

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH LOW PARTICIPATION OF FEMALES
IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS IN GHANA

JANET AMPONG

2008

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH LOW PARTICIPATION OF FEMALES
IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS IN GHANA

BY

JANET AMPONG

Dissertation Submitted

to the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation,

of Education Faculty, University of Cape Coast

in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement

for the Award of Master of Philosophy Degree

in Physical Education

NOVEMBER 2008

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Janet Among

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Dr. B. L. Boateng

Co-Supervisor's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Dr. Silvanus Lamiayi Lamptey

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to obtain information regarding factors associated with low female participation in university sports. The population of the study was made up of university sports ladies from University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, University of Cape Coast, University of Education, Winneba and University of Development Studies. Two hundred and fifty respondents were used for the study. Sports ladies from the mentioned five public universities who took part in the Ghana University Sport Association (GUSA) games which took place in Tamale were used for the study. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher with a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of 0.92. The methods employed for data analysis were frequencies, percentages and Chi square test, which were used to judge the relationships among the variables.

The results of the study revealed that the factors associated with for low female participation in University sports in Ghana included: Coaches' attitude toward female sportswomen, low skill level of females, low motivation of females, peer influence, the values placed on sports, lack of facilities and equipment, and administrative policies for sports.

The need for more female coaches in the universities to take care of women sports and the need for the university authorities to make provision for more and modern sports facilities and equipment were all identified and recommended.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I express my profound gratitude and appreciation to my major supervisor, Dr. B. L. Boateng, who through his fatherly advice, constructive criticism, patience and concern ensured that this work was completed on schedule. I am greatly indebted to him.

My sincere gratitude goes to Dr. S. L. Lamptey, the co-supervisor, who devoted some time to read and correct the manuscript and offered useful suggestions.

I owe a great debt to Mr. Charles Domfeh, a lecturer at the Department of HPER, UCC, for the assistance given me in accomplishing this task. The kind of motivation, encouragement, and suggestions of this humane gentleman, were jewels of inestimable value to me. I will not forget to mention my gratitude to Mr. Dan Apaak whose caring attitude I so much appreciated.

Finally, I wish to thank all lecturers and staff of the Department of HPER whom I have not already acknowledged, for their various suggestions and encouragement. I also thank Mr. Richard Tsekyi who typed this thesis.

DEDICATION

To my children:

Baffour Kwadwo Okyere

Kwabena Ampong

Kwadwo Konadu Ampong and

Akosua Asaa Ampong.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page	
DECLARATION	ii	
ABSTRACT	iii	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv	
DEDICATION	v	
LIST OF TABLES	ix	
Chapter		
ONE	INTRODUCTION	1
	Background to the Study	1
	Statement of the Problem	7
	Purpose of the Study	8
	Major Hypothesis	9
	Sub Hypotheses	9
	Significance of the Study	10
	Delimitation of the Study	10
	Limitation of the Study	11
	Definition of Terms	11
TWO	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	13
	Coaches' Attitude	13

Chapter	Page
Skill Level	20
Motivation	28
Peer Influence	35
Values in Sports	39
Health and Fitness	39
Socialization	45
Facilities and Equipment	50
Administrative Policies	55
Summary	60
THREE METHODOLOGY	62
Research Design	62
Population	63
Sample and Sampling Technique	63
Instrument	64
Validity and Reliability of the Instrument	64
Data Collection Procedure	65
Data Analysis	66
FOUR RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	67
FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	91

Chapter	Page
Summary	91
Conclusions	93
Recommendations	93
Recommendation for Further Studies	96
REFERENCES	97
APPENDIX A – Letter of Consent	110
APPENDIX B – Questionnaire	111
APPENDIX C – Descriptive Survey	118

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 1 regarding coaches' attitude to females resulting in their low participation in sports	67
2	Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 2 regarding the skill levels of females and its effect on low participation in university sports	71
3	Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 3 regarding the motivation given to females resulting in low participation in university sports	73
4	Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 4 regarding the peer influence and its effects on low female participation in university sports	76
5	Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 5 regarding the values in sports and effects on low female participation in university sports	79
6	Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 6 regarding the facilities and equipment the female use resulting in low participation in university sports	84
7	Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 7 regarding administrative policies and their effects on low female participation in university sports	87

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Sports are institutionalized competitive activities that involve vigorous physical exertion, or the use of relatively complex physical skills by the participant, motivated by personal enjoyment and external reward (Coakley, 2001). In the same vein, Lumpkin (1998) defined sport as physical activity that is governed by formal and informal rules and involving competition. Sport, therefore, is seen as a collective term which includes a number of different activities of an individual or team variety, both competitive and non-competitive.

In years past, public opinion about women in sports has been divided between those who undervalue the public display of athleticism, and those who support it. Remley (1996) observed that even the Frenchman, Baron Pierre de Coubertin, who initiated the Modern Olympic Games, was adamantly opposed to women participating in the Olympic Games. The emergence of women in sports is largely a twentieth century phenomenon. Women only became official competitors eligible for Olympic record in 1912 at the Stockholm Olympic Games.

Generally, the status of the Ghanaian woman in society is low. Historically women have traditionally not been associated principally with citizenship, but with family life (Enchil-Essaw, 2002). High Traditional norms place a high premium on the various reproductive roles of childbearing, nurturing, caring for the sick and the aged, and general housekeeping. In addition, the woman is expected to combine her reproductive role with productive functions. This means, that they are to provide care and service for the entire family, while men are considered bread winners of the home. The culture trap apparently makes women prone to low expectations, fear of success, lack of confidence, non-assertiveness, anti-authority holding, and dependent (Women's Sports Foundation, 2007).

Mbilinyi (2001) explained that, the dominant patriarchal order in the pre-colonial period emphasized gender roles of subsistence economy. During the colonial period, the inclination was to prepare females psychologically for perfecting housekeeping and reproductive roles in order to blend them with the colonial policy of minimizing the operational cost by emphasizing gender roles of a subsistence economy. The liberation effect of education of the independence followed the same pattern

The low involvement of females in sports is not due to lack of interest in sports, but it is due to the long history of direct and indirect systematic forms of discrimination and stereotyping as well as many other problems that the females have had to contend with (Adeyanju 2005). Ghanaian women, like many other parts of the world, still believe in physiological myths that surround the

participation of females in sports. People still believe that, physical exercise by females has a detrimental effect on females' reproductive organs such as the ovaries and bladder dropping, thus making it difficult to bear children. They also believe that when a female plays sports, she would become unfeminine or mannish. Traditionally, sports is perceived as a male domain (Victorian Women in Sports, 2002). The politics and power used in sports, contribute to significant constraint to females' participation in sports. The reason is that, men wield a great deal of power on the development and management of female sports. It is also the males who are seen to be aggressive, a trait necessary for participation in sports. Again, traditionally, socialization into sports for both sexes has been given a wide gap that favors males. As already stated, modern sports was initially developed by men and for men who never intended to encourage women to nurture their strength and exhaust themselves in a desire to win.

A breakthrough for women in the world was the promulgation of Title IX, which was part of the Amendment Act of 1972 in America. Schools were required to provide equal opportunities to females (Wuest & Bucher, 1999). The impact of the Title IX has resulted in noticeable increases in women's competitions at the inter-collegiate and inter-scholastic levels. The 1992 Constitution of Ghana also stresses on equality and freedom from discrimination against women. It states that "persons shall not be discriminated against on grounds of gender, race, color, origin, religion, and creed, social or economic status" (Article 17 Section 2). Numerous national and international documents acknowledge the rights of girls and women to full participation in all aspects of public life, including physical

education. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's International Charter on Physical Education and Sports in 1978, states that, one of the essentials for effective exercise of human rights is that everyone should be free to develop and preserve his or her physical, intellectual and moral powers, and that access to physical education and sports should consequently be assured and guaranteed for all human beings (Brady & Khan, 2002).

The aim of physical education and sports, which shares the aim of organizing sports in the university, according to Kodzi (1998) include

- a) The development of National sports at school level for the purpose of gaining International recognition and National prestige.
- b) Giving the individual the necessary tools for the enjoyment of leisure in school and after school.
- c) Keeping the Nation fit for the purpose of productivity and promotion of health and life.

The benefits of sports in everyday life are unequivocal. The health benefits are both physical (e.g. weight management, cardio-vascular endurance, improvement in co-ordination, and flexibility), and psychosocial (e.g. enjoyment, socially interactive, anti-depressive, a sense of 'unwinding', and promoting self-esteem). The skills generated through sports can also be readily applied to more everyday activities, such as dedication, application and team-building (Cox, Coleman & Rucker, 2005). In view of this, it is expected that female University students would take up this challenge, and get themselves involved in sports,

especially, taking the sedentary nature of their courses into consideration, so as to claim these and other benefits, but this has come to naught According to Prempeh (2007) during the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology's Annual 48th Inter-Hall sports competitions, the sports chairpersons had a tough time getting females to come out to compete for the Halls. This gives a true reflection of how most females do more than two disciplines during Inter-Hall and Inter-University sports competitions. The numbers of females representing their universities are always lower than males and sometimes females are not represented in some games, because their coaches could not get ladies to play in those games.

In March 1972, the Ministry of Education submitted a proposal on the structure and content of Education for public discussion. The proposal submitted in June 1973, was approved by the government. Physical Education as a subject was stressed in both the Basic and Senior High School Education. However, physical education is not a core or compulsory course at the tertiary level. With Physical Education as compulsory subject, the Physical Education teachers have the chance to somehow force students into sports. Sometimes too, the adamant ones could be called to the Head's office to be convinced to participate. The reform is such that the athletes reach their peak when they are about to complete their Senior High School Education. The university would be fortunate if such athletes gain admission, but unfortunately, few are able to gain admission, and even out of the few some still fall out of sports.

The world over, there is still the existence of barriers in women's participation. This brought about numerous National and International Conferences and researches to remove the barriers so as to push more women into sports and other fields of endeavour. Most women's non-governmental organizations, notably Women's Sports Foundation (WSF), Women in Sports, Association for Advancement in Africa (ASAWA), United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNDFEM), Forum for African Women Education (FAWE), Federation of International Women's Lawyers (FIDA), Association of Women Educators (AWE), have had some success in lobbying for legislative change and advancing the status of women to reduce the gender gap and encouraging women to advance in education to enable them contribute their quota towards national development.

In view of this participation of females in sports has taken a new dimension. It has created a new generation of both professionals and amateur female athletes in the developed and underdeveloped countries. Welch and Costa (1994) reported that between 1972 and 1992 Summer Olympics Games, women's participation increased 130% and over the last 10 Winter Games, United States women have won 47 medals, while the men have won only 34 medals. Rhodes (2007) states that since the enactment of Title IX in June 1972, the number of female high school athletes has increased from about 290,000 to 1.2 million. Women participation in intercollegiate sports has soared from fewer than 32,000 to 80,000. While gains are being made for females in the developed and

underdeveloped countries' Universities, experiences in Ghanaian Universities remain the same.

Nowadays, it has been observed that participation in university sports has become attractive, with students travelling far and wide. Despite the motivation given by coaches and administrators, the women who take part in university sports in Ghana are few. The under-representation of females in sports has important implication because of the crucial role sports play in our daily lives.

Statement of the Problem

Women constitute the core of development in most developed and underdeveloped countries. In Ghana, the establishment of the National Council of Women and Development (NCWD) in 1975 has as one of its purposes as ensuring the full integration of women in national development. The United Nations Declaration of 1975 as the International Women's Year set in motion different kinds of initiative and policy actions that challenged centuries of erroneous assumptions about social and economic relationship between males and females in society. The declaration was a landmark on the long road towards women's advancement and gender inequality, as well as an affirmation of women's valuable contribution and position in society. Again at the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995, the platform for action made specific reference to sports and physical activity for girls and women (Brady & Khan, 2002).

Now, women are capable of performing duties and functions just as men do. They, like men, have talents and capabilities of contributing effectively to nation building. In other countries, most females who participate for their

countries are university students. According to Abney (1999), the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) led the way for university students, such as Evelyn Ashford who won four medals in a single Olympics and Joyner Kersey who was one of the best all round female athlete. Ghanaian Universities, however, cannot boast of such athletes of International repute.

The researcher has observed as a coach in university, a low female participation in university sports and that has brought the problem for the study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the following variables to ascertain whether they were associated with the low participation of females in university sports in Ghana:

1. Will there be any association between coaches' attitude to females and low participation of females in university sports?
2. Will there be any association between skill levels and low female participation in university sports?
3. Will there be any association between peer influence and low female participation in university sports?
4. Will there be any association between motivation given to females and low female participation in university sports?
5. Will there be any association between values in sports and low female participation in university sports?
6. Will there be any association between facilities and equipment available to females and low female participation in university sports?

7. Will there be any association between administrative policies and low female participation in university sports?

Major Hypothesis

There will be no significant association between factors selected for the study and low female participation in university sports in Ghana.

Sub Hypotheses

1. There will be no significant association between the coaches' attitude to females and low female participation in university sports.
2. There will be no significant association between skill levels and low female participation in university sports.
3. There will be no significant association between peer influence and low female participation in university sports.
4. There will be no significant association between the motivation given to females and their low participation in university sports.
5. There will be no significant association between the values in sports and low female participation in university sports.
6. There will be no significant association between the facilities and equipment available for females' use and their low participation in university sports.
7. There will be no significant association between administrative policies and low female participation in university sports.

Significance of the Study

The outcome of the study would provide useful insights for policy makers and evaluators of the universities in Ghana. Another important significance of this study is that, it will provide all stakeholders in university sports, the guidelines to helping female students to participate fully in university sports. It will also serve as a guide to other tertiary institutions in the country as to how to get female students in their Institutions involved in sports. Finally, it will add to the body of knowledge that has already been acquired in previous studies on female participation in university sports.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to sportswomen in five public universities in Ghana, namely, University of Ghana (UG), Legon, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), Kumasi, University of Cape Coast (UCC), Cape Coast, University of Education Winneba (UEW), Winneba, and University for Development Studies (UDS), Tamale.

The sixth (6th) university, University of Mines and Technology (UMaT), was not included, because they had just joined the Ghana Sports Association (GUSA) games without female competitors, the reason being that the female population was almost negligible

The study was also delimited to the seven variables that were believed to be among the influencing factors hampering adequate female participation in university sports in Ghana. Analysis of the data for the study was also delimited to the Chi-square statistical instrument.

Limitation of the Study

The close-ended questionnaire items constrained the respondents from expressing divergent views which transcended the options provided on the instructions. These constraints, therefore, placed a limitation on the generalisation of the study.

Similarly since data were also collected with structured questionnaire, the problem of bias normally associated with all the researches based on the use of questionnaires could not be ruled out completely.

These problems are likely to slightly affect the extent to which the findings of this study could be generalised

Definition of Terms

Amenorrhea:	Abnormal cessation of menstruation
Basic Movement:	The foundation structure of the movement programme which emphasises gross motor skills?
Discrimination:	This is when someone is treated unfairly because of prejudice about gender
Extramurals:	Recreation activities which are carried outside an institution, such as Inter-Colleges or Inter-Universities competitions.
Feminism:	The belief in the principle that women should have equal rights and opportunities as men.
Gender:	The behavioural cultural or psychological traits typically associated with the sex.

- Gender Inequality: Differences between groups of people. It refers to inequality as between men and women.
- Gender Roles: The specific behaviours and attitudes that a society establishes for men and women
- Gender Stereotypes: It is the oversimplified beliefs that men and women by nature of their physical sex possess different personality traits and as a result they may behave differently and experience the world in different ways
- Intramurals: Recreation activities which are carried on within an institution such as Inter-Hall competition.
- Masculine or Feminine: It means that the person exhibits behaviours and attitudes considered appropriate for his or her sex.
- Motor Skills: Ability to use the body in motion to accomplish objective effectively
- Oligomenorrhea: Irregular menstruation.
- Osteoporosis: A disease in which the bone tissue degenerates.
- Patriarchal: The culture that regarded men as the most powerful members in the society.
- Sissies: Boys who avoid sports involving physical toughness
- Tomboys: Girls who excel in sports involving physical toughness
- Triad: Describes the coexistence of 3 distinct medical conditions or complex disorders that may occur in athletic girls and women which include eating disorders amenorrhea and osteoporosis.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals with the review of related literature on factors believed to be associated with low participation of females in University sports in Ghana.

The review will be treated under the following headings:

- 1 Coaches' Attitude towards females in sports participation
- 2 Skill Level of females
- 3 Motivation of females towards sports participation
- 4 Peer Influence and low females participation in sports
- 5 Values In Sports and females participation
- 6 Facilities and Equipment
- 7 Administrative Policies associated with participation of females

Coaches' Attitude

The coach is an important figure when one considers sports in all sectors. The role of the coach is enormous, as much is expected of him/her with the assumption that he/she has multiple roles to play in the field of sports. Gensemer (1995) postulated that the universities see the coach as a teacher, organizer, psychologist, counsellor, leader and disciplinarian. The community considers him/her as a diplomat, parental surrogate, politician, sales person and citizen of

the community. It is obvious, that the duty of the coach is to create a congenial environment for athletes to learn, and their attitude may contribute to participation or non-participation of females in sports. Mercer and Mercer (1998) and Partrikson and Eriksson (1990) support this view by identifying the promotion of a positive and supportive learning environment as one of the crucial instructional variables related to learning.

The relationship between coaches and athletes is then the most important aspect in the field of sports. The coach-athlete relationship has been shown to have a profound effect on satisfaction and quality of life (Mercer and Mercer 1998; Partrikson and Eriksson, 1990). Several factors may then influence their relationship (Burke, Peterson and Nix, 1998; Grissafe, Bloom and Burke, in press). A study carried out by Terry and Howe as cited by Patrikson and Eriksson (1990) showed that, athletes preferred coaches who often had well prepared training sessions and gave reinforcement that sometimes had democratic supporting attitudes and seldom showed an authoritarian leadership style They added that regardless of gender, student-athletes in the university want a democratic coach, one who would sit down and take decisions with them, without a compromise.

If this is not the situation, rarely will the female experience success for which they had hoped for, and sometimes result in withdrawal (Centre for Mental Health Services/ Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 1997). Everhart and Chelladurai and Packianathan (1998) support the idea by saying that it is important for the outcome of performance that the behaviour of

the coach corresponds to the athletes' desires. The Centre for Mental Health Services Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (1997) opines that if a coach feels his/her most important role is to produce a winning team, there may be conflicts within athletes who are playing primarily for fun. Even though winning and having fun can, and often go hand in hand, all participants involved should be aware of the goals of their team mates and coaches.

Garcia (1994) stressed that females might be negatively impacted by a coach's emphasis on over-competitiveness in athletic domain. Scott (1989) and Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) define this as "win-at-all-cost" attitude of coaches. In support of these assertions Centre for Mental Health Services Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (1997) opined that an over-emphasis on winning and reducing emphasis on skill acquisition, and having fun by coaches affect continued involvement by female athletes. Hence, coaching behaviours that have been traditionally accepted by males or even seen as possible with all athletes in the past might be considered mean, rude, unfair and not encouraging enough by females today. However, there is a need for realistic acceptance that participation in sport without some form of competition would be meaningless and there would be little motivation to master the skills and techniques of the game as well as improve one's own standard of performance. Scott (1989) and Morgan and Meier (1988) also postulate that it is not necessary to exclude competition, but to establish the realization that one does not always have to be a winner to be successful, because competitions pave the way for

excitement, entertainment, and incentives to perform at one's best. The problem is when losers are scorned or discouraged from playing, winning becomes the end rather than the means to basic benefits. When this happens among female participants negative impressions such as fear of failure, feelings of rejection, wounded self concepts, dehumanization, lack of fun, rivalry, boredom, and coercion are developed (Kirsch, 1990).

It is imperative for coaches to be aware of the needs of female athletes, and try to recognize them as such. Though females would want to be competitive and skilled as males, they may respond to coaching techniques differently from males. Crawford (1999), Stewart and Taylor (2002) and Osborne (2002) support this unequivocally, that coaching of man and woman demands different psychological, physiological and philosophical approaches. Stewart and Taylor further stressed that female athletes may be participating for reasons other than those of their male counterparts. Gill (1992) as cited by Stewart et al. (2002), opined that females appear to be motivated for participation more by intrinsic motivation than males who are more extrinsically motivated.

Personal conflict with coaches also has an adverse effect on female athletes (Kenow & Williams, 1999; Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon & Templin, 2000; Patricksson & Eriksson, 1990). Studies conducted by Greenleaf, Gould and Dieffenbach (2001) revealed that Olympic athletes from the 1996 Summer Games who did not perform as well as expected felt that it was because of the conflict with their coaches, inaccurate technical information, the coaches inability to handle selection, controversy and lack of focus on the team climate played

significant roles in lower-level performances. Coaching behaviours therefore play significant roles in the drop out rates of young athletes.

A research conducted by Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) postulates that adverse comments from coaches provide one of the main reasons for girls becoming discouraged from playing sport. Coaches, who yell at players, are too strict, are not nice and overly negative, would not be liked by either gender (Davis, 1999; Flintoff, 1994). In addition, non-verbal criticisms of female athletes, such as vocal sarcasm and anger, frowns and glares, raised eyebrows and head shaking, make them feel devalued and erode their confidence (Davis). Athletes have reported derogatory statements made by coaches such as your hips are too big – lose some weight or you will never reach far. One sports journalist has reported that girls are called ‘fat cows’ by the coaching staff (Ryan, 1995). Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) reported that insensitive comments from coaches such as “useless female” can be especially potent discouragement.

The gender differences which still exist have also eaten into coaching. Male students are given more attention, both positive and negative, than female students (Davis). He observed that the coach’s language has been found to be gender biased as the coaches often expressively use masculine pronouns. They rely on the generic term ‘he’ for both genders, or use you guys rather than you. Coaches, therefore, have higher performance standards for male students and separate males and females during activities, because of the perception of lower physical capacities of females. Coakley (2001) supports this claim that in sport when something is done right, it is done by a male and wrong by a female. For

example, when a female throws a ball correctly it is often said that she throws like a male, and when it is incorrectly done it is thrown like a female. This presupposes that the put downs are not confined to appearance, but can include comments on ladies competence as well (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001). This gender logic is, therefore, used by coaches when they intend to criticize male team members by telling them they are playing like a bunch of females when mistakes occur or when they do not play aggressively. The impression created is that when she is a female, she is a failure and thus discouraged.

One of the most important qualities of a coach is to possess requisite knowledge of the sport. This will help him/her to succeed in the coaching career. Gensemer (1995) supports this notion by saying that having a solid biomechanical understanding of performance requirements of the sport is absolute, and may be the one factor that, if absent, will prevent any other factors of the game strategy or the personal characteristics of the coach from becoming effective. Coaching competence and coaching behaviours are contributing factors to performance. Instructional competence of the coach will help him/her to effectively communicate his knowledge or mechanics of skills execution to players (Medwechuk & Crossman, 1994; Parkhouse and Williams, 2002). Penney and Harris (1999) noted that their concern was not that of commitment and the amount of extra-curricular activities of the coach, but rather their specific interest was with the “content organization, and delivery of extra-curricular activities. Weiss and Petlichkoff (2002) cited failure to improve skill as one of the reasons why females drop out of sports. Thus, a coach encourages athletes to develop

positive feelings about their abilities and openly display confident attitudes about the capabilities of both the athlete and themselves (Greenleaf, et al, 2001; Warren, 1991; Smoll & Smith, 2002).

Preference of coaches has been found to be a contributory factor in females dropping out of sport. Numerous studies have examined the athlete's preference regarding same sex or opposite sex coaches. Osborne (2002) and Molztad and Whitaker (1997) opine that female basketball players ranked female coaches as superior in coaching qualities, relating well to others, and understanding athletes' feelings. Conversely, a strong sex bias favouring male coaches was found in the male and female high school basketball athletes who rated male coaches as more knowledgeable, more likely to achieve future success, more desirable to play for, and having a greater ability to motivate (Parkhouse and Williams, 2002). Female coaches were more inclined than the male coaches to make positive statements to encourage players (Stewart et al., 2002). Frey, Czech, Kent and Johnson (2006) noted that female players were able to discuss "almost anything" about sports, certain plays or tactics with the male coaches but nothing outside practice or the game was "allowed to be discussed," and whereas athletes felt a variety of issues could be discussed with female coaches. Many of the female athletes agreed that they were intimidated by the male coaches.

Other personal attributes such as athletes age (Burke et al,1998) socio-economic status, ethnicity and athletes' level of skills and abilities may also impact athletes' experiences with coaches (Parkhouse and Williams, 2002). Granted, female athletes quit sports for many reasons over which coaches have

limited control, like time conflicts, changing interests, or academic demands (Frey et al., 2006). In support of this coaches and athletics Directors for Latin girls say they had difficulty encouraging Hispanic girls to play sports often, because of parental reluctance. They said most of the girls were athletically inclined, but it is difficult to acclimatize parents to the idea of girls staying behind after school (Sylwester, 2005).

Skill Level

Motor skill is smoothly executing physical movement and responses, or it is one way of denoting an act for a task that has specific aim or goal to achieve (Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson & Hartigan, 2005). This implies that skill depends on one's innate inherited traits that determine one's coordination, balance, agility and speed of reaction. Wesson et al. define abilities which are closely related to skill as "stable" and enduring capability, or qualities and characteristics that a person has within himself. One is, therefore, born with these qualities, but there is a need to practice or to try one's hand on a sporting activity to be able to carry out coordinated movements. Involvement in physical activity is, therefore, a prerequisite to movement skill acquisition and performance. Thompson, Branfford, Watkinson and Dunn (1994) in support of this assertion wrote that without ample participation, children may develop syndromes related to hypo activity, defined by Bar-Or in Thompson et al. (1994) as an activity level lower than that of their healthy peers of similar cultural and socio economic background.

Flieshman (2005) outline proficiency abilities as

- a. Physical fitness

- b. Strength(static, dynamic, explosive trunk)
- c. Flexibility
- d. Coordination
- e. Equilibrium
- f. Stamina (p.538)

He added that one should be aware that everybody possesses all the above abilities identified, however, we do not possess them at equal or similar levels. In view of this, if one does not have the necessary levels of specific abilities needed to perform a specific sport, then one will be a failure and will not be proficient in that skill. Flieshman, 2005, ascertains that there is a need to identify a sport that will fit one's specific ability. Wesson et al (2005) opine that the fact that a person does not have the level of abilities necessary to succeed at one activity does not mean one does not have the potential to succeed in another activity requiring slightly different abilities. This presupposes that two people may not achieve similar standards of performance in physical activity since they have different levels of genetically determined abilities. According to Wesson et al. (2005,) there are many factors which are psychological, physiological as well as socio-cultural that can influence future performance levels. These are;

- 1) Motivation
- 2) Opportunity for early successes
- 3) Amount of previous encouragement given
- 4) Coach/parental expectations
- 5) Demand/interest

- 6) Opportunity for practice
- 7) Availability of facilities
- 8) Personality (p.540)

Low participation of females in university sport can somehow be traced from their previous experiences. It is clear then, that Physical Education in Basic and Senior High Schools plays significant roles in the future development of the young female (Astari, 1995). Studies conducted by Rashid (1994) and Perry (2006) confirmed that many black schools in South Africa have minimal, if any, physical education facilities, and physical education teachers are very rare in primary schools, thus, physical education lessons are virtually non-existent. Rashid postulates that “school teachers are designated remote controls” who provide a ball, “sit by a tree” or stay in the staff room, then at the end of the lesson the teacher blows his whistle and the pupils return to their classrooms, and hence no real lesson learnt (p.10). In Ghana, the average school curriculum does not allot sufficient instructional time to physical education for skill acquisition. Physical education in the basic school is not taught in many schools, while in the secondary school some teachers who teach have limited time. Rashid ascertains that in many black schools in South Africa, there is a large gap between policy of time allocation of syllabus content, and implementation. Physical education is prescribed, but its practice depends on the head teacher. Physical education is seen as a subject without academic significance.

Involvement and exposure to sport impact significantly on skill acquisition and hence sport participation. Students who have (or had) physical education classes at school and those who participated in organised sports at school are

more likely to participate in university sports (Sports and Recreation South Africa, 2005). Cahpherd and Ahpherd (1995) reported that the lack of opportunities at school for daily physical education with the continuing decline in physical activity within the home setting is leading to development in sedentary life style pattern that will continue to adulthood and throughout life. Females, normally beginning at an early age, undervalue and underestimate their capacity and potential for competency in physical activities, and as a result of their physical activity levels constantly fall further behind their male peers (Canadian Association for Advancement of Women and Sport (CAAWS), 2004).

Moreover, past experiences of females have made it either possible or impossible for them to participate in sports. Some students even lack the skills to perform. For example, before a child goes to school he/she has been performing different physical activities in the form of running, jumping, catching, climbing or throwing. It has been observed that it is during the regular physical education programme in schools that these fundamental skills are modified and taught. Hence, in the course of teaching, the individual identifies the specific skills and interest in particular sports. However, the opportunity to learn the correct execution of the basic skills is not in schools, and so the female would not be adequate to perform when she grows. Keim (1999) and Dauer and Pangrezi (1990) lamented that most female students drop out of activity due to lack of skills and competency during elementary school which is rather unfortunate. Coakley (2001) opines that mothers reinforce the family restrictions by treating their daughters as “mummy’s little helpers.” He added that, though he is not

against the idea, he is not in favour when it becomes an overly dependent relationship with their mothers; they seldom have opportunities to develop their competence in physical activities and sports. Adedeji and Ikpeme (2006) reported that in most African societies, especially in the rural communities, the primary and post primary physical education curricular were tailored in such a way that young males benefited from sports engagement more than their female counterparts.

Another factor worth considering is the lack of confidence which can have a negative effect on females' participation. Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) revealed that a lack of confidence in their abilities to perform physical task may lead girls to avoid situations which could expose their lack of competence. It further revealed that when this reluctance begins at an early age, girls fail to master basic motor skills such as running, jumping, catching or throwing, which will result in their avoidance of any sport.

Thompson et al. (1994) argue that children with movement competence more often experience negative outcomes and are less likely to participate in movement situation. However, children who are movement competent experience positive effective feelings and are likely to engage in movement situations. Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001), yet in another research revealed that many girls shy away from sports because they are self-conscious about how they look and believe they lack skills or physical competence.

Some research works have revealed that socio-economic status of parents has been a factor in skill acquisition leading to participation, and especially,

choice of event. Omoruan (1996) argued that socio-economic stratification makes for the automatic participation in sports. He cited the game of polo as an expensive sport, which requires a player to own and maintain a horse. In the case of Ghana, just a few people can afford to learn golf or buy a hockey stick or tennis racket. A study conducted by Griffiths (2001) on economic status and sports participation concluded that the key factor that influences recreation participation is accessibility and mobility. Wuest and Bucher (1999) maintain that socio-economic status separated participants and non-participants in the community. In support of this, Cox, Coleman and Rucker (2005) in a study on sports participation among young women in England, indicated that most of the young people who always participated said that they lived in active households, where family members were sporting role models and sport was often undertaken. It also revealed that these family members were the people who could pay to do sports. Msheilia (1998) corroborated this view by saying that, for a woman to be involved, and continue active participation in sports, she must be located in a social environment highly supportive of her activities. Evans (2004) confirms that young people with experiences, abilities and taste acquired by virtue of their social class may be more or less 'able' and willing to take part in various sports and physical activities. In support of this assertion Green and Hardman (2005) wrote that the middle class young people are more likely to have the skills, abilities and experiences that will make them more rather than less likely to be involved in and be successful in sports and physical activities, because they are the most likely to be introduced to a wider range of sports by their parents.

Some female students may be disadvantaged under this social stratification within the school system in Ghana in terms of skill acquisition. Schools in the urban areas are likely to have access to so many sports through Parent Teachers Associations or sponsorship from big companies and organisations, whilst the rural people are hardly able to pay school fees for the head to use some for installing and purchasing facilities and equipment. When females from such urban schools enter the university they are less likely to participate, except in athletics in a few cases, because they do not have the prerequisite skills. Goral, Taylor and Fritz (2003) support this assertion by saying that, it is extremely difficult for secondary school physical education to make a difference in youth because of growing social stratification within the state school system with working class children becoming concentrated in 'sink' or ghetto schools. They pointed out that social class does not just impact upon choice and preference in sport and physical activities; it also has substantial impact upon individual's physical capabilities or skill and abilities.

Another attribution of skill development which leads to participation in sport may be fear of injury. Weiss and Petlichkoff (2002), Stewart and Taylor (2002) collaborated this view in their statement that, fear of injuries and failure to improve skills, among other things, are the reason for females dropping out of sport. Athletics in the lives of Women and Girls (1999) also reported that, fear of injuries and negative coaching behaviours are some of the barriers that reduce females' participation.

The attitude of male sportsmen may also lead to withdrawal of females from participation. In schools, girls are denied space to practice or acquire skills and this may discourage females, and in turn may affect their future participation in sports. This assertion is confirmed by Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) that boys dominate space in school's playgrounds and sporting arenas and frequently tell females that they cannot play, because its boys only. They also monopolise sporting equipment unless special measures are taken to ensure it does not occur. In physical education lessons, males try to keep the ball to themselves in game situation which makes females tend to lack skill and fade into the background, especially in team games. Further studies also confirm this observation that, there is a relationship between the amount of over-learning and the length of time a skill will remain in muscle memory (Barrow, 1983). The Canadian Association for Advancement of Women in Sports (2002) emphasized then, that while some females excel in sport and physical activity, others face barriers to their participation, including inadequate opportunities to participate and develop their skills. The physical skills of the athletes are ignored and women athletes are then trivialised (The Berge, 1996).

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

activity he/ she withdraws completely. This is continued by a study conducted by Cox et al (2005) that, most of the females who were interviewed about participation in sports, said they were not very good at it and felt intimidated of doing sports in front of people. In support of this, Beck (1992) reported that students' uncertainty about failure was found to influence their involvement in extra curricula activities among high school and college students. Also a similar research by Sports and Recreation South Africa (2005) indicates that 78% of the women said they were simply not interested. However, Green & Hardman (2005) and McDonald (2003) argue that physical experiences, and even condition, shape females predisposition towards new or familiar activities and give rise to their tastes in, among other things, sporting activities. In support of this view, McDermon (2002) observed that, being an athlete, especially skilled athlete, can change the way a woman sees herself, which can make her feel physically stronger, more competent, and in control of her life as an independent individual.

Motivation

Motivation is an internal energy force that determines all aspects of our behaviour. It also impacts on how we think, feel, and interact with others (Karageorghis, 1999). Wesson et al. (2005) are also of the view that motivation is a special cause of behaviour that energizes, directs, and sustains a person's behaviour. Motivation, therefore, causes people to make choices from the available alternatives about how best to allocate their energy and time. Maslow provides a hierarchy of basic human needs to explain why people get involved in physical activity (Wesson et al. 2005). When these needs are satisfied it leads to feelings of self confidence, worth, adequacy, and capability of being useful, and

of making contribution. The frustration aspects of these in turn produce a sense of basic discouragement; that the underlying concept of motivation is 'needs', which creates some driving force within individuals by which they make attempts to fulfil the needs. Boachie-Mensah (2006) opined that needs are drives, or forces that initiate behaviour and, therefore, people's behaviour is determined by what motivates them. This suggests that motivation is an important factor in both learning and coaching. Karageorghis confirms this assertion by saying that, in sports, high motivation is widely accepted as an essential prerequisite in getting athletes to fulfil their potential.

Karageorghis (1999) thinks that of all the studies on motivation, self determination theory, propounded by Deci and Ryan (1994) is the widely used in sports. The different types are:

1. A motivation which represents lack of intention to engage in behaviour. It is accompanied by lack of competence and lack of connection between one's behaviour and the expected outcome.
2. External and interjected regulations represent non-self determined or controlling types of extrinsic motivation. Participation to secure prize money, win a trophy, and to avoid punishment or regulation.
3. Identified and integrated regulations represent self determination types of extrinsic motivation, because behaviour is initiated out of choice although not necessarily perceived to be enjoyable.

4. Intrinsic motivation comes from within, is fully self-determined and characterized by interest in and enjoyment derived from sports participation.

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

In the University, the external motivation is used mostly to encourage students to participate, except a few who are intrinsically motivated. Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson & Hartigon (2005) maintain that extrinsic rewards are used extremely in sporting situations. Most major sports have achievement performance incentives linked to some form of the tangible reward system. Students have, however, shown that there are times when extrinsic motivation may actually decrease an achievement motivation (intrinsic motivation) (Harackiewicz, 1998; Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson, & Hartigon 2005; Deci & Ryan, 1994). A recent study showed that, during competition, deemed to be important, intrinsically motivated athletes developed task-oriented (positive)

coping strategies. Conversely, extrinsically motivated athletes tended to avoid dealing with the issues and were far less likely to achieve their goals (Green & Hardman, 2005).

Santrock (2000) explains that the amount of motivation needed for best results varies with the individual, but each has tolerance level beyond which performance declines. According to Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson & Hartington (2005), success and failure are related to motivation as well as to the level of aspiration. These levels then give information in relation to a person's level of competence or incompetence. It has been observed that the more successful one becomes, the higher the goal will be set, and the more one will become motivated to achieve them. On the other hand the more one fails; the more likely goal will be lowered along with a corresponding loss of interest (Bandura, 1997). In support of this, Karageorghis (1999) opined that an overbearing, unrealistic challenge can cause excess anxiety which means that the coach should ensure that athletes set realistic goals. Conversely, if athletes bring a high level of skill to an activity and the challenge that it provides is relatively low it can result in boredom. An example is Michael Essien who is in his peak performance, asked, to play in Ghana's local football league which is far below his standard.

In view of this, Bandura (1997) and Shunk (1996) have said that the individual's achievement improves when he/she sets goals that are specific, proximal, and challenging. They explain that specific is short term. An example is when one is hurt in a match, like Wayne Rooney, who six weeks before the world

cup, went through a series of processes like daily physiotherapy session, and medical exercises, to mention a few to regain full fitness. Proximal, is medium term, while challenging is a long term. An example of medium term is the United States' heptathlete, Kelly Sotherton who won a bronze medal at the 2004 Athens Olympics, set herself the medium term goal of winning 2006 Commonwealth title in Melbourne en route to pursuing her long term goal to be crowned Olympic champion at the 2008 Beijing Games. Daft and Marcic (2004) and Armstrong (2003), stipulate that well motivated people are those with clearly set goals who take action that they expect will achieve these goals.

Females are motivated to participate for various reasons and their participation also varies from person to person. This will again depend on their personalities, lifestyles, goals, and needs; Kraus (2001) thinks people participate because they want to have fun and enjoyment. In another study females participate in sports for the reason of achievement/status, team atmosphere, energy release, skill development, friendship, and fun (Tanglang, Hamafyelto & Bwala, 1996; Hamafyelto & Badego, 2002). In a similar study, social interaction and improving appearance are the main motivations in females (Senate Committee Inquiry, 2005). Yet in another study, health benefit, encouragement from school and family, and social advantage are the three main motivations for regular sports participation of females, hence sport was seen as a way of having fun and reducing stress and other chronic diseases (Cox, Coleman, & Rocker, 2005).

Unfortunately many of the females do not participate in university sports. A study conducted by Cox, Coleman, & Rucker (2005), revealed that, females who did not participate said transition from high school made sports no longer compulsory, they had less time because of education commitment; they were self conscious about themselves and were part of social group that did not participate in sport. Several of them in this group mentioned that they just dislike sport in general and it appears that nothing could alter that deep rooted belief. In another development a coach, who was not liked by the athlete could bring about demotivation and then eventual dropping out of females from sports (Martin, 1997). A lack of opportunity to be involved in sports could bring about demotivation in sports. In a survey conducted by Sports and Recreation South Africa (2005) revealed that lack of opportunity was cited mostly by the African and colored communities and the Asian and white groups tended to place more emphasis on time constraints.

Again, a study conducted by Erkut, Sing and Marx (1996) revealed that half of Pan American, Native American, African American, European American, Asian, and Pacific American females reported that although they were aware of the benefits of participating in sports and physical activity, their parents prevented them from taking part, and rather advised them to take their academic work seriously. It has also been observed that girls rely on adult's comments, parents, coaches, and teachers, play a particular important role in motivating them to participate. Females are more likely to enjoy sport if they think that relevant adults have realistic expectations, provide support, and encouragement, for their

efforts, and refrain from making negative evaluations of their performance (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001). In addition socio-economic stratification could play a role in low motivation of females' participation. Research reveals that participants from high socio-economic status homes showed more positive disposition to recreation and sports. They are motivated to do sports right from infancy (Adeyanju & Alla, 2006; Burrow & Bammel, 1992; Cox, Coleman, & Rocker, 2005). Mercer and Mercer (1998) identify the provision of a positive and supportive learning environment as one of the crucial instructional variables related to learning. It may be a simple remark like "that is good" a smile, or praise. Again, in handling students who lack interest and confidence in their ability to perform, a negative reward would rather kill their interest and desire to participate.

Furthermore, one may not be motivated to take part in sports, either because of perceived lack of skill necessary to take part in sports or because of perceived lack of skill necessary to engage in a particular leisure activity (Edginton, Jordan, Degraaf & Edginton, 2002). Another constraint may be health reason. One's ability to engage in successful physical activities may be restricted. Women may sometimes be demotivated because of dress code for activities. In a study by Women's Sport Foundation (2007), Muslim girls and women practice Islamic Law which prevents them from appearing in front of men dressed in inappropriate attire. An example is the swim suit. Even some non-Muslim females feel reluctant to wear tight fitting and or revealing sportswear that will embarrass them, while others feel that being watched while doing sport can be

excruciatingly painful for them (Cockburn & Clarke, 2002; Youth Sports Trust/Nike, 1999).

Females are not encouraged to take sports as a challenge due to media discrimination. Lack of role models, the under-representation of female athletes in the media, limits the role models that girls and young women have (CAAWS, 2002). There are other factors that may affect females' level of motivation. Ikulayo (1990) outlines such variables, as absence of audience, neutral or negative attitude of the audience, sports facilities, and equipment.

Peer Influence

Peer influence is seen to be operating from cradle to grave, even though it becomes very operational when the child begins to think and take decisions for him or herself. Giuliano, Popp and Knight (2000) pointed out that peers are a major influence of socialisation of females at each life cycle stage (childhood, adolescent, and early adulthood). The transition of students from secondary school to the university becomes more of liberation from many rules and controls. Students now become independent and rational being, but peer influence continues to operate with students spending more time with friends. Their social life as friends regarding where, when and what they choose to do. In support of this assertion Steinberg (2002) stated that peer groups have become an increasingly important context in which the youth spend their time.

Giuliano, Popp & Knight (2002) who studied the extent, to which childhood play activities predict future participation by women indicated that childhood play activities should be considered along with other agents of

socialisation, especially, peer group as an important factor in producing future sports participation by females. Peer group can be motivating factors which can be beneficial or detrimental and problematic to female participation since the modern adolescent spend a remarkable amount of time with their peers (Navarro, 1996). Pitman (1995) outlines ten basic needs of the youth one of which says the youth want to belong and need opportunities to form positive social relationships with adults and peers. Lack of confidence that many girls already feel in their skill level, appearance, and physical competence can be compounded by the way their peers treat them, particularly in school. Many endure the results about their bodies by their school mates. It was observed by Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) that, females are very sensitive to comments about their bodies during adolescence and this may discourage them from taking part in sports.

Choices made are more likely to be determined by what others choose rather than what the individual really wants (Mulvihil, 2003) and many factors influence whether an individual will conform or not. Ciadini and Trost (1998) Taylor, Peplan and Sears (1997) give a more detailed account of conformity by saying that people conform because of their normative social influence or informative influence. They further explained that normative social influence implies conformity; because of the influence other people have on one, either to seek approval, or to avoid their disapproval. An example given is that a person may take up jogging because everybody in the group is jogging. This presupposes that when normative influence is at work one conforms in order to be liked and accepted by others. Likewise, informative social influence on the other hand

causes people to conform because they want to be right. An example is, if a person does not know much about computers and a friend or friends who know computers advise him or her not to buy a particular brand, he is likely to conform to what they will recommend. Santrock (2000) in support of this view said, conformity involves a change in a person's behaviour to coincide more with group standard. This presupposes that if one feels that a group is important to one, conformity would be the result. Kunesh, Handbook and Lewthwaite (1996) opined that a lot of females were more likely than male counterparts to require a friend to accompany them when pursuing sports and that peer relationship in sports and with self perceptions, positive and negative effect and other construct, that represent sport motivation.

During childhood, peer group are found in the immediate neighbourhood and tend to be similar in values during adolescent years. This supposes that peer group are located within Senior High Schools and the university as well, and, therefore, may include individuals with different values and interests. This confirms the finding of Giuliano, Popp, & Knight (2000) that these mixed together influence people's participation in sports and related facets of lifestyle. In another study by Steinberg (2002) it was revealed that peer group provides more frequent opportunities for interaction and leisure which contribute to the development of intimacy and enhance the adolescent's mood and psychological well-being. Taylor, Peplan, & Sears (1997) emphasized that, if a group is important to you, you might wear a particular kind of clothing, adopt a particular hairstyle and show a certain set of attitudes that characterize the group members.

Female students in the university may be influenced either positively or negatively by their peers.

It is worthy to note then, that peer groups are extremely hard to live without. Being popular and liked is very important to the youth, and popularity is often linked with a particular clique and the crowd. Peer groups are the major influence in socialisation of females throughout each life cycle, that is, childhood, adolescence, and early adulthood (Giuliano, Popp, & Knight, 2000). In view of this, Navarro (1996) outlines the following reasons why relationships are important and the factors that contribute to peer relationships;

1. If they are not involved, the youth miss out on opportunities to learn social skills that will be important throughout their lives.
2. Youth without on-going peer involvement or relationships may miss opportunities to build a sense of social confidence.

Steinberg (2002) in another study revealed that individuals who have poor peer relationships during adolescence are more likely than their socially accepted peers to be low achievers in school, to drop out of high school, to have a range of learning disabilities, to show higher rates of delinquent behaviour, and to suffer from an array of emotional and mental health problems.

Many other research studies have shown positive and negative influence of peer group on female sports participation. For instance, a study conducted by Cox, Wiggins-James, Thompson, & Hartington (2005) revealed that young women who always participated were part of a social group who also regularly participated in sports. This was connected to influence their on-going high level

of sport involvement. Those who never participated said their peers were inactive and this made them less likely to get involved. In this view, Steinberg (2002) pointed out that, there has been a shift from post configurative cultures in which socialisation of young people is accomplished through contacts between people of the same age and not children and elders any more. He added that the adolescent need to go to members of their generation for advice, guidance, and information. This depicts the fact that the youth want to be popular enough to fit in with peers and have friends they can depend on, they actually want to control their lives.

When girls are called 'tom boys', they receive social disapproval, but it does not matter when boys are called 'Sissies'. As girls grow older and their bodies become sexualised, considering gender ideology, the misconception that they would be physically tough, but then, women should look attractive and sexually desirable to men. Sometimes their boy friends encourage them to drop out of sports that are too rough or that interfere with their availability for the young men (Coakley, 2001).

Values in Sports

Health and Fitness

Biologically, human beings are designed to be active creatures. Changes in civilization have resulted in decrease in the amount of activity needed to accomplish the basic tasks associated with living (Prentice, 2000). It is, therefore, important for people to see the need for physical activity in accomplishing the amount of activity needed. Pertinently, sports give the participants physical well-being, good health, sense of enjoyment, and satisfaction (Brightbill and Mayer,

1993). According to Orlokor (2000), a man is healthy when he has developed in the body and mind up to average standards and is capable of adapting himself to any physical or mental stress which changes in chances of moral life “are likely to impose upon him” It has been observed that physical activity though not a panacea to the attainment of high level of health, when combined with other factors such as diet, can raise the level of normal individual health. Happiness is brought about when one is healthy. A large body of evidence suggests that, when one is healthy, one is able to go about ones daily activities without undue fatigue. As the saying goes, “an active mind needs a healthy body” (Shehu, 1999), and “to be wealthy one should be healthy” (Anejo, 2006). Regular and moderate physical activity is an essential requirement for healthy growth and development (Anejo).

There is plenty of evidence about health benefit of females participating in sport and physical activity. According to Perry (2006) much research has been done and some of the statistics that are reproduced are:

1. Protection against cardiovascular diseases and several cancers
2. Reduced risks of diabetes, hypertension, obesity, high cholesterol, falling with injuries especially older people and improves mental health.

Perry found that, women who exercise for (4) hours a week reduce their health risk by over 50%, and 1 – 3 hours a week reduces their risk by 30%. Vuori (2003) in the same vein expressed that physical exercises have to be one of the foundations of treatment of heart diseases which is number one killer in Europe, and causes half of the diseases in the world. Another study by Anejo indicates that there is an improvement in metabolism, more efficient functioning of

circulation and respiration, improved muscular tone, and coordination, achievement of greater flexibility, and improved general body efficiency. Giuliano, Popp, & Knight (2000) reported that there was physiological evidence, that sports reduces stress and depression and enhances higher self-esteem, better body, and enhances sense of competence and control. One study reveals that, 3 hours of exercise a week over a female's reproductive lifetime (teenage to about 40) have been found to bring a 20-30% reduction risk of breast cancer and 60% reduction when exercise is 4 or more hours. It was also found out that there is a delay in ageing in women (Senate Committee Inquiry, 2005). In another development participation in sports can be used as a therapeutic and preventive intervention for enhancing the physical and mental health of the adolescent (Carbon, 1994). According to Giuliano et al. (2000) and CAAWS (2004), participation in sports reduces the risk of developing chronic disease and osteoporosis and is essential in maintaining good image and discouraging disordered eating and smoking. The reverse of the above are the consequences of sedentary females.

In the light of these values derived from sports, Conroy (2006), and Vuori (2000) revealed that, the European Heart Network (EHN), and other Non-Governmental Organizations in Europe, recommended the promotion of physical activity in schools and communities for the creation of awareness and prevention of cardio-vascular diseases, especially, coronary heart diseases. In support of these Giuliano et al., Zimmerman and Reavill (1998) have trumpeted the benefit of sports and physical activity for women and girls' well-being, and have urged

parents to do whatever it takes to get their daughters involved. Okuneye (2002) revealed that the level of awareness on the benefit of exercise to individual' health is high, particularly, among elite, yet they do not get involved. While the benefits of participation in sports and exercise vastly outweigh the risk of permanent injury, an evolving concern is the number of stress fractures in active women. It has been observed that females who participate regularly in sport may develop certain medical conditions. Papanek (2003), America Academy of Paediatrics (2000) opines that the female athlete triad is used to describe three coexistent medical conditions that may occur in athletic girls and women. These are abnormal eating patterns (disordered eating/learning, disordered behaviour) which can be associated with menstrual dysfunction (amenorrhea or oligomenorrhea, and subsequent decrease of bone mineral density (osteoporosis or osteopenia). These may impair athletic performance and increase injury, a factor that may scare females away from participating in sports. In support of this view, Stewart and Taylor (2002) in a study found that out of 169, of 22 athletes who had quit sport, had the most common reason given, being injury.

Misconceptions, and finally speculations about females' participation, have been found to be playing major roles in females dropping out of sports. The impact is so great that even literates still consider those to be true and their opinions greatly impact on participation of females in sports. There is a belief that females who take part in various competitive physical activities do develop heavy muscles and cannot be very feminine. For many girls being sporty is felt to be at odds with being feminine. (Women Sports Foundation 2007, Wuest &

Bucher 1999). Hartmann-Tews (1994) perceived that, the biggest concern has been that females felt sports offered at school are a hindrance. The fear is that sports competitions tend to masculinize the behaviour and structure of girls. The British government at one time issued an official report which stated that “games” for girls would lead to being flat chested and would impede their childbearing capacities (Lumpkin, 2002; Harris, 1987) Women themselves cooperated in reinforcing the notion that female health was harmed by competitive sports. According to Eitzen and Sage (1993) in 1928, Ethel Pervin, Chairperson of the Executive Committee of Women’s Division of the National Athletic Federation, was vocal on opposing women participating in the Olympic Games. This is what she said that “Girls are not suited for the same athletic programme as boys. The difference between them cannot be ignored. Under prolonged and intense physical strain a girl goes to pieces nervously... The fact that a girl’s nervous resistance cannot hold at an intensive physical strain, is nature’s warning. A little more strain and she will be in danger, both physically and nervously” (p. 322). She was not the only female who opposed women participation. Women physical educators were also opposed to athletics because they suspected health dangers in participation. It was not until the 1960’s that AAHPER began active promotion of interschool sports programmes for girls.

Another well entrenched myth is that sports can have a physical injury on the reproductive organs and the breast, effect on menstrual cycle and pregnancy. Eitzen and Sage (1993) wrote that in 1920, Ernest Herman Arnold, a well respected physical educator reported that athletics sports caused a diminution in

the number, extent, and flow during menstrual periods and, accordingly, any reduction in the menses resulted in a reduction in fertility (p. 332). It has been observed that the physiology of women is number one reason society limits the participation of women in sports. Any ailment that a woman had from a sore throat to back pain was thought to be related to the uterus (Powel, 2002). He added that physicians agreed with the theory that, all women were frail and weak, making them unable to participate in sports. Thus, some opponents to women's sports inferred that college women who participated in exercise would become unfeminine, muscular, and subject to routine damage. Strangely enough, the assumption of women's health being governed by her womb was not seriously challenged until later in the twentieth century (Victorian Women in Sport, 2002). Eitzen and Sage (1993) opined that lack of knowledge with regard to total impact of sport and physical activity involvement upon the females combine to prevent women from taking active role in sports.

However, some people also believe that physical exercise could benefit women by helping with birthing process (Victorian Women in Sports). In support of this assertion, Eitzen and Sage reported that, a study by G. S. Endely and E. Zahariva on over 740 female athletes showed that they actually had shorter labour periods than average women, and 50% fewer Caesarean sections than in normal populations. Yet, in another study, Per Olof Astrand a famous exercise physiologist reported that the obstetric and gynaecologic histories of a group of 84 former champion swimmers were normal (Eitzen & Sage). Research has suggested that, the health hazards were imaginary. Eitzen and Sage again reported

that, the external genitalia of females is less exposed than those of men, and can easily be protected with safety equipment. They also refuted the idea that, participation delays the onset of regular menstruation. Menstruating athletes have set national and world records. Eitzen and Sage similarly declared that complications of pregnancy and childbirth are fewer in female athletes than in non-athletes.

Though vigorous physical activity contain certain dangers to health, some measure of risk must be accepted as inherent in the nature of many activities, but there are dangers which are obscured by ignorance or many attitudes, loneliness, anxiety, resentment, irritability, and depression. McGlynn (1996) reported that when people leave the sedentary world and enter the realm of vigorous exercise, they would experience discomforts, mild aches and pains, a slight breathing difficulty, and a feeling of fatigue. He concluded that these discomforts are usually minor and temporary.

Socialisation

Eitzen and Sage (1993) opined that socialization begins at birth and continues throughout the individuals' life cycle. He, however, continues that, the years from adolescence are considered the critical years since it is in those years that the basic cultural transmission takes place. Socialization occurs as one interacts with another and becomes acquainted with the social world in which one lives (Coakley, 2001). In view of this assertion Gensemer (1995) posited that sports is seen as a microcosm of society, and as such, can be an effective agent of socialization. Green et al. (2005) supported this view by saying that, most of the

scholars who study sports in society see sports as sites for socialization experiences rather than as causes of specific social outcomes.

One can be socialized by agents who can affect one either positively or negatively. The agents of socialization are parents, peer group, siblings, mass media, and status. According to Eitzen and Sage, “The learning of sports role occur through the exposure of the role aspirant who is already characterized by a set of physical and psychological traits... to a variety of stimuli and reinforcements provided by significant others (some of whom are role models), all of whom are acting within one or more norm-encumbered social system” (p. 84).

Gensemer (1995) thus confirms that, socialization imposes constraints in the range of acceptable behaviour, hence has an element of conformity. Sports can make a difference in society by bringing people of different races together and also be used to reduce social problems such as crime unwanted pregnancies, increased HIV awareness etc. Sports and Recreation South Africa (2005); Eitzen and Sage (1993) corroborated this view in a statement that, sports provide innumerable opportunities for the individual to perceive the feeling for others and their judgement, including the development of self-image, or self concept. This presupposes that, becoming involved and staying involved in sports occur in connection with general socialization process. Yet Coakley (2001) remarked that, people are not passive learners in socialization process; it is an interactive process through which one actively connects with others, synthesizes information, and makes decisions that shape one’s life, and the social world around one.

It has been observed that females with low self-esteem are more likely to use tobacco, alcohol or other drugs. Conversely, females who are active are far less likely to use tobacco, alcohol, or other drugs (CAAWS, 2004). It is important, therefore, for a normal individual to have friendship and companionship or association with other persons, because the interaction with other humans promotes a feeling of worth a feeling of security from group acceptance, approval and recognition which in turn will help him adopt socially (Anejo, 2006). In support of this, Ibraheem and Ogedegbe (2006) said that athletes participate to make friend and to know permanent people both within and outside the country, before and after they engaged victorious.

The family plays a very important role in the socialization of the female. Giuliano et al. (2000) compared the influence of individual family members upon female and male participation in sports. They stressed that, compared to females who were not very involved in sports, females who were highly involved had received more encouragement from a family member (father, mother, brother, sister) who valued sports more and perceived themselves to be more competent with respect to sports. In a similar study, Coakley (2001) found perceived gender differences in sports socialization. Females often perceived participating in sports as incompatible with ‘becoming a woman’, thus, they were more likely to assign sports to a low priority in their lives Giuliano et al. in another study confirmed that females reported feeling much more constraint by parental rules surrounding their schedules of choices of activities than did males. Moreover, girls whose parents regularly exercise are much more likely to continue their involvement in

sport than their inactive parent counterparts. Yet, in another study, Wuest and Bucher (1999) indicated that a 1989 sample of female college Volleyball and Basketball players received more support and encouragement from their families, peers, and coaches, throughout their life span than did non-athletes. Greendofner (1993) added that family encouragement and actual participation were the primary source of sports socialization. While some get encouragement from significant others to play sport, others make the efforts to watch their sons to compete, but not their daughters (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001). In support of this assertion Eitzen and Sage (1993) submitted in a study that sons have been more often encouraged participating in more active sports while daughters have been more often reinforced for engaging in sedentary activities.

In addition to the issue of the importance of various family members on socialisation of females into sports, there is also the question about the socio-economic status of the family. Donnelly (1996), Wilson (2002) and Kew (1997) demonstrated that active sports involvement is correlated with social class characteristics and as a consequence, the higher the social class, the greater the rate of participation and overall involvement in sports among females. Choices of sports are also seen to be associated with social class. Eitzen and Sage (1993) found on investigation that age group swimmers came from upper-middle class families while baseball, boxing and football programmes tend to attract lower-social status females. Decisions to socialize into sports, therefore, are influenced by the availability of opportunities, the existence of social support, the process of

identity formation, and the cultural context in which decisions are made (Coakley, 2001).

The peer group serves as a powerful socialization agent for sports involvement of females. Greendorfer (1993) indicated in a study that, peers were the major influence throughout early life cycle, early childhood, adolescence, and adulthood. In another study to ascertain what motivates student athletes to participate in sports, it was discovered that, the youth chose to participate for excitement, and for the ability to socialize with peers (Strategies, 2005; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001). Females can be influenced more by what they watch than for how long. The increased popularity of elite sports in the media may result in more positive attitudes to sports. Conversely, a decrease in participation may result due to portrayal of sport as entertainment (Centre for Health Promotion Studies, 2003)

Socialization outcomes which are values, personal attitudes, and skills are considered important for the person being socialized in particular and society as a whole Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) Burrow & Bammel (1992) opined that leisure fosters opportunities for more social contacts, development, and achievement. Buami (2006) supports the claim by saying that sports serve as a means of socializing those individuals who identify with it; in sports both spectators and supporters get united as a family through cheering the team or individuals they identify themselves with. Edginton et al (2002) think that, leisure activities help the youth to learn about forbidden topics such as sexuality and tolerance among others.

However, powerful and shocking information suggesting that social worlds created around men's power and performance sports, subvert respect for women and promote the image of women as 'game' to be pursued and conquered (Curry, 1998, Leftkowitz, 1997, Nack & Musson, 1995). Highly publicized cases of assaults, sexual assaults, rapes, and even murder that involve athletes who play those sports carries over to personal relationship out of the field, especially, relationship with women (Benedict, 1998; Leftkowitz, and Robinson, 1998). Aggression in sports may contribute to the drop out of females from participating. They feel that these are irresponsible and immoral behaviour. According to Apochie (2002, p.7) the male students of Aggrey Memorial School in Cape Coast beat up the female students, because they refused to join them for the inter-college sports. When this happens it puts fear in the females to participate, and in turn may lead to low self esteem. This has been correlated in the view of Giuliano et al (2000) and CAAWS (2004) with many negative consequences including high susceptibility to peer pressure, low life satisfaction, loneliness, anxiety, resentment, irritability, and depression.

Facilities and Equipments

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

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

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

This also raises the question of income and status, whereby females from higher income homes have the opportunities to practice from infancy and are likely to participate in university sports. Burrow and Bammel (1992) agreed with this assertion that females from higher income homes have swimming pools in

their yards, installed saunas, exercise equipment, large television screen and personal computers (p. 327). Nowadays, equipment and clothing for sports can be expensive. One may have to put on good clothing for activities and lack of money to buy these could be a factor for non-participation. Women Sports foundation (2007) indicated that images of the above people can promote the idea that unless you are dressed in favourable design clothing for a particular sport, you will look out of place.

It has also been observed that image falls as distance grows between users home and the facilities, and rises with those who live near the facility (Asabia, 2002). He cited Frank Ofori a national tennis player who rose to that position as a result of the nearness of his father's residence to the tennis court at Kaneshie Sports Complex, as a living example in Ghana. Burrow and Bammel (1992) in their work similarly submitted that place of residence has great effect on the type of opportunity that is readily available. Proximity to services and facilities can influence young people's participation in physical activity. Most females may feel lazy going out of their Halls to recreational centres, especially, when they are far away. If facilities were near, females might show interest in sports. NSW Department of Sports and Recreation (2000) found in a study that a well designed physical facility attracts people and encourages them to use it. The way facilities are managed and its atmosphere can either encourage or discourage people's active involvement in sports.

The Halls may have few indoor games, but they are usually occupied by men. Females who may be interested may not be bold to play with them; those

who may be bold to play may be intimidated by the men. This claim is supported by Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) when their report indicated that boys dominate space in school playground and sporting arenas and tell girls that they cannot play. Similarly Davis (1999) remarked that teachers will assign duties and manage equipment according to stereotypes. Female students', even highly skilled females, are often left out of the game interactions allowing male students to dominate the game setting. Yet, in another investigation, Murray (1991) revealed that a famous football coach proclaimed that, if girls and women participate it will emasculate his players. Eitzen and Sage (1993) opined that facility for female high schools and college programmes have customarily been second-rate. The newer and later gymnasium routinely went to males while the older gymnasium was routinely given to the females.

Females then cannot play sports if they cannot get access to the necessary facilities (Women's Sports Foundation, 2007). In disagreement to this assertion, Sports and Recreation South Africa (2005) concluded in their studies that people will participate in sports or not regardless of human access to sports club or sport equipment and kit.

Clothing which are so revealing may be a barrier to some females. Some females feel shy while doing sports in this kit and more so being watched by others. Examples are the obese and those who are self conscious about their bodies. Women's Sports Foundation (2007) appears to support this view that, girls and women feel very reluctant to wear tight-fitting and revealing sports

wears. Some will rather not do sports at all than face the embarrassment. In addition, Islamic religions do not allow their females to be in such sports wear.

Moreover, females who attended schools in the rural areas may be limited in skill due to lack of access to facilities and equipment. Burrow and Bammel (1992) revealed in a study that 'cities consistently neglect the recreation needs of tenement district; the recreational facilities and services for the urban poor are inadequate' (p.327). He further concluded that American remote or wilderness areas received about 7% of outdoors recreation, all the rest occurred in developed areas. Women Sports Foundation (1998) noted that class goes along with higher income, more education, better housing, and thus, facilities and equipment, and the access to more sports activities.

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

The issue of facilities has been found to be one of the problems being encountered by sportsmen and women. The reason is that the existing facilities are obsolete and in states of disrepair. The sporting world has reached a stage where complex facilities and equipment are needed for teaching, practicing, and

competition. Speaking on the lack of sports facilities and equipment in Ghana, Osei (2007), the former Minister for Youth and Sports stated that 'it is sad to say that a park like Kaladan where one of the nations Greatest heroes, Abedi Pele, played, the Sekondi Gyandu Park, and the Tema Stadium cannot boast of any good playing fields. The boxing gyms at Bukom and James Town, have provided boxing, heroes, but have nothing to show for this feat'. Of course one should not doubt the importance of adequate facilities and equipment in meeting the objectives of physical education and sports programs. In support of this Lundy (1998) in his address on participation and the foundation of elite success said, "Poor and non-existing infrastructure is a major problem and present structural barrier; ...community sporting infrastructure, there are definitely a number of areas that must be addressed if we are to increase the level of participation of women in sports" (p.12).

Administrative Policies

Educational administrators play a key role in the development of sound educational sports programmes. They are those individuals responsible for the setting of objectives and goals of an organization or institution and then develop strategies to reach the set goals. Agyenim-Boateng and Baafi-Frimpong (2000) opined that, the educational administrator has become responsible for the promotion of relations between the organizational members that are mutually satisfying. Harmony and high staff morale are considered essential for improved teaching and learning.

Participation in university sports can be satisfying when there is mutual relationship between the administrator and the coaches. In some universities coaches are positioned in passive role to act on the whims of powerful others, and students remain out of view derived worthy and essential comments in relation to how and or who of policy. Wuest and Bucher (1999) stressed the functions of the administrator as indispensable in every institution including the running of sports; he or she takes decisions on material, monetary and human resources. This function of the administrator makes him or her authority over all activities and as a result his attitude can promote or ruin sports programmes in the University. Adegbola (2000) supports this view by saying that although physical education is prescribed, the extent of delivery is related to the head teacher's attitude. Edwards and Crawford (1990) similarly opined that in America the administrators stressed the "3 R's" and rationalized educational dollars by reducing or even eliminating certain "frill" courses such as physical education.

The mutual relationship also calls for administrative policies that are favourable for such sports promotion in general and the females in particular. Policy decisions are always intentional and inevitably involve allocation of value. Penney and Harris (1999) view policy as a complex on-going, always contested process in which there are struggles over the values, interests and definitions reflecting fundamental schools, knowledge, and ought to be. Some policies may be favourable others would not. Senate Committee Inquiry into Women in Sports and Recreation in Australia (2005) in a move to improve sports and recreation opportunities for women and girls instituted three scholarship schemes. Nawe

(2001) writing on policy to involve more women in university education, said measures taken include lowering cut-off point and allowing females to join the university immediately after national service, instead of spending another year elsewhere, which was the requirement for all 'A' level school leavers before joining the university. In a similar move to improve sports in the University of Cape-Coast, the Vice-Chancellor made a policy which is impacting on the lives of sportsmen and women positively on campus. There is the addition of 0.5 to all sports students' grades as a top-up, scholarships in the form of non payments of non-residential user fees and the allocation of rooms in the traditional halls of residence in appreciation of the sacrifices done by these sportsmen and women to up-lift the university's image. However, sports has for some time in recent years, suffered from some form of disappointment due to the appointment of some Vice-Chancellors who are not so much enthused about sports.

As said earlier some policies may be advantageous whilst others may not be. Acheampong (1997) noted that more and more students have left universities with less and less time for activities other than academics, with the introduction of semester and course unit system in the Ghanaian universities. In the early 1980's Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, changed the old programme to the semester system and used the continuous assessment as their method of evaluation. University of Cape-Coast, in 1989 also adopted the system and the continuous assessment, and even added the unit system to their curriculum. The University of Ghana in 1980 introduced the continuous assessment in its curriculum, but did not adopt the semester system; it was later in

1992 that the university introduced the semester system into its programme of study. This policy has made the academic work vigorous, and students who may have possibly participated in sports, are more often constrained by time, let alone females, who may feel shy to see their names on the trailed list on the notice boards. This assertion is supported by Cox et al (2005) who concluded in a study that, most of the females who did not participate in sports cited time constraint, especially transition from High school to College as the main reason for their non-participation.

Talking about the situation of sports in the university, Coakley (2001) posited that, if faculty members were to administer academic support service for student-athletes, things would be better. As a policy some universities in Ghana are trying to leave one of the afternoons for sports so that students could be involved in sports. Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, has Wednesday afternoons as its sports participation time whilst the University of Cape-Coast has chosen Tuesday afternoons. It has been observed that it is during this day and time that some pro sports lecturers fix their quizzes and lectures. Coakley (2001) wrote that many coaches may schedule practices and games that do not interfere with coursework, however, students may miss games meet due to the time of study for, or take tests, or give presentations. Acheampong (1997) in support said some lecturers may even advice students not to be partakers in sports because they are in the university to do academic work, and they do sports at their own detriment. Nevertheless, the Women Sport Foundation (1998), and Giuliano et al. (2000), agree that there is a positive

relationship between sports involvement and academic achievement as measured by grade-point average, standardised test scores, lowered risk for dropping out, and greater likelihood of attending and staying at school. Shalala (1997) also released a report which demonstrates that the benefits of physical activity and sports for girls extend beyond physical health to improved academic achievement, self confidence, and better mental health. However, in some quarters athletes may be favoured. Coakley (2001) confirmed that in big time colleges in America, even faculty members who are not sports 'friendly', especially the athletics department sometimes are pressured to give special considerations to student-athletes.

Successful management of university sports programmes generally needs to be ensured, and all stakeholders must work towards the achievement of objectives with and through people. The coach works to improve and coordinate intramural and extramural sporting programmes of the institution, but the coach could be constrained in the performance of these tasks if there is no cordial relationship with his colleagues, and more especially, his superiors. Fadoju (2000) confirms this assertion when he said that if a physical education teacher does not have good rapport with his head, he can have impediments in his/her way. This, in effect, would affect students' participation.

Adequate financial position needs to be made for sporting programmes to enhance its full patronage. An example is when funds are not released or even delayed for the organisation of programmes so that incentives such as cash prizes and trophies which are supposed to boost the morale of participants are not

realised. It discourages them from joining the next sports programme especially the ladies. In the 2006/2007 Inter-Hall sporting activity of the University of Cape-Coast, an increase in number of female participation was noted, because of the “fat envelope” given as cash prizes. With this, it presupposes that financial aid is an important influence. However, Bucher (2000) stressed that apart from making sure that policies for the raising and spending of money must be well reasoned out, persons responsible should know the procedures, which include, integrating basic purpose for which the programmes exist, the codes, and regulations concerning fiscal management.

Summary

The purpose of this literature review has been to find out what other people’s research have been on the field of females participation in sports, especially the influences of coaches attitude, skill level, motivation, peer influence, values in sports, facilities, equipment, and administrative policies on female participation in university sports.

It could be deduced from the discussion that constraints to women’s participation in sports were socio-cultural, socio-economics and policy related. There were also beliefs which have been developed through the years, the home being the office of the female was found to be militating against the females, especially sports participation in relation to reproductive system. Socio-economic status of parents was found to be prevalent in most studies reviewed.

Information on skill level was found to be related to socio-cultural influence and lack of basic foundations by females during early years in school.

Almost all the studies traced the problem to the colonial period, which emphasized the education of women in the field mainly related to the home responsibilities and grooming to be feminine. Peer influence was also penned to have influence on the university female student.

In view of this the degree of the disparities between females and males and the under representation in schools, especially, at the higher level have serious repercussions on the development of sports in the university and the country as a whole. The reviewed literature establishes the importance of women's sports participation, and as a result policies have been put in place by the administration, women's movements, and NGO'S to encourage females to participate in sports.

Despite the benefits in sports participation and policies put in place, males continue to out-number females in sports participation in the universities. There are few students who have been able to incorporate the school work with sports participation. This implies that Ghanaian female university students have still not caught up with males as in other developed countries.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The study was to find out factors that were associated with the low female participation in sports in universities in Ghana. This chapter deals with the research procedure and explains the methods of investigation of the problem of the study. The research procedures and methodology used were presented under the following headings for discussion:

1. Research design
2. Population
3. Samples and sampling technique
4. Instrumentation
5. Validity and reliability
6. Data collection
7. Data analysis

Research Design

The study was to find out the opinions of respondents, mainly sports women of the universities, on some major variables believed to be associated with low female participation in sports in the universities in Ghana. The descriptive survey design was therefore utilised for the study.

The design was chosen because of its disposition for generalizability from a sample to a population, so that inferences could be made about perceptions, characteristics, and attitudes on basis of data gathered at a point in time (Ary, Jacobs and Razavich, 2002). The design was also chosen because it has the advantage of producing good amount of responses from a wide range of people.

Population

The target population for this study was sportswomen who participated in the 29th Ghana Universities Sports Association games which took place in Tamale from 19th to 29th February 2008. The universities were university of Ghana, Legon (UG), Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) Kumasi, University of Cape Coast (UCC), University of Education Winneba (UEW) and University of Development Studies (UDS) Tamale. The estimated size of the population was 402 made up of 100 from U.G 80 from KNUST, 80 from UCC, 70 from UEW, and 72 from UDS.

Sample and Sampling Technique

A sample of 250 participants was chosen for the study made up of 50 respondents from each of the five universities.

In order to obtain a reliable sample, lists of sportswomen from the five universities were obtained from the sports coaches. Each sportswoman from each university was assigned a number. A sampling frame was, therefore, obtained from each university list. The simple random technique of sampling was used to select respondents for the study. A table of random numbers by Sarantakos (1998)

was used for the selection of respondents on each university list. List of names of selected respondents from each university were prepared for data collection.

Instrument

A self-structured questionnaire with assistance from the principal supervisor and second supervisor was used for data collection. The questionnaire contained 39 items of close-ended type. The respondents were to choose responses applicable to statements given by ticking in the appropriate column.

The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section A contained bio-data of the respondents which helped in tracing the institutions of respondents. Section B contained items based on a five point Likert scale, with the responses being Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD). For coding purposes the points 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 were used to represent strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree in that order.

The items in the questionnaire were based solely on contributing factors for low female participation in sports in Ghanaian Universities as indicated in the major hypothesis and sub-hypotheses.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

The questionnaire was given to some students and physical education lecturers of the department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation of the University of Cape Coast to ascertain the validity of the variables under investigation as well as their understanding of the statements. The expert views of the supervisors were sought in restructuring some of the statements.

For reliability of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted on 50 female sports participants of the Kumasi Polytechnic. That institution was selected because it had identical characteristics with the population chosen for the study. The responses were vetted, scored on a 5-point Likert scale, and subjected to a reliability test using SPSS Windows 11.0. The purpose was to determine whether the questionnaire was reliable and whether the statements were internally consistent and homogeneous. The researcher chose the Cronbach Alpha Reliability Test to determine the reliability coefficient. The reliability quotient obtained was 0.92.

Data Collection Procedure

Research assistance from the five universities who had earlier been asked to assist the researcher in data collection agreed to do so. They all had had some experience in research work. Lists or sampled respondents including their names were given to the five research assistants belonging to the five universities. Each assistant was given 50 copies of the questionnaire to be given to the specified sports women on the list. The questionnaire was given to the selected sportswomen after the day's competition when they were relaxing in their hostels. Copies of the questionnaire were given by hand to the respondents with the instructions to complete them within a day or two only. The 29th GUSA games lasted 10 days from 19th to 29th February 2008. The completed questionnaires were retrieved from the 25th to the 26th when most of the sportswomen had finished their competitions and were free to respond to the questionnaire. The

returns were 50 from U.G, 50 from KNUST, 50 from U.C.C, 48 from U.E.W and 37 from U.D.S, making a total of 235 or 93.4%.

Data Analysis

The data for the study were tallied under the various items and analysed statistically according to the format required by SPSS Windows 11.0. Each questionnaire was vetted and serially numbered in the order in which they were received. The responses were quantified, and coded on a broad data summary sheet to allow for easy loading into the computer. The values table assigned to the categories on the Likert scale was as follows:

Positive		Negative	
1	- Strongly Agree	-	5
2	- Agree	-	4
3	- Undecided	-	3
4	- Disagree	-	2
5	- Strongly Disagree	-	1

The frequencies of the results were subjected to percentages. Chi-square goodness of-fit test was used to test the differences in responses among the various groups to determine whether there were any significant relationships between the selected variables believed to be associated with the factors associated with the low female participation in university sports in Ghana.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to determine the opinions of sportswomen on factors that were associated with low female participation in sports in the universities in Ghana.

A series of chi-square statistical tests were run on the respondents' opinion ratings on factors associated with low female participation in sports in the universities in Ghana. The chi-square method was chosen because it is used to estimate the likelihood that some factors other than chance (sampling error) account for the apparent relationship (Best & Kahn, 1995).

Table 1 shows the chi-square test regarding coaches' attitude towards females resulting in low female participation in sports.

Table 1

Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 1 regarding coaches' attitude to females resulting in low female participation in sports

Item		SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	X ²	S
1	fo	61	69	36	48	21	235	30.25	000
	%	26.0	29.4	15.3	20.4	8.9	100		

p < .05

The mean for the groups for sub-hypothesis 1 was 3.42 and the standard deviation was 1.319 as found in Appendix C. The X^2 value was 30.25 as indicated in Table 1, was significant at an alpha level of $p < .05$. The sub-hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant association between the coaches' attitude to females and their low participation in university sports was rejected.

When it comes to sports, the coach is a teacher, organiser, psychologist, counsellor, leader, disciplinarian and school citizen. Responses by the females in Table 1 indicate that coaches exhibited some kind of attitude that results in low female participation in university sports. This is in line with Osborne (2002) that the coach must consider factors including training methods, coaching philosophy, motivation tactics, communication style and ability to relate on a personal level. It seems one of the essential attitudes to be exhibited by a coach is empathic understanding of the females. When this happens, the coach would be able to value their feelings and opinions, and accept their strengths and weaknesses.

In a suggestive statement as to whether females were sensitive to coaches' comments, majority of the females said this could be one of the reasons for low participation. This corroborates the view of Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) that, adverse comments from coaches' provide one of the main reasons for girls becoming discouraged from playing sports. They continued by saying that insensitive comments from coaches such as "useless female" could be especially potent discouragement. It could be adduced from respondents that females by

nature felt intimidated and humiliated, when certain comments were made about them in the presence of other people.

To establish whether more female coaches would encourage sports participation by female students in the universities, most of them were in agreement. An individual or a group of individuals, whose behaviour in a particular role provides a model for other persons for determining appropriate attitudes and actions, is very important to females. Females in the universities would want to work with more female coaches, because they felt they could encourage them. This view was in line with Osborne (2002) who reported that female basketball players in America ranked female coaches as superior in coaching qualities, relating well to others and understanding athletes' feelings. Frey et al (2006) corroborated this by reporting that female players were able to discuss almost "anything" about sport, certain plays or tactics with the male coaches, but nothing outside practice or the game was allowed to be discussed, whereas athletes felt a variety of issues could be discussed with female coaches. There may be certain issues and problems which are peculiar to females which could be discussed with a female other than males. This could be a reason why the females in Ghanaian universities want to have female coaches to serve as role models to encourage more females to play sports.

To most respondents, coaches taught skills to enable them play sports in the universities. Penney & Harris (1999) reported that, females concern was not that of commitment and the amount of extra-curricular activities of the coach, but organisation and delivery of extra curriculum. Females in the universities would

want to improve skills and as such coaches who were not capable of teaching skills would not be liked by athletes. They come to the universities with some skills which needed to be polished a little and even with females, sometimes, they needed to be taught a whole skill rather than being coached. Weiss & Petlichkoff (2002) cited failure to improve skills as one of the reasons females drop out of sports.

Females in the universities had one major aim for entering the universities, which was, academic excellence. Participating in sporting activities was generally not one of the criteria for getting a degree in the universities, but as one of the extra-curricular activities which could enhance their academic performance, especially fitness. Coaches normally appealed to the conscience of students to take part in sports. In view of this, coaches need to be tactful and to make sports attractive to students, especially females. The majority of respondents agreed that coaches were not sympathetic enough to attract the females to play sports. This was in line with Davis (1999) and Flintoff (1994) that, coaches who yell at players, are too strict, are not nice and overly negative, would not be liked by either gender.

Table 2 deals with the chi-square test regarding the skill levels of females and its effect on their participation in university sports.

Table 2

Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 2 regarding the skill levels of females and its effect on low female participation in university sports

Item		SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	X ²	S
9	Fo	27	100	29	63	16	235	101.94	000
	%	11.5	42.6	12.3	26.8	6.8	100		

p < .05

The mean for the groups for sub-hypothesis 2 was 3.21 and the standard deviation was 1.150 as found in Appendix C. The results in Table 2 indicate that the X² value of 101.94 was significant at an alpha level of p<.05. The sub-hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant association between the skill level of females and their low participation in university sports was rejected.

Results of the analysis of sub-hypothesis 2 showed that most females did not have the necessary skills to participate in university sports. It was not a common practice for a female student who was not very skilled to go to the field to practice. Most females who were not highly skilled did not want to play sports at all. This meant that in line with Keim (1999), most female students dropped out of activity due to lack of skills and competency during Junior High School. The findings of this sub-hypothesis also corroborated with Cahpherd and Ahpherd (1995) who reported that, the lack of opportunities at school for daily physical education with continuing decline in physical activity within the home setting was leading to development in sedentary lifestyle pattern that would continue to adulthood and throughout life.

Before the females entered the universities they might have already acquired skills from their previous schools and the only task of the coach would be to polish them a little. Response to a statement that, females did not have good foundation in their previous schools, indicated that majority of the responses were in the affirmative. This was in line with the findings of Rashid (1994) and Perry (2006) that many black schools had minimal, if any, physical education facilities and teachers were very few in primary schools, thus physical education was virtually non-existent. In the same vein, Adedeji and Ikpeme (2006) reported that in most African societies, especially in the rural communities, the primary and post primary physical education curricular were tailored in such a way that young males benefited from sports engagement more than their female counterparts.

In Ghana, the cultural influence on female participation is so great that parents themselves discourage their females from playing sports even at an early age. In line with this Eitzen & Sage (1993) reported that the overemphasis on protecting females from achievement and success experiences and the underemphasis on developing physical skills fitted nicely into the socialisation pattern of preparing women for their adult role of being passive helpmates of men, standing on the sidelines of history cheering men on to their achievements and success. Contrary to this most female students who played sports in the universities had high skill levels. This might be due to the support they had from parents and previous schools. This was in line with the conclusion of Msheilia (1998) that for a woman to be involved and continue active participation in sports, she must be located in a social environment highly supportive of her activities.

On a suggestion as to those who had the skill to play but did not want to play, a simple majority said there were such females. This finding agreed with Beck (1992) who reported that students' uncertainty about failure was found to influence their involvement in extra curricula activities among high school and college students. The researcher observed that females who had the necessary skills to play sports, but did not, might have found the academic work very tough and would not leave their books.

Table 3 presents the chi-square test regarding the motivation given to females resulting in their low participation in university sports.

Table 3

Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 3 regarding the motivation given to females resulting in low female participation in university sports

Item		SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	X ²	S
10	Fo	139	66	8	20	2	235	278.71	000
	%	59.1	28.1	3.4	8.5	0.9	100		

p < .05

The mean for the groups for sub-hypothesis 3 was 4.37 and the standard deviation was 0.964 as found in Appendix C. The X² value was 278.71 as expressed in Table 3, was significant at alpha level of p<.05. The sub-hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant association between the motivation given to females and their low participation in university sports was rejected.

Motivation causes people to make informed choices and is according to needs. When these needs are satisfied it leads to feeling of self confidence or adequacy and capability of being useful and of making contribution. Motivation is very important in sports participation and cannot be overlooked, especially in university sports. This is true because participation is not compulsory, aside, academic pressures are high in the university and as such females need to be compensated for the sacrifices they make such as missing lectures to participate in sports. While the issues are not unique, the manner in which females present the issues is often more personal and holistic than that of their male counterparts. Though there are unique contributions that sports can make to life, students do not count it much as other motivators. Results in sub-hypothesis 3 indicated that an overwhelming majority of respondents strongly agreed or agreed that a lot of females would have played sports if they were motivated enough. Along this line the results of this hypothesis agreed with Wesson, Wiggins, Thompson, & Hartigon (2005) that success and failure are related to motivation as well as the level of aspiration. It has been observed that incentives play a major role in sports participation in the university. Extrinsic motivation such as allowances, accommodation, free user fees are important, to females as Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001), reported that, females are more likely to enjoy sports, if they think that relevant adults have realistic expectations, provide support and encouragement, for their efforts and refrain from making negative evaluations of their performance.

Throughout the centuries the notion that women are defined as biological and physically limited, has permeated every sphere of life and as such has come to be regarded as a “law of nature”. This is very true in Ghana. Parental support is very crucial in Ghana. If your parents do not accent to it, it becomes difficult. In one of the suggestive statements, females were asked whether they had parental support to play sport. Majority said they either strongly disagreed or disagreed with it. This was in line with Erkurt, Fields, Sing & Marx (1996) that half of Pan American, Native Americans, African American, European American, Asian and Pacific American females reported that, although they were aware of the benefits of participating in sports and physical activity, their parents prevented them from taking part and rather advised them to take their academic work seriously.

The females disagreed that they played sports because of the monies given them. This finding was in with Tanglang, Hamafyelto, & Bwala (1996) who reported that females participated in sports for the reason of achievement/status, team atmosphere, energy release, skill development, friendships, and fun. It can be adduced from this then that monetary reward is good but other incentives such as getting a place to lay their heads and concentrate on their studies was more important to them.

Residential accommodation was one reason why they played sports in the universities. Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson, & Hartington (2005) opined that, extrinsic rewards are used extremely in sporting situation; most major sports have achievement performance incentives linked to some form of the tangible reward system. The ‘in out out’ system of residential accommodation which had

come to stay with all the universities was a headache for all students. It had been observed that the hustle and bustle in getting accommodation outside the campus was a worry to students, let alone the high cost of renting private residence. A system whereby students who played sports were given residential accommodation on campus was very important to females. This might indeed be one reason why females played sports.

On a suggestive statement that females play sports because of the opportunity to travel outside their universities both nationally, and internationally, majority of respondents disagreed with the statement. Ibraheem and Ogedegbe (2006) on the contrary reported that the female athletes participated to make friends and to know prominent people both within and outside the country and abroad before and after they emerged victorious. It had been observed that a few athletes were chosen to travel internationally and this might be the reason why females disagreed with the statement.

Table 4 provides the chi-square test regarding the peer influence and its effects on low female participation in university sports.

Table 4

Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 4 regarding the peer influence and its effects on low female participation in university sports

Item		SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	X ²	S
16	Fo	31	89	26	52	37	235	55.0	000
	%	13.2	37.9	11.1	22.1	15.7	100		

p < .05

The mean for the groups for sub-hypothesis 4 was 3.07 and the standard deviation was 1.308 as found in Appendix C. The X^2 value was 55.0 as indicated in Table 4, was significant at an alpha level of $p < .05$. The sub-hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant association between peer influence and low female participation in university sports was rejected.

Results of the analysis of sub-hypothesis 4 revealed, that most of the respondents had stated that peer influence had a lot of influence in participation in sports in the universities. Majority strongly agreed or agreed that most females did not play sports because their friends also did not. The findings confirmed studies by Santrock (2000) who revealed that conformity involves a change in a person's behaviour to coincide more with group standard. Cox, Wiggins-James, Thompson, & Hartington (2005) corroborate by saying that American ladies who did not play sports said that their peers were inactive and those who played said they had peers who were actively participating in sports. The influence of non-sport peers for instance can range from reinforcing young athletes sports involvement by communicating value in her achievements to undermining sport involvement by trivialising it, or presenting alternative activities in attractive light. Kunes, Handbook & Lewthwaite. (1996) observed that a lot of females were more likely than male counterparts to require a friend to accompany them when pursuing sports and that peer relationship in sport, might result in either positive or negative effect and other construct, that represent sport motivation.

The suggestive statement that females would not have joined the university sports if their friends were not part, indicated that most of the

respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed. This meant that most females might have played, in spite of the taunts and insults and negative advice given to them by their friends. This finding went contrary with Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) which reported that a female's sexuality may be questioned by her peers, if she does play sports, particularly if she is good at it, or if she does not conform to the stereotype expected of her. It has been observed that some females by nature are endowed with skills and would like to play sports no matter the outside influence. Some of them may have been introduced to sports at an early age and as such, it has become part and parcel of them to play always.

Generally females unlike males feel shy, disgraced and dampened when they are teased by their colleagues. This is not the case with university students who play sports. They disagreed with the statement that lot of them would have played, but they did not because their friends would tease them. This means this view was not a strong point why there was low participation of females in university sports. The findings go contrary with Australian Bureau of Statistics that many girls endure taunts and insults about their bodies, the main culprits being school mates.

Table 5 shows the chi-square test regarding the values in sports and their effects on low female participation in university sports.

Table 5

Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 5 regarding the values in sports and its effects on low female participation in university sports

Item		SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	X ²	S
16	Fo	39	99	23	36	36	235	76.29	000
	%	14.9	42.1	9.9	15.3	15.3	100		

p <.05

The mean for the groups for sub-hypothesis 5 was 3.22 and the standard deviation 1.333 as found in Appendix C. The X² value was 76.29 as specified in Table 5, was significant at an alpha level of p<.05. The sub-hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant association between values in sports and low female participation in university sports was rejected.

Results obtained from the values in sports and their effects on low female participation showed that the hypothesis of a significance relationship could not be rejected. From the findings of this study, majority of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that most of the females could not play sports because they feared that they would not bear children. This was in line with the report of Lumpkin (2002) that vigorous activity would irreparably harm women's reproductive capabilities and prevent women from engaging in aggressive and highly competitive sports. This implied that Ghanaian society including elite females still held on to this misconception which had been proven to be untrue. Contrary to this, Victorian Women in Sports (2002) discovered that the complications of pregnancy and childbirth were fewer in female athletes than in

non-athletes. It has been observed that Ghanaians regard the woman who has children as a woman, and the barren ones earn very little recognition in the social stratum. It is, therefore, normal for females to resist participating in sports in the universities, where they have a strong feeling of becoming barren in future.

Anejo (2006) pointed out that there is improvement in metabolism, more efficient functioning of circulation and respiration, improved muscular tone, coordination, achievement of greater flexibility, and improved general body efficiency. Females in the universities would like to maintain their fitness levels, as majority of the respondents agreed with this. Sports actually enhance the quality of life which may be regarded as physical fitness. For a person to go on with her academic work, she must be healthy.

On a suggestive statement that females do not need to play sport to maintain their fitness levels, majority of the responders disagreed with it. Females are aware of the benefits of sports, but they do not do it. Okuneye (2002) reported that the level of awareness on the benefit of exercise to individuals' health is high, particularly, among elite, yet they do not get involved. Females in the universities feel uncomfortable to see their names posted on the notice board as being referred or failed. This probably might be a reason for low female participation, because they do not think that keeping fit and healthy or being good at sport is important.

Females in the universities disagreed that, females did not play sport, because it made them sick. In consonance with this, McGlynn (1996) reported that when people leave the sedentary world and enter the realm of vigorous exercise, they would experience some discomforts, mild aches and pains, slight

breathing difficulty and a feeling of fatigue. But these discomforts are usually minor and temporary. Females seem to ignore this statement as one of the factors responsible for low female participation in university sports. It has been observed that sports rather improve the health of participants and prepare them fit for work ahead.

Respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that females did not play sports because they were not physically fit. Happiness, one of the components of good living, is brought about only when one is healthy. No one, whether healthy, sick, disabled, young, and old, can safely avoid sports. Harris (1987) reported that younger people who did not have satisfying and varied movement experiences during childhood may develop distortion of body image which will influence their preparation in physical activity. It should be noted that, nowadays, recreation is usual in hospitals and non-hospital settings for treatment and rehabilitation of patients. Females who think they are not fit can participate in sports to modify the evolution of risk factors and protect against future disease and help establish a healthy life style.

To establish whether females were shying away from sports because they feared they would look masculine indicated that, an overwhelming majority either strongly agreed or agreed with the assertion. This was in line with Victorian Woman in Sports (2002) that opponents of women's sports inferred that college women who participated in exercise would become unfeminine, muscular, and subject to uterine damage. On the contrary Eitzen & Sage (1993) said contrary to lay opinion, participation in sports does not masculinise women. They continue

by explaining that within a man or woman, the secretion of testosterone, androgen and oestrogen varies considerably accounting for marked variation in terms of muscularity and general morphology among males and females. This means that there may be physiological differences between female athletes and female non-athletes, especially, when there is prolonged physical training which may alter the physique, and other characteristics. It has been observed that some females may have such characteristics before they engaged in sports. Females in the universities would like to look feminine and this may be a reason for low participation of females in university sports.

Every work on the planet earth has advantages as well as disadvantages. The disadvantages include the hazards of the work, and participation in sports is not an exception. Injuries do occur, but not frequent, mostly minor, and a few serious ones. The low female participation might be due to fear of injuries. Majority of the respondents agreed with the notion. This is in consonance with Stewards & Taylor (2002) who reported that out of 169 female athletes studied, 22 athletes who had quit sports had the most common reason given, being injury. CAAWS (2002) also reported that one of the reasons girls and women do not participate is because they are afraid to get hurt – a list of gruelling injuries may turn a potential Olympic athlete off sports forever. They went further to say that this is prevalent with Olympic athletes, but with others, it is a mere product of the poor fitness of women in these programs.

It was the consensus, however, of the respondents that most girls played sports in the universities because they wanted to make friends. Females perceived

the role of friends to be one of the most important factors in socialisation. Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) corroborates this view by stating that the youth chose to participate for excitement, and for the ability to socialise with peers. Females in the universities wanted to have fun, because they considered it to be enjoyable part of life, and they saw it as a new way to make friends. This was also in line with Anejo (2006) that it is important for an individual to have friendship and companionship or association with other persons, because the interaction with other humans promotes a feeling of worth, a feeling of security from group acceptance, approval, and recognition which in turn will help her adopt socially.

Females in the universities were asked whether being known by people and also knowing others was one reason they played sports. The majority of them confirmed that, it was one reason why they played sports. Sports & Recreation South Africa (2005) postulated that sports can make a difference in society by bringing people of different races together and also it could be used to reduce social problems such as crime, unwanted pregnancies, increased HIV awareness etc. Females in the universities wanted to connect with others, especially to keep in touch with prominent people in order to grab opportunities that came their way such as jobs, life partners, and new helpers, to mention but a few. They also wanted opportunities to make friends, develop skills, and even travel far and wide. This was in line with Ibraheem & Ogedegbe (2006) that athletes participate to make friends and to know prominent people both within and outside their countries and abroad before and after they emerged victorious.

Most respondents strongly agreed or agreed to sports seen as being too competitive. This collaborated with the findings of Senate Committee Inquiry into Women in Sports and Recreation in Australia (2005) that many sports are unattractive to girls because they emphasise competition, whereas girls are often more interested in playing sports to have fun and make friends. It seems females do not like the idea of coaches stressing on winning, which makes them somehow tensed up in a game. They want to play their normal game to win than to be pressured.

Table 6 presents the chi-square test regarding the facilities and equipment the female use resulting in their low participation in university sports.

Table 6

Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 6 regarding the facilities and equipment the female use resulting in their low participation in university sports

Item		SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	X ²	S
16	Fo	37	89	24	75	10	235	96.78	000
	%	15.7	37.9	10.2	31.9	4.3	100		

p < .05

The mean for the groups for sub-hypothesis 6 was 3.27 and the standard deviation was 1.203 as disclosed in Appendix C. The X² value was 96.78 as shown in Table 6, was significant at an alpha level of p<.05. The sub-hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant association between the facilities

and equipment the females use and their low participation in university sports was rejected.

One cannot over-emphasise the importance of facilities and equipment in sports development. The findings in Table 6 show that majority of respondents either strongly agreed or agreed that facilities and equipment on university campuses as compared to the population of students did not encourage females to go out and use them. This corroborated the study of Onifade (1995) that for the success of any physical education and sports programmes, there must be availability of qualitative and quantitative facilities and equipment. This is also in line with Butler (1996) that equipment and facilities have important place in recreational centres, because they contribute to physical development, stimulate creative activity, and provide opportunities for other activities to take place. It has been observed that facilities on the campuses are not enough to commensurate the number of students. It is only the University of Ghana, Legon, which can boast of many football fields, but apart from this, facilities for other sports are not sufficient, some have two courts, and most of them have either one or none.

To establish whether the nearest of facilities to students residence would encourage more females to participate in university sports, the respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the assertion. This means that females would want facilities spread out near their halls of residence to attract them to come out. Asabia (2002) pointed out that image falls as distance grows between users home and the facilities and rises with those who live near the facilities. Burrow and Bammel (1992) corroborate this in their findings that place of residence has great

effect on the type of opportunity that is readily available, proximity to services and facilities can influence young people's participation in physical activity. Females by nature want to be pampered a little. They are known to be hardworking, as far as domestic chores are concerned, but assign less importance to other things including sports in their lives. They are very aware of the benefits of participating in sports, but feel lazy to get up and play, let alone using their money for transportation fare to the sports venues or walking long distances.

Equipment found in the sports offices did not commensurate with the student population in the universities. They were released only when there was a major competition. This corroborated with the findings of Women Sports Foundation (2005) that females cannot play sports if they cannot get access to the necessary facilities and equipment. Females in the universities did not even want to come out when they saw that men were already occupying the field or courts. It was the consensus of the respondents that inadequate facilities and equipment accounted for low female participation.

It could be adduced from respondents' responses that women could compete with men for facilities. This finding went contrary to the view of Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) that boys dominate space in school playground and sporting arenas and tell girls that they cannot play.

Lack of adequate facilities and equipment to attract females to do sports was a problem in the universities. Where there were two or three fields, they were for football, thus facilities and access to more sporting activities should be of importance.

Table 7 deals with the chi-square table regarding administrative policies and their effects on low female participation in university sports.

Table 7

Chi-square test table on sub-hypothesis 7 regarding administrative policies and their effects on low female participation in university sports

Item		SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	X ²	S
16	Fo	127	63	11	29	5	235	213.61	000
	%	54.0	26.8	4.7	12.3	2.1	100		

p < .05

The mean for the groups for sub-hypothesis 7 was 4.19 and the standard deviation was 1.134 as established in Appendix C. The X² value was 213.61 as seen in Table 7, was significant at an alpha level of p<.05. The sub-hypothesis which stated that there would be no significant association between administrative policies and low female participation in university sports was rejected.

It is the wish of every parent that her ward comes out with flying colours in university education. To most of the females, it is not in their calendar of work to come out and play sports. Some parents even advise their wards not to worry themselves with other activities that would obstruct their academic work. It was, therefore, the wish of every female athlete that their participation would be rewarded by the institutional authorities. The finding of the sub-hypothesis showed that, time purposely set for sports by the administration were often used purposely for lectures by most lecturers and students. This was in line with

Coakley (2001) that many coaches may schedule practices and games that do not interfere with coursework, however, students may miss participation in games due to the time for study, tests, or presentations. For instance the KNUST has set Wednesday afternoons for sports, whilst UCC has Tuesdays for sports. It has been observed that it is during that time that some lecturers fix their quizzes and lectures. In most of the cases, time set for Inter-Halls is the time that some lecturers would have lectures and class tests, and this disrupts the sporting program. Students would not leave their academic work and play sports.

An overwhelming majority of respondents confirmed that the university administration was helpless, if time meant for sports was used for other things. These findings went contrary to the findings of Coakley (2001) that in big time colleges in America, even faculty members who are not sports-‘friendly’, especially the athletics department, sometimes, are pressured to give special considerations to student athletes. It seems the administration in the various universities did not attach any importance to any policy made about sports in terms of lectures and sporting activities. The females in the universities would not settle for referral or dismissal, and so this might be one of the causes of low female participation in university sports.

Respondents maintained that they lost a lot of lecture periods because they played sports, whilst their colleagues attended lectures. Students would want the administration to take firm decisions on such problems concerning their participation and conflicts with lecture periods that go on to affect them. In all the institutions, it was only the University of Cape Coast that had instituted additional

0.5 to the GPA and scholarship to sportsmen and women who sacrificed for the university. It seemed that when one missed lectures one did so at ones own detriment. This was in line with Acheampong (1997), who concluded that if faculty members were to administer academic support service for student athletes, things would be better. Students would not sacrifice their academic work for sports which may have consequences for their future.

There was a suggestion that a lot of females were not playing sports because of the intensive nature of academic work. Acheampong (1997) observed that the introduction of semester programme which replaced the old system of academic work had been vigorous, and students who may have possibly participated in sports were more often constrained by time. Cox, Wiggins-James, Thompson, & Hartigon (2005) collaborated this by saying that females who did not participate in sports cited time constraint, especially transition from high school to college as the main reason for their non-participation.

A majority of university female students would have played sports, if there were times aside for sports participation. Students would not go out and play while others went out for lectures or sat down to study. Coakley (2001) collaborates this view that the attractiveness of being an athlete in a big-time program is often enough to distract students from academic work. This presupposes that if times were set aside for all students both non-athletes and athletes, the athletes would not suffer and would be glad to participate.

Many research studies have shown positive influence of sports participation on academic performance of female students. A research conducted

by Shalala (1997) indicated that the benefit of physical activity and sports for girls extend beyond physical health to improved academic achievement, self confidence, and better mental health. Most female students strongly agreed or agreed that although the academic calendar was intensive, those who went out to play sports for the universities would have time for it without suffering from academic work. This is in line with the findings of Women's Sports Foundation (1998) and Giuliano et al. (2000) that there is a positive relationship between sports participation and academic achievement as measured by grade-point average, standardised test scores, lowered risk for dropping out, and greater likelihood of attending and staying at school. Females who participate in sports despite the academic pressures have realised the health benefit in relation to work as the adage 'a healthy mind resides in a healthy body', echoes in their minds. Sports have all the benefits to make a wholesome person in the society, physical, social, mental, and emotional benefits.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors believed to be associated with low female participation in university sports in Ghana.

Summary

Sports form an important part of the lives of people as a whole and institutions in particular. This is true because sports can be used to advertise a country's name on the world map of popularity and economic achievement.

The main focus of the study was to access the factors associated with low female participation in university sports in Ghana. The study was based on seven sub-hypotheses. Related literature was reviewed in Chapter 2 under the subheadings below:

- Coaches attitude
- Skill levels of females
- Motivation
- Peer influence
- Values in sports
- Facilities and equipment
- Administrative policies

The study used questionnaire which were designed with the help of the supervisors, as the main tool for data collection. They were then pilot-tested at Kumasi Polytechnic, using 50 students which helped in revising the wording and some items of the questionnaire before they were used in the main study

A purposive sample technique was used to select 250 respondents made up of students who participated in Ghana Universities Students Association (GUSA) games in the 5 public universities. These were University of Ghana, Legon, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, University of Education, Winneba, and University of Development Studies, Tamale.

Two hundred and thirty five (235) questionnaires were returned out of 250 sent out to respondents, representing 93.4% rate of overall return. The responses were coded and analysed, using the SPSS windows 11.0. The frequencies of the results were subjected to percentages. The Chi-square test was used to evaluate significance of the sub-hypotheses. The entire sub-hypotheses were rejected. Alpha $p < .05$ was used for all tests of significance. The results were then presented in tables with the findings as follows:

1. Coaches' unfriendly attitude toward female sportswomen was a significant factor to low female participation in university sports in Ghana.
2. The low skill level was a significant factor in low female participation in university sports in Ghana.
3. Low motivation of females was a significant factor in their low participation in university sports in Ghana.

4. Bad peer influence was a significant factor in low female participation in university sports in Ghana
5. Negative values placed on sports were a significant factor in low female participation in university sports in Ghana.
6. Lack of facilities and equipment was a significant factor in low female participation in university sports in Ghana.
7. Negative Administrative Policies for sports were significant factors in low female participation in university sport in Ghana

Conclusions

All the variables selected for the study had significant relationship with the factors that were associated with low female participation. Based on the findings in this study the following conclusions were drawn

On skill level, it was revealed that so far as skill level of female students remains low, sports participation of females in the university will also remain low.

Again facilities and equipment which are sited far away from halls of residence will continue to bring about low females participation in sports in the universities. Finally, so far as Administrative Policies exist but they are not implemented, sports participation of females in the university will remain low.

Recommendations

1. The coach is the most central person in sports promotion in the university. It is, therefore, recommended that the coach should be mindful of their approach to prospective female sportswomen. Neutral behaviour that is fair and firm

2. The university administrations are encouraged to employ at least one female coach to serve as a source of inspiration and role model to females. Role models are important to improve, motivate, and encourage females, especially when the confidence of females is low. Females may have peculiar problems which could be solved by only females.
3. The sports section of the various universities should make a concerted effort to organise programmes and seminars regularly to educate females in the university on the benefits of sports and iron out the misconceptions. Although most misconceptions and myths have been proved to be false, Ghanaian female students still hold on to them, especially on childbearing, and masculinity.
4. The university administrations should try and make sports a compulsory liberal course as done for communication skills to help involve everybody. This will result in healthy students who would be fit to pursue their courses in their fields of study. Anejo (2006) revealed that involvement in sports brings about improvement in metabolism, more efficient functioning of circulation, and respiration, improved muscular tone and coordination, achievement of greater flexibility, and improved general body efficiency.
5. Adequate financial incentives such as scholarship awards, and residential accommodation should be made available to potential sportswomen. Compensating good achievement is not only sufficient but equally effective if

we want to draft more females into sports. However, intrinsic motivation such as to make them want to participate should not be overlooked, since this is characterised by interest in, and the enjoyment from participating in sports.

6. There is the need for the universities authorities to make provision of more and modern sports facilities and equipment. The emphasis should be placed on accessibility to female students. It is, therefore, recommended that sports facilities be put up near and inside the Halls of residence to attract more females to play sports. This is recommended by Burrow & Bammel (1992) that proximity to services and facilities can influence people's participation in physical activity.
7. The university administrations should constantly implement and enforce policies concerning sports since lack of implementation, partial implementation and implementation with no appreciable effect, have telling effects on sports. Days set aside for sports in the universities must be strictly adhered to. Dissemination of information to all lecturers, faculties, departments and students Halls of residence could go a long way to enforce those policies.
8. The university administration should endeavour to put in place policies that would better the lot of sportswomen who lose a lot of lecture periods. Policies such as award of academic credit points to sportswomen would go a long way in attracting more females to play sports. The rest of the universities should try to implement this policy as is being implemented by the University of Cape Coast.

Recommendation for Further Studies

The following topics are recommended for further research:

- a. The influence of religious beliefs and secular value systems on the attitude of females, towards sports participation in Ghanaian universities.
- b. Gender discrimination in sports and its influence on sports participation in Ghanaian universities
- c. Participation patterns of females towards sports among the various departments in universities in Ghana.

REFERENCES

- Abney, R. (1999). African American women in sports. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance*, 70, (4), 35-38.
- Acheampong, S. K. (1997). *The influence of academic expectations on recreational pursuits among Ghanaians*. Unpublished Thesis University of Cape Coast
- Adedeji, J. A. & Ikpeme, E. E. (2006). Eliminating disparity and empowerment of young females through sports psychology training in achieving millennium development goal. ICHPER-SD Leadership: 3RD ICHPER-SD Africa Regional Congress, Winneba, Ghana 7th-12th August 2006
- Adegbola, A. O. (2000). Fostering and Promoting Physical Education and Sports in Africa; A Challenge to ICHPER-SD Leadership: 1st ICHPER-SD African Regional Conference, Lagos, Nigeria 16-20 October 2000.
- Adeyanju, F.B. (2005). *Women and Sports in Nigeria: Problems and prospects in the 21st Century*. Retrieved on 14th May 2007 at: <http://www.online.nigeria.com>
- Adeyanju, L. J. & Alla, J. B. (2006). Socio-economic status, gender and recreational involvement of undergraduate students in a South Western Nigerian University. 3rd ICHPER-SD Africa Regional Congress, Winneba, Ghana 7th -12th August 2006.
- Agyenim-Boateng, A. & Frimpong, B. (2000). *Management and administration*. Unpublished Series, University of Cape Coast

- American Academy of Pediatrics (2000). *Medical concerns in the female athletes. Pediatrics, 106*, (3) 610-613.
- Anejo, E .E. (2006). Recreation: A weapon for health development and maintenance in a mechanized society. *ICHPER-SD African Region, 1*, (1) 91-97.
- Apochie, S. (2002, June 5). Couple of indiscipline cases in second cycle schools in Ghana today, *Daily Graphic*, 12284 (24).
- Armstrong, M. (2003). *A handbook of human resource management practice* (8th ed). Great Britain: The Base Press.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C. & Razavich, A. (2002). *Introduction to research in education* (6th ed). Belmont: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning
- Asabia, D. A. (2002). *The impact of sports facilities and equipment funding, and technical personnel on the development and promotion of sports in the Upper East Region of Ghana*. Unpublished Thesis, University of Cape Coast
- Asteri, D. (1995). News from the nation. *Greece Bulletin of (APESGW, 5)* Jan 6-7.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics Report (2001). *Why don't girls play sports?* Retrieved on 14th May 2007 at: <http://www.sportrec.qld.gov.au>
- Awosika Y. (1982). Intramurals programming in some selected Nigerian Universities. In Omotayo, K. O. (Ed) (2000), Parameters influencing the propagation of physical education and sports programmes in Nigerian

schools. *ICHPER-SD African Regional Conference*. Lagos-Nigeria 16-20 October 2000.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self efficacy*. New York: W. H. Freeman

Bar-Or, O. (2006). Pediatrics Sports Medicine for the Practitioner: From Physiological Principles to Clinical Application. In Uzoalor (Ed), *Journal of ICHPER-SD, 1*, (1) 146-148.

Barrow, H. M. (1983). *Man and movement: Principles of physical education*. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger

Beck, L. E. (1992). The extra curriculum. In Jackson, P. W. (Ed), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*. New York: Prentice Hall

Benedict, J. (1998). *Public heroes, private fellows: Athletics and crime against women*. Boston: North Eastern Univ. Press

Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (1995). *Research in education*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India Ltd.

Boachie-Mensah, F.O. (2006). *Essentials of management*. Accra: Woeli Publishers.

Brady, M. & Khan, A. B. (2002). *Letting girls play: The Mathare youth sport association's football program for girls*. Retrieved on 23rd June 2008 at: <http://www.sciencedirect.com>

Brightbill, C. K. & Meyer, H. D. (1993). *Recreation: Test and reading*. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Buami, P. I. A. (2006). *Improving students participation in sports and games*

in the University of Cape Coast. Unpublished Thesis, University of Cape Coast.

Bucher, C.A. (2000) Administration of physical education and athletic program:

In Omotayo, O. K. (Ed) Parameters influencing the propagation of

physical education and sports programmes in Nigerian schools. *1st*

ICHPER-SD Africa Regional Conference, Lagos, Nigeria 16-20 October

2000.

Burke, K. L., Peterson, D., & Nix, C. L. (1998). The effects of the coaches' use of

humour of female volleyball players evaluation of their coaches, *Journal*

of Sports Behaviour, 18, 83-90.

Burrow B. L. L. & Bammel G. (1992). *Leisure and human behaviour*. (2nd Ed)

Dubuque: WMC Brown Publishers.

Butler, F. B. (1996). *Introduction to community recreation*. New York: McGraw

Hill Company

Cahpherd & Ahpherd (1995). Reports on a global vision for school physical

education. World forum on physical activity and sports; Quebec, Canada

May 21-25. *International Journal of Physical Education and Sports Vol.*

xxxii, (4) 4.

Canadian Association for Advancement of Women and Sport (CAAWS), (2004).

Dealing with the issues. Retrieved on 15th October 2007 at: [http://www.](http://www.caaws.ca/dealingwithissues/pdfstats.2004.pdf)

[caaws.ca/dealingwithissues/pdfstats.2004.pdf](http://www.caaws.ca/dealingwithissues/pdfstats.2004.pdf).

Canadian Association for Advancement of Women and Sport (CAAWS), (2004).

On the Move. Retrieved on 15th October 2007 at: <http://www.caaws.ca/onthemove/pdfstats.2004.pdf>

Canadian Association for Advancement of Women and Sport (CAAWS), (2002).

Positive messaging for girls and young women. Retrieved on 15th October 2007 at: <http://www.caaws.ca/e/reasonas.pdf>

Carbon, R. (1994). *ABC of sports medicine: Female athletes*. Retrieved on 28th

May 2007 at: <http://www.bmj.com/cgi/content/fullhtm>

Center for Health Promotion Studies (2003) *The national health and lifestyle surveys*. National University of Ireland Galway. Retrieved on 14th May

2007 at: <http://www.irishhaert.ie/iopen2cl/pub/haertwise/2003/paandyoungpeople.pdf>

Center for Mental Health Services/Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services

Administration (1997). *The president's council on physical fitness and sports report on physical activity and sports in the lives of girls*. Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: <http://fwww.kls.coled.umn.edu/crgws/pcpfssxnl.html>.

Ciadini, R. B. & Trost, M. R. (1998). Social influence, norms, conformity and Compliance. In Gilbert, S. F., Fiske, G. & Lindsay, P. (Eds), *Handbook on Social Psychology*, 2, (4). New York: McGraw Hill Co.

Coakley J. J. (2001). *Sports in society: Issues & controversies* (5th ed). St Louis: Mosby Year Book Inc.

Cockburn, C. Clarke, G. (2002). Everybody is looking at you girls negotiating

the “Femininity Deficit” they may incur in P.E. *Women studies international forum*, 25, (6): 651-665.

Conroy, D, E, (2006). *Enhancing motivation in sport, psychological science Agenda*, 20, (2). Retrieved on 28th May. 2007 at: <http://www.apa.org/science/psa/Conroy.html>.

Cox, L. Coleman, L. & Roker, D. (2005). *Determinants of sports & physical activity participation amongst 15-19 year old young women in England*. Retrieved on 20th February 2007 at: <http://www.sportsengland.org>.

Crawford, S. A. G. M. (1999). .P. E.: Should men coach women team and vice versa. *Jopherd*, 70, (4) 12.

Curry, T. (1998) Beyond the locker room: Campus bars and college athletes. *Sociology of Sports Journal*, 15, (3) 205-215.

Daft, D. L., & Marcic, D. (2004). *Understanding management* (4th ed). Ohio: South Western.

Dauer, V. P. & Pangrezi, R. P. (1990). *Physical education for elementary school children* (9th ed). New York: Macmillan Pub Company.

Davis, K. L. (1999). Giving women a chance to learn: Gender equity principles for HPERD classes. *Jopherd*, 70, (4) 13-14.

Deci, E. & Ryan, R. (1994). Promoting self determination. *Education Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 38, 3-14.

Donnelly, P. (1996). *Approaches to social inequality in the sociology of sports Quest*, 48, 221-224.

Edginton, C. R., Jordan, D. J., Degraaf, D. G. & Edginton, S. R. (2002). *Leisure*

and life satisfaction: Fundamental perspective (3rd ed). Dubuque:
McGraw Hill Inc.

Edwards, C. & Crawford, S. A. G. M. (1990). Contemporary American Physical:
A fitness critique. *International Journal of Physical Education*, 27, (3),
35-39.

Eitzen, D. S. & Sage, G. (1993) *Sociology of North American Sports* (5th ed).
Dubuque: L.A. Brown, & Benchmark.

Enchill-Essaw, S. A. (2002). *Discrimination against women in top management
position; A case study of selected Universities and Polytechnics*.
Unpublished Thesis, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and
Technology, Kumasi.

Erkut, S., Fields J.; Sing R., & Marx, F. (1996). Diversity girls' experiences:
Feeling good about who you are. In Beater, B. L. & Way, N. (Eds) *Urban
girls: Resisting stereotype creating identities*. New York: University Press.

Evans, J. (2004). Making a difference: Education and ability in physical
education. *European physical education review*, 10, (1), 95-108.

Everhart, C., Chelladura, B. & Packianathan, P. (1998). Gender difference
in preference for coaching as an occupation; The role of self efficiency,
values and perceived barriers. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and
Sports*, 69, (2) 247-255.

Fadoju, A. (2000). Enhancing Intra-School & School-Community Cooperation for

Effective Teaching of P.E. & Sports in Nigerian Secondary Schools. *1st ICHPERD.-SD African regional Conference*, Lagos, Nigeria 16-20 October 2000.

Feminist Majority Foundation (1995). *Athletics in the lives of women and girls*.

Retrieved on 15th September 1999 at: <http://www.feminist.org/research/sports6.html>

Flieshman, E. A. (2005). The structure of measurement of physical fitness. In

Wesson, K., Wiggins-James, N., Thompson, G. & Hartigon, S. (Eds) *Sport and physical education: A complete guide to advanced level study*.

Chennai: Charon Tec Pub Ltd.

Flintoff, A. (1994) 'Keeping gender on the agenda: P. E. teacher education in the

1990s', in *Working Papers in Sport and Society*, 3. Warwick Center for the Study of Sport in Society, University of Warwick

Frey, M., Czech, D .R. & Kent, R. G. & Johnson, M. (2006). *Exploration of female athletes' experience and perception of male and female coaches*.

Retrieved on 24th February 2007 at: www.thesportjournal.org/2006/journal/orlq.No.41/freyasp.

Garcia, C. (1994). Gender differences in young children's interactions when

learning fundamental motor skills. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sports*, 69 (2), 188-201.

Gensemer, R. E. (1995). *P. E.: Prospective, inquiry, application* (3rd ed).

Dubuque: W.C. B. Brown & Buchart.

Gill, D. L. (1992). Gender & sports behaviour: In Hom, Y. S. (Eds) *Advances in*

Sports Psychology. Champaign E. L.: Human Kinetics Publishers.

Giuliano, T. A., Popp, K. E., & Knight, J. L. (2000). *Football versus Barbies: childhood play activities as predictors of sports participation by women*. Retrieved on 15th October 2007 at: <http://www.auth.athensams.net.springerlink.com.htm>.

Gorald, Taylor, C. & Fitz, J. (2003). *Schools, markets and choice policies*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Greendorfer S. C. (1993). *Gender role stereotypes and early childhood socialization in women sports (3-14)* in Cohen Newburg, G. L. & Sage, P. C. A. (Eds).

Green, K. & Hardman, K. (2005). *Physical education: Essential issues*. London: Sage Publications.

Greenleaf, C., Gould, D. & Dieffenbach, K. (2001). Factors influencing Olympic performance: Interviews with Atlanta and Nagano U.S. Olympians. *Journal of Applied Sports Psychology*, 13, 154-184.

Griffiths, G. I. (2001). *Recreation promotion for whom?* Unpublished Dissertation U.K., Grandfield Institute of Technology.

Grisaffe, C., Bloom, L. C. & Burk, K. L. (in press). *The Effect of head and Assistance coaches: Uses of humour on collegiate soccer players' evaluation of their coaches*. Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: <http://www.thesportjournal.org/2006journal/vol9-No4/frey.asp>.

Hamafyelto, S. S. & Badejo, Q. O. (2002). Socialisation into sports. *African Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology as Sports Facilitation*, 4, 41-46.

- Harackiewicz, J. M. (1998). Intrinsic motivation and goals. *Encyclopedia of Mental Health*, 2. LAN Diego: Academic Press.
- Harris, D. V. (1987). *Involvement in sports somatopsychic rationale for physical activity*. Philadelphia: Lee & Febiger.
- Hartmann-Tews, I. (1994). Women's participation in sports cross-cultural consistencies and variations. *Journal of Comparative P.E and Sports*, XVI, (2), 42-49.
- Ibraheem, T. O. & Ogedegbe, D. O. (2006). Factors influencing the choice of athletic events among University athletes in south-western Nigeria. *ICHPER-SD African Region*, 16-20 October 2006.
- Ikulayo, P. B. (1990). Understanding Sports Psychology: Lagos, EA/TCN Press. *International Journal of Sports Psychology*, 5-23, 31.
- Karageoghis, C. (1999). *Motivation and training: Psychology training for all sports*. Retrieved on 24th May 2007 at: www.w3.org/1999/Xhtml.
- Keim, M. (1999). *From an in-service training project (INSET) to a Further Diploma in Physical and Health Education (FDE)-A project report paper* presented at the Pre All African Games Congress, Johannesburg, 6th-9th September.
- Kenow, L. J. & Williams J. M. (1999). Coach-athlete compatibility and athlete's perception of coaching behaviour. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 22, 251-259.
- Kew, F. (1997). *Sports: Social problems and issues*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.

- Kirsch, A. (1990). BISp-News. *International Journal of P.E*, XXVII, (2), 2nd Quarter, p. 35.
- Kodzi, E. T. (1998). *Unpublished Lecture Notes*, Cape Coast, University of Cape Coast.
- Kraus, R. (2001). *Recreation and leisure in modern society*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Kunesh, M. A. Handbook, C. A., & Lewthwaite, R. (1996). Physical Activity Socialization: Peer Interactions and Effective Responses among a Sample of Sixth Grade Girls. *Sociology of Sports Journal*, 9, (4) 385-96.
- Leftkowitz, B. (1997). *Our Guys: The Glen Ridge rape and secret life of the Perfect suburb*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Lumpkin, A. (2002). *Introduction to P.E., exercise science & sports studies* (4th ed.) Dubuque: M. McGraw Hill.
- Lumpkin, A. (1998). *Skill education and sport: A contemporary introduction* (4th ed.). Dubuque: McGraw Hill.
- Lundy, K. (1998). Participation: The foundation of elite success. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 20, (1), 94-104. Retrieved on 14th May 2007 on Terminating participation at. [#http://www.katelundy.com.au/local_government.htm.#](http://www.katelundy.com.au/local_government.htm)
- Martin, D. E. (1997). Interscholastic sports participation: Reason for maintaining or terminating participation. *Journal of Sports Behaviour*, 20, (1) 94-104.
- Mbilinyi, M. (1990) Education in Tanzania with a gender perspective. In Nawe, J.

(Ed) (2001), *Female participation in African university: Effective strategies*. Retrieved on 15th October 2007 at: <http://www.codesra.org/Links/conference/universities/Julita-Nawe.pdf>.

McDermon, L. (2002). A qualitative assessment of the significance of body towards physical activity experience. *Journal of Sociology of Sports*, 17, (4) 331-63.

McDonald, I. (2003). Class inequality and the body in physical education. In Green, K. & Hardman, K. (Eds) *Physical education: Essential issues*. London: Sage Publication.

McGlynn, G. (1996). *Dynamics of fitness: A practical approach* (4th ed). Dubuque: Brown & Benchmark Publishers.

Medwiechuk, N. & Crossman, J. (1994). Effects of gender bias on the evaluation of male and female swim coaches. *Perception and Motor Skills*, 78, 163-169.

Mercer, C. D. & Mercer, A .R. (1998). *Teaching students with heavy problems* (5th ed). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Ministry of Justice (2005). *The 1992 Constitution of Ghana*. Article 17, Section 2. Accra: Allshore Co.

Molstad, S. & Whitaker (1997). Perception of female basketball players regarding coaching qualities of males and females. *Journal of Applied Research in Coaching and Athletics*, 2, 57-71.

Morgan, W. J. & Meier, K. V. (1988). *Philosophic inquiry in sport*. Illinois: Kinetics Publisher.

- Msheilia, B. J. (1998). *Women participation in sports, myths and realities*. A paper presented at the 11th Commonwealth International Scientific Congress 3rd-8th September, Malaysia.
- Mulvihill, M. (2003). *Physical activity and young people*. Retrieved on 15th October 2007 at: <http://www.irishhaert.ie/iopen24/pub/heartwise/2003/paandyoungpeople.pdf>.
- Murray, M. (1991). Media impart on women in sport and sport leadership. *Jopherd*, 51-52.
- Nack, W. & Musson, L. (1995). Sport dirty secret. *Sport Illustrated*, 83, (5) 62-75.
- Navarro, B. (1996). *Peer relationship in middle childhood*. Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: <http://www.ematusov.com.final.htm>.
- Nawe, J. (2001). *Female participation in African University: Effective strategies for enhancing their participation with reference to the University of Dares Salaam*. Retrieved on 14th October 2007 at: www.Codesria.Org/Links/Conferece/Universities/JulitaNawe.Pdf.
- NSW Department of Sport and Recycling. (2000). *Sports facilities: Making physical activity safe and more accessible*. Retrieved on 23rd June 2008 at: www.Shop.Nsw.Gov.An/Statsdownloadjsp. Publication 3221.
- Okuneye, R. O. (2002). 'Regular exercise and individual's health'. *Nigeria Journal of Physical, Health Education and Recreation*, 2, 5-10.
- Omoruan, J. C. (1996). *A handbook on physical education, sports and recreation*. Zamarn, Zaria: Akesore & Co.
- Onifade, A. (1995). Developing sport in higher institutions in Nigeria. Problems

and future directions. *Journal of the National Institution for Sports*, 1, 40-43.

Orlokor, C. O. (2000). The awareness of the legal implications of disseminating health information and students participation in physical activities in Nigerian schools. *1st ICHPER-SD African Regional Conference*, Lagos, Nigeria 16-20 October 2000.

Osborne, B. (2002). Coaching the female athlete. In John, M. S. III & Diane, E. S. (Eds). *Psychological Foundations of Sport*, 428-437. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Osei, K. E. (2002, February 5-7). Facelift for Kaladan, *Graphic Sports*, 1067 (4).

Papanek, P. E. (2003). "The female athlete triad: An emerging role for physical therapy". *The Journal of Orthopedic and Sports Physical Therapy*, 33, (10) 594-614.

Parkhouse, B. L. & Williams, J. M. (1986). Differential effects of sex and status on evaluation of coaching ability. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 5, (7), 53-59.

Patrikson, G. & Eriksson, S. (1990). Young athletes perception of their coaches. *International Journal of P.E.*, 27, (4) 9.

Penney, D. & Harris, J. (1999). Extra curricular physical education: More of the same for the more able? *Sport Education and Society*, 2, (1), 41-54.

Perry, J. (2006). *Health benefits of women in sports in Australia*. Retrieved on 15th October 2007 at: <http://www.aph.gov.au/senate/committee/ecitactte/womeninsport/submission.html>.

- Pitman, K. J. (1991). *Promoting youth development: Strengthening the role of youth serving community organization*. New York: Center for Youth and Development and Policy Research.
- Powel, B. R. (2002). 'Women and sport in Victorian America' in *Victorian women and sports; Women's issues then and now*. Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: <http://www.uwrl.utas.edu/~ulrich/feminist/sports/shtml>.
- Prempeh, K. (2007). *Report on 2007 sporting activities*. Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Sports Office, vol 27 Office of the Sports Coach.
- Prentice, W. (2000). *Fitness and wellness for life* (6th ed.) New York: McGraw Hill Book Company.
- Rashid, S. (1994). *The physical education curriculum in Malaysia*. Unpublished Paper, University of Manchester.
- Remley, M. (1996). Women Olympic. *Jopherd*, 65, (5) 26. Toronto: McClelland & Steward.
- Rhodes, D. L. (2007). *Midlife cases for Title IX*. (Safe Gate). Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: www.w3.org/Ti2/Xhtml.
- Robinson, L. (1998). *Crossing the line: Violence and sexual assault in Canada's national sport*. Toronto: McClelland and Steward.
- Ryan, J. (1995). *Little in pretty box: The making and breaking of elite gym and figure skaters*. New York: Doubledge.
- Santrock, J. W. (2000). *Psychology*. New York: McGraw Hill Company.
- Sarantakos, S. (1998). *Social research* (2nd ed.). New York: Palgrave.

- Scott, P. A. (1989). A facilitating or inhibiting factor or female participation in physical activity. *Sport International Journal of Physical Education*, 26 (3) 17 - 22.
- Senate Committee Inquiry into Women in Sport and Recreation in Australia (2005). *The health benefits of women in sport and recreation in Australia Recreation*. Retrieved on 14th May 2007 at: <http://www.aph.gov.au/senate/committee/ecitacte/womeninsport.html>.
- Shalala, D. E. (1997). *Shalala urges greater participation for girls; First government report showing physical, mental, and social benefits of sports and physical activity for girls*. Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: <http://www.hhs.gov/news/press/1997pres/970328.html>.
- Shehu, J. (1999). *Girl to girl sport education initiative: Facilitating and sustaining school girls engagement within Tanzania*. Retrieved on 14th May 2007 at: www.Unit.No/Senat/Rapporter-Docs/Url-NUFU-Gender/Pdf.Leapitler.
- Shunk, D. H. (1996). *Learning theories* (2nd ed). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Smoll, F. L. & Smith, R. E. (2002). Coaching behaviour; A search and intervention in youth sport. In Smoll, F. L. & Smith, R. E. (Eds), *Children and youth in sports biopsychosocial perspective*. Dubuque, I. A: Kendall-Hunt.
- Sports and Recreation, South Africa (2005). *Participation patterns in sports*

and recreation activities in South Africa. Retrieved on 15th October 2007 at: <http://www.srsa.gov.za/ClientFiles/Sport%20and%20Recreation%20for20web.pdf>.

Steinberg, L. D. (2002). *Adolescence* (6th ed). New York: McGraw Hill Companies.

Stewart, C. & Taylor J. (2002). *Why female athletes quit: Implications for coach education*. Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: <http://www.findarticles.comP/articles/mi-hb3218/is-200202/ai-n1895172>.

Strategies. (2005). Why young athletes sign up for sports. *A Journal of Physical and Sports Educators*. Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: <http://www.epe.sagepub.com/cg/content.htm>

Sylwester, M. (2005). *Hispanic tradition, culture, family role in sports for Latina girls*. Retrieved on 23rd June 2008 at: <http://www.usatoday.com/sports/2005-03-28-hispanicx-tradition-xhtmt>.

Tanglang, N., Hamafyelto, S. S. & Bwala, W. D. (1996). Reason for early retirement in soccer among youth players in Maiduguri Metropolis. *JORHASS*, 1, (2) 58-60.

Taylor, S. E., Peplan, L. A. & Sears, D. O. (1997). *Social psychology* (8th ed). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Terry, P. C. & Howe, B. L. (1984). Coaching preference of elite athletes' competing at Universiade '83. *Canadian Journal of Applied Sport Science*, 4, 201-207.

The Berge (1996). Playing with boys. *Canadian Women Studies (Les Cahiers*

de la Femme) 15, (4) 37-41.

Thompson, L. P., Brandford, M., Watkinson, E. T. & Dunn, J. L. C. (1994).

Teaching children with movement difficulties: Highlighting the need for individual instruction in regular physical education. *P. E. Review*, 17, (2) 152.

Tokildson, G. (2000). *Leisure and recreation management*. London: Chapman and Hall.

Vernacchia, R. A., McGrauire, R. T., Reardon, J. P., & Templin, D. P. (2000).

Psychosocial characteristics of Olympic track & field athletes. *International Journal of Sports Psychology*, 31, 5-23.

Victorian Women in Sports (2002). *Women's issues then & now. A feminist overview of the past two (2) centuries*. Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: www.Crl.Utexas.Edu/-Ulrich/Feminist/Sports.Shtml.

Vuori, T. L. (2000). *Physical activity and cardiovascular disease prevention in the European union*. Brussels: European Heart Network.

Warren, L. (1991). *Coaching and motivation*. New York: Prentice-Hall.

Weiss, M. R., & Petlichkoff, L. M. (2002). Children's motivation for participation and withdrawal from sports: Identifying missing links. In Stewart, C. & Taylor, J. (Eds) *Why female athletes quit: Implications for coach education*. Retrieved on 28th May 2007 at: <http://www.findarticles.com/article/mi-hb3218/is-2002/ai-n1895172.htm>.

Welch, P., & Costa, D. M. (1994). A century of Olympic competition. In Costa,

D. M. & Crushie, S. R. (Eds), *Women and sport. Inter disciplinary perspective*. Champaign: Human Kinetics.

Wesson, K., Wiggins-James, N., Thompson, G. & Hartigon, S. (2005). *Sports and physical education; A complete guide to advanced level study* (3rd ed). Chennan: Charon Tec Pub Ltd.

Wilson, T. C. (2002). The paradox of social class and sports involvement. *International Review for Sociology of Sports*, 37, (1): 5-16.

Women's Sport Foundation (1998). *Minorities in sport*. East Meadow, New York: Women's Sport Foundation.

Women's Sports Foundation (2007). *What works for women: Explanation about the barriers to activity*. Retrieved on 8th July, 2007 at:
<http://www.whatworksforwome.org.uk/index.php?param=barriers.htm>.

Wuest, M. A., & Bucher, C. A. (1999). *Foundations of physical education* (13th ed). Dubuque: McGraw Hill Company.

Youth Sports Trust/Nike (1999). *The girls in sport partnership project*. Loughborough University: Institute of Youth Sport.

Zimmerman, J. & Reavill, G. (1998). *Football versus barbies. Childhood play activities as predictors of sport participation by women*. Retrieved on 23rd June 2008 at: <http://www.auth.athensams.net/?athretur/=22http%3a%2f%2fwww.springerlink.com>.

APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

**DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION
AND RECREATION**

Dear Respondent,

QUESTIONNAIRE TITLE:

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH LOW
PARTICIPATION OF FEMALES IN UNIVERSITY
SPORTS IN GHANA

Kindly read through the items of this questionnaire which is based on the above title, and please react to the various items under the different framework of sports participation as applicable to your institution in particular.

Be assured that your reaction will be treated strictly on confidential basis and the responses used for only academic exercises.

Your reaction to all the items will be much appreciated.

Thank you

(Janet Ampong)

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

**FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH LOW PARTICIPATION OF FEMALES IN
UNIVERSITY SPORTS**

SECTION A:

PERSONAL DATA

Please respond to the items on the questions by ticking (✓) in the box provided for the appropriate answer where applicable.

1. Institution:
UG []
KNUST []
UCC []
UEW []
UDS []
2. Level: 100 []
200 []
300 []
400 []
500 & above []
3. Programme pursued:.....
4. Gender: Male [] Female []
5. Age: 16 – 18 years []
19 – 20 years []

21 – 22 years []

23 – 24 years []

25 – 26 years []

27 – 28 years []

29 – 30 years []

31 – 32 years []

33 and above []

6. Sporting discipline(s):

Track and field []

Cross country []

Table tennis []

Volleyball []

Basketball []

Soccer []

Badminton []

Hockey []

Tennis []

Handball []

7. Previous school attended:

Name of 1st cycle school:.....

Name of 2nd cycle school:.....

Name of Training College/Polytechnic:.....

8. Residential Status:

Residential []

Non Residential []

SECTION B

The following statements relate to factors which may be associated with low participation of females in university sports. For each statement, indicate your choice by ticking (✓) Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)

No.	Questions	SA	A	U	D	SD
1.	A lot of coaches in the university drive away female students from participating in sports because of their attitudes.					
2.	Females are sensitive to comments from coaches.					
3.	More female coaches will encourage sports participation by female students in the university.					
4.	Coaches teach skills to enable me play sports in the university.					
5.	Most of the coaches in the Sports Department are not sympathetic enough to attract more females in the university to play sports.					
6.	Females who play sports for the university have high skill levels.					
7.	Most females in the university do not play sports because they did not have good foundation in their previous schools.					

No.	Questions	SA	A	U	D	SD
8.	Most university female students have the necessary skills to enable them play sports in the university, but they do not play.					
9.	Most females in the university lack the basic skill to play sports.					
10.	A lot of females would have played sports for the university if they were motivated enough.					
11.	There are enough incentives and motivation in the university because of injuries.					
12.	A lot of females in the university would play sports if they were sure they would be given residential accommodation throughout their studies.					
13.	The monies paid to female university students as incentives is one reason why I play sports.					
14.	Females play sports because of the opportunity to travel outside their university either nationally or internationally.					
15.	A lot of females participate in university sports because they have encouragement from their parents.					
16.	A lot of females in the universities in Ghana who could have played sports don't play because their friends also do not play sports.					

No.	Questions	SA	A	U	D	SD
17.	I would not have joined the university team if most of my friends were not in the team.					
18.	A lot of females would have played sports by they do not because their friends would tease them.					
19.	Most females play sports because they want to maintain their fitness level.					
20.	Females in the university don't need to play sports to maintain their fitness level.					
21.	A lot of females do not play sports because it makes them sick.					
22.	A lot of university females do not play sports because they are physically not fit.					
23.	A lot of females do not participate in university sports because they fear it will be difficult to bear children.					
24.	Females in the university are shying away from sports because they fear they would look masculine.					
25.	Female students are shying away from sports in the university because of injuries.					
26.	Most girls play sports in the university because they want to make friends.					

No.	Questions	SA	A	U	D	SD
27.	Being known by people and also knowing others is one reason why I play sports.					
28.	Female students in the university see sports as being too competitive.					
29.	The university has enough facilities and equipment for anyone who wants to play sports.					
30.	A lot of females are shying away from university sports because they cannot compete with the males for facilities.					
31.	Students can borrow equipment from the university sports stores anytime they want to.					
32.	The nearest of the facilities to students' residence will encourage more females to participate in university.					
33.	The facilities and equipment on university campuses as compared to the population of students do not encourage females to go out and use them.					
34.	Time set up purposely for sports by the administration is often used purposely for lectures by most lecturers and students.					

No.	Questions	SA	A	U	D	SD
35.	The university administration is helpless if time meant for sports is used for other things than sports.					
36.	Some students lose a lot of lecture periods because they play sports whilst their colleagues attend lectures.					
37.	A lot of females are not playing sports because of the intensive nature of the academic work.					
38.	A lot females would have played sports if there were times set aside for sports participation in the university.					
39.	Although the academic calendar is intensive, those who want to play sports for the universities will have time for it without academic work suffering.					

APPENDIX C

DESCRIPTIVE SURVEY

	N	df	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Min.	Max.	Chi- square	Asymp. Sig.
A lot of coaches in the university drive away female students from participating in sports because of their attitudes.	235	4	3.4199	1.31920	.08680	1.00	5.00	30.25	.000
Females are sensitive to comments from coaches.	235	4	4.2707	.91098	.06020	1.00	5.00	242.594	.000
More female coaches will encourage sports participation by female students in the university	235	4	3.8103	1.13514	.07453	1.00	5.00	100.672	.000
Coaches teach skills to enable me play sports in the university	235	4	3.8130	1.08777	.07173	1.00	5.00	145.384	.000

Most of the coaches in the Sports Department are not sympathetic enough to attract more females in the university to play sports

235	4	3.2641	1.16729	.07664	1.00	5.00	22.139	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------

Females who play sports for the university have high skill levels.

235	4	3.3233	1.16729	.07664	1.00	5.00	78.905	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------

Most females in the university do not play sports because they did not have good foundation in their previous schools.

235	4	3.7229	1.27193	.07229	1.00	5.00	97.074	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------

Most university female students have the necessary skills to enable them play sports in the university, but they do not play.

235	4	4.0870	.94444	.06227	1.00	5.00	215.957	.000
-----	---	--------	--------	--------	------	------	---------	------

Most females in the university lack the basic skill to play sports.

235	4	3.2052	1.14966	.07597	1.00	5.00	101.94	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------

A lot of females would have played sports for the university if they were motivated enough.

235	4	4.3680	.96397	.06342	1.00	5.00	278.71	.000
-----	---	--------	--------	--------	------	------	--------	------

There are enough incentives and motivation in the university because of injuries.

235	4	2.3160	1.37672	.09058	1.00	5.00	77.723	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------

A lot of
 females in the
 university
 would play
 sports if they
 were sure they 235 4 3.6752 1.24872 .08163 1.00 5.00 72.838 .000
 would be given
 residential
 accommodation
 throughout
 their studies.

The monies
 paid to female
 university
 students 235 4 2.0259 1.23064 .08080 1.00 5.00 134.078 .000
 as incentives is
 one reason why
 I play sports

Females play
 sports because
 of the
 opportunity to
 travel outside 235 4 2.6710 1.20686 .07941 1.00 5.00 50.753 .000
 their university
 either
 nationally or
 Internationally

A lot of
 females
 participate in
 university
 sports because 235 4 2.7974 1.18336 .07769 1.00 5.00 89.681 .000
 they have
 encouragement
 from their

Parents

A lot of
 females in the
 universities in
 Ghana who
 could have 235 4 3.0652 1.30839 .08627 1.00 5.00 55.0 .000
 played sports
 don't play
 because their
 friends also do
 not play sports

I would not
 have joined the
 university team 235 4 2.3930 1.39017 .09187 1.00 5.00 66.699 .000
 if most of my
 friends were
 not in the team

A lot of
 females would
 have played
 sports by they 235 4 2.8356 1.42509 .09501 1.00 5.00 27.778 .000
 do not because
 their friends
 would tease
 them

Most females play sports because they want to maintain their fitness level.	235	4	3.6438	1.11308	.07292	1.00	5.00	158.953	.000
--	-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	---------	------

Females in the university don't need to play sports to maintain their fitness level.	235	4	2.3777	1.27773	.08371	1.00	5.00	80.026	.000
---	-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------

A lot of females do not play sports because it makes them sick.	235	4	1.9700	1.21199	.07940	1.00	5.00	162.129	.000
--	-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	---------	------

A lot of university females do not play sports because they are physically not fit	235	4	2.1588	1.12787	.07389	1.00	5.00	130.712	.000
--	-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	---------	------

A lot of females do not participate in university sports because they fear it will be difficult to bear children	235	4	3.2241	1.33281	.08750	1.00	5.00	76.29	.000
---	-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	-------	------

Females in the university are shying away from sports because they fear they would look masculine

235	4	3.7991	1.15264	.07535	1.00	5.00	124.205	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	---------	------

Female students are shying away from sports in the university because of injuries.

235	4	3.6624	1.20501	.07877	1.00	5.00	147.154	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	---------	------

Most girls play sports in the university because they want to make friends.

235	4	3.0519	1.10606	.07277	1.00	5.00	118.329	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	---------	------

Being known by people and also knowing others is one reason why I play sports.

235	4	3.0823	1.28442	.08451	1.00	5.00	53.134	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------

Female students in the university see sports as being too competitive

235	4	3.0693	1.28010	.08422	1.00	5.00	60.710	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------

The university
has enough
facilities and
equipment for 235 4 2.5633 1.32177 .08734 1.00 5.00 71.066 .000
anyone who
wants to play
sports.

A lot of
females are
shying away
from university
sports because 235 4 2.7642 1.35929 .08982 1.00 5.00 27.790 .000
they cannot
compete with
the males for
facilities.

Students can
borrow
equipment
from the 235 4 2.9386 1.39720 .09253 1.00 5.00 24.544 .000
university
sports stores
anytime they
want to.

The nearest of
the facilities to
students'
residence will
encourage 235 4 3.4317 1.27552 .08466 1.00 5.00 106.502 .000
more females
to participate
in university.

The facilities and equipment on university campuses as compared to the population of students do not encourage females to go out and use them.

235	4	3.2675	1.20330	.07969	1.00	5.00	96.78	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	-------	------

Time set up purposely for sports by the administration is often used purposely for lectures by most lecturers and students.

235	4	4.1894	1.13445	.07530	1.00	5.00	213.61	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------

The university administration is helpless if time meant for sports is used for other things than sports.

235	4	4.2026	1.05738	.07018	1.00	5.00	191.216	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	---------	------

Some students lose a lot of lecture periods because they play sports whilst their colleagues attend lectures.

235	4	4.7061	.72498	.04801	1.00	5.00	527.570	.000
-----	---	--------	--------	--------	------	------	---------	------

A lot of females are not playing sports because of the intensive nature of the academic work.

235	4	4.6106	2.20478	.14666	1.00	5.00	428.531	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	---------	------

A lot females would have played sports if there were times set aside for sports participation in the university.

235	4	4.3026	.87076	.05767	1.00	5.00	235.728	.000
-----	---	--------	--------	--------	------	------	---------	------

Although the academic calendar is intensive, those who want to play sports for the universities will have time for it without academic work suffering.

235	4	3.1272	1.57529	.10433	1.00	5.00	46.254	.000
-----	---	--------	---------	--------	------	------	--------	------
