term approach to the entire sport sector as part of a policy and/or legal framework is also required (Burton, 2015).

Another way to strengthen gender equality in sport is to incorporate gender equality into relevant policy areas. Gender mainstreaming is the inclusion of a gender perspective at all stages of policy development and implementation. Help institutional and government employees integrate a gender perspective into their work, including sports (Burton et al., 2011). A broader range of targeted measures, such as public discussions, training, mentoring programmes, and proactive measures to encourage young women to continue playing sport, would help achieve gender equality and empower women to make decisions in sport. If efforts were made to raise public awareness and combat prescriptive gender roles, voluntary and legislative action could have a greater impact. Eliminating gender stereotypes is critical to breaking down the barriers that keep females from proceeding to positions of leadership in sports (Burton et al., 2011).

2.8.6.4 Change in attitude

Women are perceived to be different, and these distorted perceptions build up over time as a result of cultural and social interactions. Leadership behaviour, attitudes, and conceptualizations are all influenced by culture. While most organisations recognise the importance of gender-friendly policies, changing people's attitudes has proven difficult, and women continue to be viewed as inferior to men. Female leadership development is a strategy for empowering women and preparing them to take on leadership roles. Scientists believe that individual-level interventions are an effective way of teaching people how to deal with difficulties (Budworth and

Mann, 2010). According to Pheko, changing people's attitudes, considering cultural diversity, and accepting women as equals are all good ideas (2009). Chabaya et al. (2009) advocate for individual rehabilitation and gender equality as a means of addressing cultural stereotypes that prevent women from pursuing leadership positions.

Pheko (2009) suggested using a competency model, that recommends beginning education early, before students internalise gender stereotypes and develop gender role identities. Mennesson (2009) recommended a reverse gender socialisation in which males and females could engage in activities that did not correspond to their sexual identity because opposite gender dispositions emerge in childhood and gender identities emerge at various stages of life. Mennesson also used symbolic and structuralist concepts to demonstrate the various ways in which gender identity is constructed in the study of men in dance. Mennesson (2009) argued that gender roles or identities are fluid, as evidenced by some study participants who were socialized to dance later in life and identified as "woman-man." Using Mennesson's (2009) theory, this might be possible to instill in both women and girls the belief that management is not solely a male - dominated field, that could be an essential milestone toward increasing the proportion of woman leaders.

Women in management are increasingly becoming the focus of research. This is an acknowledgement of the critical roles and unique skills that women possess and can bring to organisations. Despite the challenges posed by the policy-practice gap, many international forums continue to address societal inequalities. Governments all over the world are enacting laws and policies, such as affirmative action policies, that offer hope for nurturing and empowering female leaders in order to eliminate all forms of discrimination and support women's leadership positions at all levels, from grassroots to national and international.

Whereas male candidates for executive boards are generally at the forefront, more effort is still needed to force women's recruitment to decision-making positions at the local and international levels. Members of sports governing bodies recognise the importance of having a diverse representation on executive boards and committees, which is one of the reasons for more gender balance in the boardroom. This realisation will spur increased efforts to advance female candidates to positions of decision-making authority (Burton at al, 2011).

2.9 Empirical review

This section presents perspectives on the previous literature on gender equality conducted in various parts of the world. In their research, Sartore and Cunningham (2007) stated that the level at which females are involved in sports management has become a concern for all stakeholders worldwide and esearch revealed that in sports organisations, females were under-represented and this was the scenario for all countries in the world. They concluded that due to under representation of women, International organisations and movements supporting female involvement in sports activities are being formed to ensure more women and girls in sport participation.

In the research of Bailey et al. (2005) stated that, females in leadership were role models to girls in sports participation. They stood to motivate and inspire the lives of young girls as they pursued their sports professional careers. Lack of females in sports meant lack of role models for young women and girls in sports. This disrupted the development of self-efficacy and performance motivation in girls and young women. Furthermore, they continued state that female stars in sports meant more role models for girl children and later would lead to enhanced performance among girls who are the future leaders.

In the research of Matafwali (2010) done in Botswana, she linked woman participation to attainment of the Millenium Development Goals. She stated that small rate of reaching the MDGs was one among of the effects of small woman representation in sports institution and leadership. In her dissertation titled, the Experiences and Meaning of Sports in the Lives of Female Netball Players in Botswana, she attached the improvement of sports to woman participation. She recognized the significant role played by women throughout sports to acheive Millennium Development Goals.

In the study conducted by Massao in Tanzania where he looked at the sporting experiences on women revealed that most African women were marginalized in terms of sports participation regardless of sports development programmes taking place in that country. Meanwhile, safety matters, poor recreation and sports facilities, heavy household demands, deficiency of accessible means of transportation, poverty and few chances for physical learning and skills improvement were also said to be some of the factors that affect females' involvement in sports management and physical activities.

To delve deeper into this phenomenon, it is necessary to consider the context in which sports leadership emerges. Soucie (1994) discovered that sports administrators frequently have both executive and managerial responsibilities. In their study on the effectiveness of managers in intercollegiate athletics, Burton and Peachy (2009) assert that the interuniversity context is complex. While followers prefer transformative leadership, they also recognise that many transactional skills, such as coordination and planning, are essential for leaders. According to this explanation, both types of leadership may be equally important in sports organisations. Furthermore, it has been proposed that transactional leadership is consistent with management practises, whereas transformational leadership is representative of 21st-century leadership (Rost, 1993). As a result, a preliminary study (Quarterman, 1998) confirmed that sports organisations necessitate both management and leadership abilities. The majority of current thinking in organisational leadership research supports this viewpoint, which holds that transactional / transformational or management / leadership are distinct but complementary concepts.

2.10 Conceptual framework

The conceptual model characterizes the researcher's combination of literature to explain the fact. It represents the actions involved in the course of the research paper given his earlier knowledge of other researchers' opinions and her interpretations on the subject of study. Mostly, the conceptual framework considered as the researcher's awareness on how the specific variables in her research connect with one to another. Therefore, it categorizes the variables needed in the study investigation. It was the researcher's plan to carry out the investigation. The conceptual framework arranges the stage for the demonstration of the specific research question which drives the analysis being reported grounded on the statement of problem. The statement of problem presents the situation and the matters that pressed the researcher to achieve the study (McGaghie et al, 2001). For purposes of this research the conceptual framework will illustrate how the Gender equality as independent variable related to dependent variable the management of sport organizations and the intervening variable (See the Figure 1). The variables which originate from the specific objectives to be tested are obviously articulated in the below conceptual framework.

| Promotion of Gender Equality in associations and federations | Women involved in management of associations and federations |

• Increase respect of women's rights in the management of associations and federations • Increase of opportunities in the management of associations and federations	1. Women having voices in leadership of associations and federations 2. Motivation of other women to participate in leadership and management 3. Increase confidence and status of women in leadership and management
Community education/ seminars	
• Awareness campaigns • Women's committee at Local government levels	

Figure 1: Conceptual framework
Source: Researcher completion, 2020

Figure 1 above shows that when gender equality is promoted through awareness campaigns, women's committee at Local government levels, increasing respect of women's rights and opportunities in the management of sport organizations leads to women having voices, motivation of other women and increase confidence and status of women in leadership and management of associations and federations.

2.11 Conclusion of chapter

In the second chapter, the literature review provides scientific and empirical evidence of the existing literature, previous and previous studies on gender equality in the management of sport associations and federations. It also reviews the key concept, previous studies at the global, regional and national levels. There is also a theoretical review that is used for the study. In addition, the conceptual framework is presented, which provides the linkage of the study variables.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The present chapter focused on the methods employed to collect and analyze data pertinent to the research paper. It presents the study design, the study setting and the population as well as the sampling strategies and the sample size. It also focuses on the data collection techniques and data analysis techniques. Finally, the chapter explores the position of the researcher, the validity and reliability as well as ethical issues before ending with a conclusion.

3.2 Research Design

The research design is a set of methodology that researcher has selected for the observed part of the study (Backka bulindi, 2004).

This study made using of a descriptive research design. The researcher used the both qualitative and quantitative approaches, this research design is appropriate to this research because this design is finest used in research that are fixed to reveal the status quo of a certain situation.

The qualitative approach concentrates on things in their natural environments, intending to make sense of or understand phenomena in accordance with the meanings that people attribute to them, and was used in this study to clarify the findings and provide meaning to figures. Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p. 3) on other hand quantitative approach is often described such as deductive in nature, in the sense that implications from tests of numerical findings lead to over-all conclusions of study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Quantitative approach used in this study to present findings in forms of figures.

3.3 Study setting

The study was conducted within Kigali, Rwanda and in particular in district of Gasabo, that has the higher number of associations and Federation within Kigali, where many of them are located at national stadium premises, also the chosen association and Federations were easily accessed and collecting data. Moreover, AKWOS, FERWACY and FARWAFA were purposively chosen for this study. According to (Bryman, 2012) Purposive sampling is non probability sampling method in which respondents are chosen at random. Purposive sampling aims to sample respondents in a strategic manner so that all sampled are relevant to the research questions being posed.

3.4 Research Population

The research population can be defined as the complete group of individuals that the researcher desired to investigate (Paige (2001). It consists of 49 respondents from organization of women in sport (AKWOS) and 2 federations (61 respondents from FERWACY and 65 respondents from FERWAFA). The population is 175 respondents in total.

3.5 Sampling technique and sample size

3.5.1 Sampling technique

The researcher employed Purposive sampling technique (also known as judgment, subjective or selective sampling). Purposive sampling is the sampling method in which the researcher relies on her or his own judgment when selecting members of population to play a part in the study (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012), the sample size from the various respondent categories which provides a factual reflection of the study findings and unbiased representative of the respondent opinions.

3.5.2 Sample size

According to Bryman (2012), the sample is that part of the population that is selected for the study. It is a subset of the population.The researcher used sample size formula of Yemane Taro (1967) which is n= $\frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$ where **n** represents **sample size**, **N** represents **population, e** represents **sampling error** (0.1). Therefore sample size equals $\frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} = \frac{175}{1+1175(0.1)^2} =$

$\frac{175}{1+175(0.1)(0.1)} = \frac{175}{1+175(0.01)} = \frac{175}{1+1.75} = \frac{175}{2.75} = 64$

3.6 Data collection techniques

3.6.1 Interview guide

The interview is the technique of collect primary data that engage presentation of unwritten motivations and answer in terms of unwritten responses (Kothari, 2004). This method tries to gain the info from the respondents who are predictable to have more necessary data and have limited time to fulfill the questionnaire (Veal, 2011). Through interview, the researcher gathered primary data from respondents especially those who had limited time to answer questionnaire.

3.6.2 Questionnaires

According to Richard and Margaret (1990), the questionnaire is a tool for primary data gathering containing a series of questions, which sent out by mail expecting that the addressee completes it and returned it. By employing the personal technique, the researcher hands out structured questionnaires which were contained structured questions and were made by close and open ended questions and divided into two sections, thus respondents be able to fulfill them. Respondents were asked to return all questionnaires within one week. The questionnaire was adjusted to fit the purpose of this research and it was administered to the respondents in order to provide their opinions on this dissertation.

3.6.3 Documentation review

Paige (2001) explained that this data collection method is based on regarding books, and other documents relevant to the study, it is a documentation system that formally knowledge the source one consults. It offers reader to retrace the steps as a research and writer of the research work. These documents include any written materials that contain information about the phenomenon researcher wish to study. The documents were used in this study, especial in chapter two as secondary data.

3.7 Data collection procedure

This research used two procedures to gather information/data from participants that ware questionnaire and interview guide. Before conducting interviews with the participants, structured questions were formulated in line with the objectives that the study plans to achieve. Interview was led by the researcher to senior management and other staff who had a limited time to answer the questionnaires. The questionnaire contained structured and non-structured questions and it was administered to the respondents where they filled it and return it back to the researcher for data processing and analysis purposes.

3.8 Data analysis methods

Data analysis can be defined as a vital examination of the gathered and grouped data for revising the features of the object under research and for the revealing the pattern of connection among the variables linking to it (Krishna, 2002). The main reason of analyzing the data is to sum up enormous mass of info to more comprehensible and significant.

For the purpose of this study, the data analysis and interpretation based on the respondents' opinions which gotten through the questionnaire and interview guide distributed to the participants where research used quantitative method and qualitative method (the deductive approach involves analyzing qualitative data) of data analysis through MICROSOFT EXCEL, include tables, figures, frequency and percentages.

3.9 Position of the researcher

In this section, the researcher has to approve her connection with the study. For the purpose this study, it is important to mention that the researcher is female and she is strongly interesting in children an women's related issues. Furthermore, the research works in a department which deals with gender development, this clarifies the researcher's choice of the topic. Additionally, the researcher had no connection with the chosen association and federations, therefore, any feasible bias was avoided before, during and after data collection and analysis procedure.

3.10 Reliability and Validity

3.10.1 Reliability

Reliability is the issue of whether a certain technique employed repeatedly to several objects would produce the same outcomes each period (Veal, 2011).

For purposes of this study, the pilot survey was conducted in order to evaluate the reliability of instruments and reliability of the data that collected. Pretesting was conducted on 20 participants where the researcher randomly selected participants from AKWOS, FERWACY and FERWAFA to take part in the pilot survey.

3.10.2 Validity

According to Kothari (2004), the validity states the rank to which a research exactly reflects or evaluates the specific idea that researcher is trying to appraise. Before give out questionnaire, three research experts were chosen to assess items validity of the questionnaire against objectives of the research.

3.11 Ethical consideration

During the research, the following ethics were considered and observed; having a research supervisor, use data collected for academic purposes only, , getting a research permit from University of Rwanda/ College of Arts and Social Sciences as well as getting permit to get information from responsible authorities.

3.12 Conclusion of the chapter

This chapter looked over the approaches used to collect and analyze data appropriate to the study. It presented the study design, the study setting and the population of the study as well as the sampling techniques and the sample size. It also highlights the data collection techniques and data analysis procedures. Lastly, the chapter look at the position of the researcher, the validity and reliability as well as ethical issues before ending with a conclusion.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter the strives to present, analyze and interpret the findings of the study in order to answer the research questions. To do so, it will first present the profile of the respondents. Then, the findings will be detailed according to the objectives of the study and the themes that emerged by relating them to the research questions and the literature in the second chapter.

4.2 Interpretation, Analysis and Discussion of the Data

The interpretations, analysis and discussion were based on the respondents' opinions about Gender Equality and the management of sport organizations during this research.

4.2.1 Profile of respondents

4.2.1.1 Sex of respondents

Respondents were asked to indicate their sex to ensure that the results obtained reflected the opinions of both sex. Table 4.1 presents the results.

Table 4.1: Sex of respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	36	56.25
Female	28	43.75
Total	64	100

Source: Field research, 8/2021

The table 4.1 indicates that in AKWOS, FERWACY and FERWAFA, the number of male represents 35 (56.25%) of all respondents and female represents 28 (43.75%) of the respondents. Through the analysis in this research study indicated that there is improvement in the number of female in sport organizations and the reason here as noted by the researcher is due to that Government of Rwanda has a policy in providing equal opportunities for both males and females.

4.2.1.2 Marital status of respondents

The respondents were asked to indicate their marital status in order to identify if all categories are involved in this dissertation.

Table 4.2: Marital status of respondents

	Frequency	Percentage
Married	40	62.5
Single	24	37.5
Total	64	100

Source: Field research, 8/2021

The table 4.2 indicates the results as follow: The married respondents with a frequency 40 (62.5 %) and single with a frequency of 24 (37.5%) of the all respondents. the analysis in this research showed that there are a big number of married in AKWOS, FERWACY and FERWAFA, as it was indicated in the table above; This helped the researcher to have the accurate data because married people have high capability of thinking more than the single ones.

4.2.1.3 Age of respondents

The respondents were asked to indicate their age bracket and this was important for the study in order to know if the respondents are mature and aware of Gender equality in sports. The results were presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Age of respondents

	Frequency	Percentage
31-35 years	21	32.81
36-40 years	19	29.69
26-30 years	15	23..44
Above 40 years	9	14.06
Total	64	100

Source: Field research, 8/2021

Table (4.3) shows that 32.81% of the respondents' ages are between 31-35 years, 29.69% of the ages are between 36-40 years, 23.44% of the respondents' ages are between 26-30 years and 14.06% of ages are above 40, this indicates that the respondents from different ages but the most

dominant age of respondents is the ages between 31-35 years, Therefore, the respondents are mature and aware of gender equality in sport based on the responses given out during data collection.

4.2.1.4 Academic Qualification of Respondents

The educational level was important, since it allowed the respondents to respond adequately the questions to Gender equality and management of sport organization. The results are presented in the table below.

Table 4.4: Academic Qualification

	Frequency	Percentage
University	64	100
Total	64	100

Source: Field research, 8/2021

Table 4.4 shows that all respondents are holding university qualifications, this indicates that the respondents are highly qualified. Furthermore, they have enough skills to perform their responsibilities which helped the researcher to get authentic information related to the study.

4.2.2 Analysis and discussions of data finding related to the study objectives

In this part, the researcher analyses and discusses the data findings especially the four objectives entitled to appraise the representation of females in AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY, to assess the impact of female representation in sport associations and federations in Rwanda, to examine barriers that affect gender equality process in the management of AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY, to offer suggestions related to improve gender equality in management of sport associations and federations.

4.2.2.1 The main challenges that affect gender equality processes in the sport organizations of Rwanda

Concerning to the main challenges that affect gender equality processes in the sport organizations of Rwanda. The results are presented in the table 4.7 below

Table 4.5: The main challenges that affect gender equality processes in the sport organizations of Rwanda

	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of skills in sport and sport related activities	17	26.56
Lack of self-confidence and experience	15	23.44
Lack of financial and educational support	11	17.19
Culture	10	15.62
Sexual harassment and poor implementation of gender policies	9	14.06
Lack of trust towards women in sport	2	3.13
Total	64	100

Source: Field research, 8/2021

The findings depicts that the main challenges that affect gender equality processes in the sport organizations of Rwanda are Lack of skills in sport and sport related activities with a frequency 17 (26.56%) of the respondents, Lack of self-confidence and experience with a frequency 15 (23.44%) of the respondents, Lack of financial and educational support with a frequency 11 (17.19%) of the respondents, Culture with a frequency 10 (15.62%) of the respondents, Sexual harassment and poor implementation of gender policies with a frequency 9 (14.06%) of the respondents and Lack of trust towards women in sport with a frequency 2 (3.13%) of the respondents. Due to the result indicated in the table clarifies that there are many challenges that affect gender equality processes in the sport organizations of Rwanda but the main challenge is as proved by the above findings. Lack of skills in sport and sport related activities with a frequency 17 (26.56%) of the respondents.

Limited trust towards women in sport, the findings are consistent with the work of Massao (2001), who stated that most societies have taken male supremacy for granted, resulting in male dominance in both the private and public spheres of our society. Even in the modern era, this has an impact on how social structures are organized. Sport, in particular, has been thought to be exclusively for men and boys. Because it contradicts social norms to assume a leadership role among men, this ideology has implications for women's participation in organizations and sports management. They also do not feel compelled to organize an activity that is known to be exclusively for men. The inadequate support of young girls is also not supported by their parents,

and the community of leadership in sport as a sport for women was considered less valuable, including Matafwali (2010) who says: "In the past, the participation of women in sport is discouraging due to the misconception that women are weaker than men and that sport would harm women's health, particularly reproductive health". Discouragement from such a level has persisted, except that levels go down due to community education.

Lack of financial and educational support; the results are consistent with the work of Lapchick et al. (2013), said that some females have reported a shortage of management development opportunities, supporters, and biased treatment restricted their improvement to high-ranking management positions comparative to their male colleagues (Lapchick et al., 2013).

Lack of skills in sport and sport related activities, the findings are compatible with the work of Matafwali (2010) said that in Tanzania a study conducted by Massao where he looked at the sporting experiences on women revealed that most African women were marginalized in terms of sports participation regardless of sports development programmes taking place in that country. Meanwhile, safety matters, poor recreation and sports facilities, heavy household demands, deficiency of accessible means of transportation, poverty and few chances for physical learning and skills improvement were also said to be some of the factors that affect females' involvement in sports management and physical activities.

Culture, the results are compatible with the work of Mazrui in Baker and Mangan (1987) saying that sport was linked to both indigenous and imported culture. The traditions and values of this society influenced the culture, values and attitudes towards sport.

In my opinion, the results mainly indicated that low self-esteem in girls and women was one of the factors identified to deter more women and girls from participating in sport associations and federations and management. However, some results had also shown that the lack of technical knowledge in various sports disciplines among women has led to women being underrepresented in sports management, mixing with men is real according to traditional local culture.

4.2.2.2 The impact of women's presence in the management of sport associations and federations

Concerning to the impact of women's presence in the management of sport associations and federations. The table below clarifying the results.

Table 4.6: The impact of women's presence in the management of sport associations and federations

	Frequency	Percentage
Positively impact the society	23	35.94
Impact on other women in community	15	23.44
Good management and effective use of resources	10	15.62
Development of the sport organization	7	10.94
Honesty and integrity	6	9.37
Impact on women themselves	3	4.69
Total	64	100

Source: Field research, 8/2021

From the evidence shown in the table above shows the impact of women's presence in the management of sport associations and federations as follow: Positively impact the society with a frequency 23 (35.94%) of the respondents, Impact on other women in community with a frequency 15 (23.44%) of the respondents, Good management and effective use of resources with a frequency 10 (15.62%) of the respondents, Development of the sport organization with a frequency 7 (10.94%) of the respondents, Honesty and integrity with a frequency 6 (9.37%) of the respondents and Impact on women themselves with a frequency 3 (4.69%) of the respondents. Due to the result indicated in the table clarifies that there are many impacts of women's presence in the management of sport associations and federations but the main impact is that society is positively influenced with 35.94% of the respondents as proved by the above findings. The findings are compatible with the work of Coakley (2001) expressed that if more women were involved in management and organisation of sports, there were two signals that were transmitted to the community.

it would change the people's perception of sports. He said that seeing females in the management and organisation of sports would enable people to define sports and sports participation as important elements in their lives and in their future. In additional, findings are compatible with the work of Bailey et al. (2005) said that, females in leadership were role models to girls in sports participation. They stood to motivate and inspire the lives of young girls as they pursued their sports professional careers. Lack of females in sports meant lack of role models for girls

and young women in sports. This disrupted the development of self-efficacy and performance motivation in girls and young women. More involvement of women and girls in sports management and organisation opened more doors for females to social civilization. Having few females in leadership deprives the females and the society to different opportunities (Mwaanga and Banda, 2014).

On my point of view, high levels of female participation in sports in their early years of life would influence increased numbers of female involvement in sports leadership. It was said that unless there was an increase in the number of girls and women participating in sports, leadership in sports would always be a challenge among females. When females were lowly represented in sports management and organization, it was difficult to open up routes through which to acquire new social affiliations which traditionally were dominated by males. This further hindered women and girls from operating openly and equally in community life also girls and women's participation at all levels could challenge and change social norms about their roles and capabilities; a thing which would not be achieved with few females in leadership.

4.2.2.3 The actual share of women in the management of sport organization

This question related to second objective and the actual share of women in the management of sport organization/ Leadership is present in the table.

Table 4.7: The actual share of women in the management of sport organization

	Frequency	Percentage
Between 1 and 30%	47	73.44
Between 31 and 50%	14	21.88
Between 51 and 100%	3	4.68
Total	64	100

Source: Field research, 8/2021

Respondents mentioned that actual share of women in the management of sport organization/ Leadership as follow: 47 (73.44%) of respondents agreed that the share is between 1 and 30%, while 14 (21.88%) supported that the share is between 31 and 50% and finally, only 3 respondents with 4.68% said that it is between 51 and 100%. This indicate that share of women in the management of sport organization is still low level as supported by the majority of

respondents. The findings are compatible with the work of Sartore and Cunningham (2007) who found out that in sport associations and federations, females were under-represented and this was the scenario for all countries in the world, also Mattila (2010) said that as at 2006, female membership on sports boards and committees in the UK was at 26 per cent only. At international level, in National Olympic Committees, International Federations and National Federations as at 2009, the majority had reached only 10 per cent female representation in decision making positions. Furthermore, they are compatible with the work of Matafwali (2010), lack of role models in sports had been a hindrance to female participation in sport associations and federations and management.

On my point of view, factors like physique, social attributes, role models, media coverage, belief and finance as some of the factors affecting females' participation in sports and Females were still viewed as a fairer and weaker sex such that some sports were considered to be too dangerous for them which is not true and that why females' participation in sport increase so faster.

4.2.2.4. To improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda

Concerning to improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda. The results are presented in the table below

Table 4.8: To improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda

	Frequency	**Percentage**
Awareness campaigns on gender related issues	19	29.69
Put emphasize on implementation of gender policies	15	23.44
Introduction of capacity building programs to train women on sport related activities	14	21.88
Increase number of women in decision making positions	11	17.19
Equal share of fund/grants from sponsors	5	7.81
Total	64	100

Source: Field research, 8/2021

From the evidence shown in the table above shows what to be done to improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda as follow: Awareness campaigns on gender related issues with a frequency 19 (29.69%) of the respondents, Put emphasize on implementation of gender policies with a frequency 15 (23.44%) of the respondents, Introduction

of capacity building programs to train women on sport related activities with a frequency 14 (21.88%) of the respondents, Increase number of women in decision making positions with a frequency 11 (17.19%) and Equal share of fund/grants from sponsors with a frequency 5 (7.81%) of the respondents. Due to the result indicated in the table clarifies what to be done to improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda as proved by the above findings.

Equal share of fund/grants from sponsors, the findings are compatible with the work of Leberman & Shaw (2012) said that relationship structure, self-awareness, stakeholder managing, and sense of decision making were crucial to success in the industry of sports. Additional, the industry of sports mostly pays females less than males perform identical work (Leberman & Shaw,2012).

Introducing capacity development programs to train women in sport-related activities, the results are consistent with the work of Fink (2016): It is crucial that women are often trained to represent women locally and internationally for improve boards and committees. Mentoring programs should be established, either non-formally or through a more formal educational approach leading to qualifications (Fink, 2016).

Increase in the proportion of women in decision-making positions, the findings are consistent with Burton et al., 2011 decision-making positions, particularly at the national and international levels. Members of sports associations must understand the importance of diverse representation on boards and committees in order to achieve greater gender balance in boardrooms. Such an understanding should prompt a greater effort in the search for candidates for positions of decision-making authority (Burton et al., 2011).

On my point of view, it seems that there are many ways to improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda, the government of Rwanda and its stakeholders have to conduct many awareness campaigns on gender related issues to increase community's understanding on gender equality and gender equality related issues

4.3 Conclusion of chapter

The fourth chapter endeavored to present, analyze, interpret and discuss the findings of the study as to answer the research questions. First, it presented the profile of the respondents. Then, the

findings were detailed according to the objectives of the study and the themes which emerged from the different questionnaire and interview. In the discussion section, the findings were related to the theoretical framework and the literature presented in second chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to examine gender equality in the management of sport associations and federations among selected sports associations and federations in Rwanda; AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY as a case study. This chapter strives to summarize the findings of the study and provide an overall conclusion and advance some recommendations that should be taken into consideration by different parties to better promote gender equality in the management of sport associations and federations among selected sports associations and federations in Rwanda. This chapter suggests also areas of future research together with the limitations and delimitations of the current study.

5.2 Summary of the major findings and discussion

From the 1st objective, in table 4.5, findings reveal that there are many challenges that affect gender equality processes in the sport organizations of Rwanda but the main challenge is Lack of skills in sport and sport related activities with 26.56% of the respondents as proved by the findings. In my opinion, the lack of self-esteem among girls and women girls was one of the reasons identified to dissuade more girls and women from participating within sport associations and federations and management than traditional local culture should not mix with that of men.

From the 2nd objective, survey findings reveal that the result indicated in the table 4.6 clarifies that there are many impacts of female representation in sport associations and federations in Rwanda but the main impact is that society is positively influenced with 35.94% of the respondents as proved by the findings. On my own view, women are the best role model of many people in the society in different aspects, once they are in managerial and decision making positions in sport associations and federations encourage many people to participate in sports and sport related activities.

Furthermore, in table 4.7, findings show that respondents approved that women are represented in their management of sport organizations but share of women in the management of sport organization is still low level as supported by the majority of respondents. According to Fink (2016), noted that there is an urgent need for education and mentoring for both men and women

who are already in decision-making positions at lower levels in order to prepare them for more demanding and managerial positions, and as mentioned by respondents, representation of women still active at a lower level, the Rwandan government and its stakeholders should focus on supporting women in leadership positions, particularly in sport associations and federations and associations.

From the 3rd objective, in table 4.8, findings reveal what can be done to improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda is Awareness campaigns on gender related issues with a frequency 19 (29.69%) as the confirmed by the majority of respondents. On my point of view, it seems that there are many ways to improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda, the government of Rwanda and its stakeholders have to conduct many awareness campaigns on gender related issues to increase community's understanding on gender equality and gender equality related issues

5.3 Conclusion

This study examined gender equality in management of sport associations and federations among selected sports associations and federations in Rwanda, then the objectives were as follow: To examine barriers that affect gender equality process in the management of AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY, to assess the impact of female representation in AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY, and to suggest what can be done to improve gender equality in management of sport associations and federations in Rwanda. Based on the population size of 175, the sample size of 64 was drawn to undertake the study. The data collection was obtained through questionnaires and interview guide administered to selected respondents. Data was analyzed using Microsoft excel. However, the interpretation and analysis were based on findings respondents in the chapter four and those findings were presented in form of tables in order to give them the meaning, From the findings mentioned in the chapter four, findings show that respondents approved that women are represented in their management of sport organizations but share of women in the management of sport associations and federations is still low level as supported by the majority of respondents, findings reveal that there are many impacts of female representation in sports o associations and federations in Rwanda but the main impact is that society is positively influenced with 35.94% of the respondents as proved by the findings also findings reveal that there are many challenges that affect gender equality processes in the sport

associations and federations of Rwanda but the main challenge is Lack of skills in sport and sport related activities with 26.56% of the respondents and lastly, findings reveal what can be done to improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda is awareness campaigns on gender related issues with a frequency 19 (29.69%) as the confirmed by the majority of respondents. By concluding, academically there are many studies done on gender equality but the researchers didn't stress on gender equality in management of sport associations and federations and this study highlighted the representation of females in AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY, the barriers that affect gender equality process in the management of AKWOS, FERWAFA and FERWACY, the impact of female representation in sports associations and federations in Rwanda and the suggestions related to improve gender equality in management of sports associations and federations which will help other researchers to explore more and give out solutions to gender equality in management of sport organization.

Also this study will contribute to the existing theories on gender equality especial in management of Rwanda sport associations and federations including barriers and challenges and it will provide assistance to current practice where it facilitates different institutions and organizations to face the challenges mentioned in chapter 4 in order to eradicate all sorts of gender discriminations and assist to increase the women participation in the decision making positions in sport organization in Rwanda.

5.4 Study's limitation and delimitations

5.4.1 Study limitation

Even if the investigator has ensured confidentiality, participants may not describe their colleagues' behavior and decisions precisely because they may fear negative consequences in response to negative feedback. The researcher did her best to encourage candid responses by assuring confidentiality.

It is possible that the participants did not comprehend the goals of the university research and, as a result, did not devote enough time or thought to their responses.

The interviews provided an opportunity for participants to share their professional experiences. However, no one can guarantee that each participant's responses are entirely truthful or unbiased.

The interview protocols were time consuming, which was problematic given the participants' hectic schedules in this study.

This study only looked at gender equality and sport associations and federations management, and the researcher recognizes that there are other factors that can influence the situation.

5.4.2 Delimitation of the study

The researcher has outlined the study on the issue of gender equality and the management of sport associations and federations and does not see it as another minority

The study is limited to equality of gender and the management of sport associations and federations in Rwanda and not of other professions.

The investigator limited the study to sports management and did not focus on management outside of professional sport.

5.5 Recommendations

This part includes the researcher's recommendations addressed to different categories in order to improve Gender Equality.

5.5.1 To the women

The women have to develop self confidence in all aspects especial in the sports and sport related activities

The women who already in management position of sport associations and federations such Fecilite RWEMARIKA, they have to motivate and inspire the lives of young girls as they pursued their sports professional careers

5.5.2 To the government

The Government of Rwanda should strengthen gender equality policies and their implementations The Government of Rwanda should increase the budget dedicated to gender equality improvement.

MIGEPROF, MINISPORT and GMO should Increase awareness campaigns on all issues related to gender equality trough sports games.

MINEDUC should emphasize and strengthening sport activities in all level of education

MINEDUC has to encourage and facilitate young women and girls to participate in sport activities at school level,

MINISPORT has to increase sport facilities including playgrounds, public room and youth centers across the country which will enable young women and girls to involve themselves in sports events,

MINALOC in collaboration with MINISPORT have to organize sport activities in sector and cell levels for avoiding the addicted alcohol to the young for being aware about sport skills which have a better future in different categories like; health, fitness and to change their life in economy.

5.5.3 To the development organizations

Sport institutions should work closely with MIGEPROF, MINISPORT and GMO in order to increase girls and women participation in sport especially sport management.

Sport organizations should organize the gender equality awareness campaigns through sport games and it will result to change of sport perception.

5.5.4 To the community

The way to reinforce gender equality in the community is to mainstream gender in the appropriate policy areas. Gender mainstreaming can be defined as the integration of a gender equality perspective in each stage of development and execution of a policy or programme in the community.

The community has to leave out all bad perception on women who participate in different sports and leave the ideology of that women are less competitive to men in terms of sport.

5.5 The areas for further researches

In the future, researchers can further work on the contribution of effective implementation of gender equality policies on the development of the country.

References

Allender, S., Cowburn, C. and Foster, C. (2006), *Understanding Participation in Sport and Physical Activity among Children and Adults*: A Review of Qualitative Studies. Health Education Research Theory and Practice Vol.21 :6, 826–835

Backka bulindi (2004), *research methodology*, London, UK, Routledge Press London

Bajdo, L. M., Ph.D. (2005). The effect of individual differences on stereotypes of male and female managers. *Doctoral Dissertation, Wayne State University*. (UMI No. AAT 3166771)

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Shatter the glass ceiling: Women may make better managers. *Human Resource Management*, *33*(4), 549-560.

Carli, L. L., & Eagly, A. H. (2001). Gender, hierarchy, and leadership: An introduction. *Journal of Social Issues, 57*(4), 629-636.

Claringbould I and Knoppers A (2008) Doing and undoing gender in sport governance. *Sex Roles* 58: 81–92

Coakley, J. (2001), Sports in Society: *Issues and Controversies*, 7 Edition. New York: McGraw Hill. Combo, D.L. and Tromp, D.L.A. (2006). Proposal and Thesis Writing: An Introduction. Nairobi: Paulines Publications Africa.

Coakley, J. (2001), *Sports in Society: Issues and Controversies, 7th Edition.* New York: McGraw

Cohen, P., & Huffman, M. (2007). Working for the woman? Female managers and the gender wage gap. American Sociological Review, 72(5), 681-704.

Cox, L., Colemn, L. and Rocker D. (2006), Understanding Participation in Sport: *What Determined Sports Participation Among 15-19-Year-Old Women?* England: Trust for the Study of Adolescent Sports.

Cox, L., Colemn, L. and Rocker D. (2006), *Understanding Participation in Sport: What Determined Sports Participation Among 15-19 Year Old Women?* England: Trust for the Study of Adolescent Sports.

Darnell, S.C. (2007), *Playing With Race: Right to Play and the Production of Whiteness in 'Development through Sport‴*.

Dollar, David and Roberta Gatti (1999). "Gender Inequality, Income, and Growth: Are Good Times Good for Women?". *Policy Research Report On Gender and Development Working Paper Series, No. 1.* Development Research Group/PREMN, The World Bank.

Dreher, G. (2008). Breaking the glass ceiling: *The effects of sex ratios and work-life programs on female leadership at the top*. Human Relations, 56(5), 541-562.

Eagly, A.H., & Carli, L.L. (2007). Women and the labyrinth of leadership. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(9), 63-71.

European Commission (2014), *Gender Equality in Sport: Proposal for Strategic Actions 2014–2020*, p.19 & 33

Gallardo-Albarrán, D. *Health and economic development since 1900*. Econ. Hum. Biol. **2018**, 31, 228–237.

Geis, F. L., Boston, M. B., & Hoffman, N. (1985). Sex of authority role models and achievement by men and women*: Leadership performance and recognition*. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49(3), 636.

Hall S. (1997), *Representation's Meaning*. Jakarta: Gramedia,

Hill. Bailey, R. Welard, I And Dismore, H. (2005), *Girls' Participation in Physical Activities andSports: Benefits, Patterns, Influences and Ways Forward*. Canterbury: World Health Organisation**.**

International Paralympics Committee (IPC) (2010), *Women in Sports Leadership Toolkit: Increasing Opportunities for Women in Paralympics Sports.* www.paralympic.org retrieved on 22 January 2020.

Jackson, S.L. (2009). *Research Methods and Statistics: A Critical Thinking Approach 3rd edition.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.Koontz and O'Donnell (1995)

King, Elizabeth M. and Andrew D. Mason (2001) *Engendering Development through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources and Voices (Summary).* A World Bank Policy Research Report. Washington DC: The World Bank Group.

Kothari C.R (2004), *research methodology*, 2nd edition, India, New Delhi, New Age International (p) limited, publishers

Krishna Swam (2002), *Methods of social research*. London: Collier Macmillian.

Lapchick, R., Burnett, C., Farris, M., Gossett, R., Orpilla, C., Phelan, J., & Snively, D. (2013). The 2012 Associated Press sports editors racial and gender report card. *Orlando: Institute for Diversity and Ethics in Sport (TIDES), University of Central Florida*.

Lapchick, R., Costa, P., Sherrod, T., & Anjorin, R. (2012). The 2012 *racial and gender report card: National Football League.* UCF Institute for Diversity and Ethics in Sport

Leberman, S., & Shaw, S. (2012). *Preparing female sport management students for leadership roles in sport*. Report for Ako Aotearoa, Wellington.

Matafwali, B. (2010), *The Experience and Meaning of Sports in the Lives of Female Players in Botswana:* A Feminist Perspective. Master Thesis in Sports Science. Oslo: Norwegian School of Sports Science.

Mattila, R. (2010), Women and Sports: *Bridging Participation and Leadership*. Lausanne: International Working Group on Women and Sports.

Ministry of Youth and Sports. (2012), *National Sports Policy*. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Munsaka, E. and Matafwali, B. (2013), *Human Development from Conception to Adolescence*: Typical and Atypical Trends. Lusaka: UNZA Press.

Mwaanga, O. and Banda, D. (2014), *A Postcolonial Approach to Understanding Sport-Based Empowerment of People Living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) in Zambia: The Case of the Cultural Philosophy of Ubuntu*: Journal of Disability and Religion, 18:2, 173-191. Lindsey and Banda (2010

Paige (2001). *Research Methodology*, London, UK, Routledge Press London

Parliament conference report (2007), Opening address by President Paul Kagame, Gender, *Nation Building and Role of Parliament conference*.

Sartore, M.L., & Cunningham, G.B. (2007). *Examining the under-representation of women in leadership positions of sport organizations*: A symbolic interactionist perspective. *Quest, 59*, 244 265.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2012) "*Research Methods for Business Students*" 6th edition, Pearson Education Limited

Scott, K. A., & Brown, D. J. (2006). Female first, leader second? *Gender bias in the encoding of leadership behavior. Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 101*(2), 230-242.

Spoor, J. R., & Hoye, R. (2013). *Perceived support and women's intentions to stay at a sport organization.* British Journal of Management,

Scoreboard (2015), *International Working Group on Women and Sport*.

The Chronicles (2019) article on *Forum on Gender Equality in the Rwandan sports movement*" held in Nyanza district,

The New Times (2007) article on in *international conference on Gender Equity in Sport for Social Change*.

The Olympic Games: *Meeting New Global Challenges*', Oxford University Club, Oxford, 'The Future of Reporting at the Olympic Games', 13–14 August 2012.

UNESCO (2011), *Gender Equality in Education*: Looking Beyond Parity: International Institute for Educational Planning

United Nations (UN) (1995), Gender Development and Sports: *Sports and Gender Empowering Girls and Women*. World Conference on Women. Beijing.

United Nations (UN) (2013), *Gender Equity Policy*, Women's Human Rights and Gender Section Rule of Law, Equality and Non-Discrimination, Turin – Italy, the International Training Centre of the ILO.

Veal, A. J. (2011), *Research Methods*, a Practical Guide, 2 Ed, Pearson Education Limited, Eng.

Wilde, K. (2006), *Women in Sports*: Gender Stereotypes in the Past and Present

Women Sports International (2010), Brighton Declaration for Women and Sports: *The Global Voice of Research Based Advocacy for Women and Sports*

Yemane Taro (1967) *Research Method*; Principles and Applications, Philihine: Rex Book Store, Inc

Zara (2018), *Gender Equality Strategy,* United Nations Development Programme, Kigali, Rwanda

Eagly, A., S. Karau, and M. Makhijani (1995), *Gender and effectiveness of leaders*: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin,

Appendix

1. Field Questionnaire
   Gender Equality in the management of sport organizations in Rwanda

Introduction

Dear Respondent,

I am student at the University of Rwanda; Master of social sciences in Gender and Development, as part of the academic requirements, i have undertaken a research entitled "Gender Equality in the management of sport organizations in Rwanda" which means the equal opportunities and no discrimination on the basis of a one's sex in terms of provision of resources and benefits, or gain access to services in sports; this study will support to raise the awareness of the equal opportunities of women and man in the management of sport organizations.

Therefore, this academic exercise aimed at gathering primary data for writing a research. Your co-operation in providing honest and prompt responses to the questionnaire would be very much appreciated. You are also assured of the privacy and confidentiality of your responses.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Dahlie BARAKAGWIRA

Phone number: 0783824402

E-mail: aubaralie@gmail.com

Please tick or write out your responses where appropriate

SECTION A: PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENT

1. **Gender**

   Male ☐ Female ☐

2. **Marital status**

   Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed ☐

3. Age

18-25 Years ▢   26-30 Years ▢   31-35 Year ▢   36-40 Year ▢   Above ▢
40

4. Academic qualification

Certificate ▢   Diploma ▢   Bachelor Degree ▢   Masters ▢   PHD ▢

5. Working experience

Less than 1 year ▢   1-3 years ▢   4-6 years ▢   Over 6 years ▢

SECTION B: QUESTIONS ON THE GENDER EQUALITY IN THE MANAGEMENT OF SPORT ORGANIZATIONS IN RWANDA

1. Do find necessary to consider gender equality policy in the sport sector?

   Yes, or No; explain your position

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

2. Do have a gender policy in your organization? If yes, what are its key considerations and achievements?

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

3. Are Women represented in the management of sport organizations of Rwanda?

   Yes ▢   No ▢

4. If yes, what is the actual share of women in the management of sport organization/ Leadership?

....

....

....

....

5. What is the impact of women's presence in the management of sport associations and federations ?

         a. for themselves

         b. for the other women in community

         c. for the development of the sport organization

         d. Society

         e. Other, specify

....

....

....

....

6. What are the main challenges that affect gender equality processes in the sport organizations of Rwanda?

....

....

....

....

7. What factors that a) encourage or b) discourage the participation of women in the management of your organization?

....

....

....

....

8. What interventions/policies/initiatives to put in place to mitigate the above challenges affecting gender equality and women's participation in the management of sport organizations of Rwanda?

....

....

....

....

9. What could be done to improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda?

....

....

....

....

Thank you for your contribution

……………………………………………………………

Dahlie BARAKAGWIRA
Phone number: 0783824402
E-mail: aubaralie@gmail.com

2. Interview Guide

Dear interviewee,

I am student at the University of Rwanda; Master of social sciences in Gender and Development, as part of the academic requirements, i have undertaken a research entitled **"Gender Equality in the management of sport organizations in Rwanda"** which means the equal opportunities and no discrimination on the basis of a one's sex in terms of provision of resources and benefits, or gain access to services in sports; this study will support to raise the awareness of the equal opportunities of women and man in the management of sport organizations.

Therefore, this academic exercise aimed at gathering primary data for writing a research. Your co-operation in providing honest and prompt responses to the questionnaire would be very much appreciated. You are also assured of the privacy and confidentiality of your responses.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Dahlie BARAKAGWIRA

    Phone number: 0783824402

    E-mail: aubaralie@gmail.com

1. Do find necessary to consider gender equality policy in the sport sector?
   Yes, or No; explain your position
2. Do have a gender policy in your organization? If yes, what are its key considerations and achievements?
3. Are Women represented in the management of sport organizations of Rwanda?
4. If yes, what is the actual share of women in the management of sport organization/ Leadership?
5. What is the impact of women's presence in the management of sport associations and federations?

6. What are the main challenges that affect gender equality processes in the sport organizations of Rwanda?

7. What factors that a) encourage or b) discourage the participation of women in the management of your organization?

8. What interventions/policies/initiatives to put in place to mitigate the above challenges affecting gender equality and women's participation in the management of sport organizations of Rwanda?

9. What could be done to improve the contribution of women in the sport organizations of Rwanda?

Thank you for your contribution

GENDER EQUALITY IN THE MANAGEMENT OF SPORT ASSOCIATIONS AND FEDERATIONS IN RWANDA

9 ir-library.ku.ac.ke
Internet Source   <1%

10 pdfs.semanticscholar.org
Internet Source   <1%

11 "Women on Corporate Boards and in Top
Management", Springer Science and Business
Media LLC, 2012
Publication   <1%

12 Submitted to UNIVERSITY OF LUSAKA
Student Paper   <1%

13 Johanna A Adriaanse, Inge Claringbould.
"Gender equality in sport leadership: From
the Brighton Declaration to the Sydney
Scoreboard", International Review for the
Sociology of Sport, 2016
Publication   <1%

14 erepository.mkuit.ac.rw
Internet Source   <1%

15 Sue Brown, Richard L. Light. "Women's sport
leadership styles as the result of interaction
between feminine and masculine
approaches", Asia-Pacific Journal of Health,
Sport and Physical Education, 2012
Publication   <1%

16 researchonline.federation.edu.au
Internet Source   <1%

17	Submitted to Pukyong National University Student Paper	<1%
18	ir.knust.edu.gh Internet Source	<1%
19	repository.out.ac.tz Internet Source	<1%
20	Submitted to Ghana Telecom University College Student Paper	<1%
21	hdl.handle.net Internet Source	<1%
22	Submitted to CVC Nigeria Consortium Student Paper	<1%
23	core.ac.uk Internet Source	<1%
24	Submitted to University of Oklahoma Student Paper	<1%
25	en.wikipedia.org Internet Source	<1%
26	Submitted to Florida State University Student Paper	<1%
27	scholar.sun.ac.za Internet Source	<1%
28	www.globethics.net	

Internet Source

<1%

29 erepository.uonbi.ac.ke
Internet Source

<1%

30 opus.lib.uts.edu.au
Internet Source

<1%

31 edocs.maseno.ac.ke
Internet Source

<1%

32 ir.jkuat.ac.ke
Internet Source

<1%

33 dissertations.mak.ac.ug
Internet Source

<1%

34 eprints.utar.edu.my
Internet Source

<1%

35 lcu.edu.ng
Internet Source

<1%

36 dspace.unza.zm
Internet Source

<1%

37 Submitted to Mount Kenya University
Student Paper

<1%

38 Barbara Thompson. "Gender, Management and Leadership in Initial Teacher Education", Springer Science and Business Media LLC, 2017
Publication

<1%

39 Submitted to Kenyatta University
Student Paper
<1%

40 Robin J. Ely, Herminia Ibarra, Deborah M. Kolb. "Taking Gender Into Account: Theory and Design for Women's Leadership Development Programs", Academy of Management Learning & Education, 2011
Publication
<1%

41 Submitted to Stockholm University
Student Paper
<1%

42 Submitted to University of South Africa
Student Paper
<1%

43 openknowledge.worldbank.org
Internet Source
<1%

44 www.mubs.ac.ug
Internet Source
<1%

45 www.slideshare.net
Internet Source
<1%

46 Submitted to Eiffel Corporation
Student Paper
<1%

47 Submitted to Rwanda Defence Forces Command and Staff College
Student Paper
<1%

48 baadalsg.inflibnet.ac.in
Internet Source
<1%

61 www.migeprof.gov.rw
Internet Source
<1 %

62 Janet M. M'mbaha, Jepkorir Rose Chepyator-Thomson. "Factors influencing career paths and progress of Kenyan women in sport leadership", Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health, 2018
Publication
<1 %

63 etheses.lse.ac.uk
Internet Source
<1 %

64 library.olympic.org
Internet Source
<1 %

Exclude quotes	Off	Exclude matches	Off
Exclude bibliography	Off		