EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN IN SPORTS LEADERSHIP IN KENYA

by

JANET MUSIMBI M'MBAHA

(Under the Direction of Jepkorir, R. Chepyator-Thomson)

ABSTRACT

Research studies on women leaders have been on the increase over the last three decades. However research on African women in leadership is scarce. Specific to sport is that despite the exemplary performance of African women in sports over the last two decades, African women in sports leadership remain invisible. This study examined experiences of women in sport leadership in Kenya using social constructivism as the epistemological stance and feminism theoretical perspectives. Thirteen women leaders including physical educators, coaches, and sport administrators were selected from various sports organizations and education institutions in Kenya. These experiences were examined as they relate to their socialization, education and training, work and family lives, the challenges experienced, and how they are able to negotiate these in a male dominated world. The study builds on the 2004 International Olympic committee and Institute of Sport, Leisure Policy study on the women in National Olympic Committee (NOCs) from different nations around the world. This study highlighted important roles that women sports leaders play in the development of sports. It is hoped that the findings from the study will influence the national sports policy in Kenya, helping to create more opportunities for women and girls as participants and leaders in sport, operating in tandem with the "sport for all"

mandate of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), whose purpose is to promote active lifestyles, and assisting in the crafting of legislative policy directives to augment promotion of women to position of leadership in sports. In addition, the study provides a new cultural dimension to the scholarship on women in sport leadership.

INDEX WORDS: African Women, challenges, Feminism, leadership practice, Representation, Socialization, Social Constructivism, Sport Leadership

EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN IN SPORTS LEADERSHIP IN KENYA

by

JANET MUSIMBI M'MBAHA

Bachelor of Education, Kenyatta University, Kenya, 1993

Master of Education, Kenyatta University, Kenya, 2004

A Dissertation Research Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in

Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2012

EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN IN SPORTS LEADERSHIP IN KENYA

by

JANET MUSIMBI M'MBAHA

Major Professor: Jepkorir R. Chepyator-Thomson

Committee: Billy J. Hawkins
    Larry Nackerud

DEDICATION

To my parents, Mr. and Mrs. Ishamael M'mbaha Adika, thank you for believing in "the power of education" and for starting me off on this academic journey. My victory is due to your vision, support, sacrifice, prayers and the constant love that you showed me, and continue to show me in my life journey

To my children, Undisa, Vorega, and Luseno Kishasha, for the sacrifices that you had to make; for the days and months and years spent without me- my prayers are that you grow up to be seekers of knowledge- men and women that will have a positive change in this world. Always aspire to be the Best!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- Dr. Jepkorir Chepyator-Thomson, my mentor and advisor, thank you for challenging me to soar high like an eagle. Your multiple reads of my work is what made the final product – that which I am proud of.

- Dr. Billy Hawkins for your encouragement and kind words of advice reminding me that it is the challenges that make us better and stronger people.

- Dr. Nackerud, you always referred to it as your "two cents of advice." This is a statement that challenged me to reflect deeply on the entire PhD process and my philosophy. Without your input I would not have made it through.

- Mrs. Gateere- a woman of faith and courage, a prayer warrior. Thank you for teaching me to pray. I have seen the hand of God at work; indeed we serve an Almighty God. Thank you for dedicating time to pray for me and my family.

- Charity- I will never forget that day at the State Botanical Garden… thank you because I believe God's Mercies are forever.

- Mr. Emmanuel Satia, thank you for being one of "the bouncing boards" throughout this journey from the proposal stage to the final document and reader of the document.

- Dr. Njororai Simiyu my teacher and mentor, thank you for encouraging me throughout my academic journey.

- Mary Kigutu- a sister that came into my life in 1994, you are now part of my life; you are my sister and friend. You have loved my children like your own, you have cared for

them, you provided them with a shoulder to lean on and a home to go to when all seemed to be lost. I pray that the Good Lord will grant you your Heart's desires.

- To my brothers and sisters for your constant love and support- you have taken a great burden off my shoulder. To my sister Joy, thank you for taking care of Bessie.

- I would like to acknowledge the women (PEO sisterhood) that have dedicated their lives to empowering women through education for the awarding me the Philanthropic Educational Organization (P. E. O.), International Peace Scholarship (IPS) award.

- My sincere gratitude to the University of Georgia's Department of Kinesiology for the Soule Scholarship and for the Clifford Gray Lewis Scholarship awards for giving me peace of mind to concentrate on my studies.

- To all the women leaders in Kenya's sports organizations that participated in this study. Thank you for letting me into your lives. Thank you for sharing your stories; your messages were inspiring, a show of courage that will inspire other women. It is from these stories that other generations will refer to in the future; it is your legacy to the world of sports, to the Kenyan women in sport.

- And to all my friends, Evans, Chiri, Edward and others whom I cannot mention individually, and to each person that I have had a chance to interact with, my life would have been empty without you. Thank you for enriching my life.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Leadership is a critical element in many spheres of human societies. Although scholars

hold divergent views on the definition of leadership, most concur on the need for leaders to bring

about positive changes in societies. According to Nohria and Khurana (2010), leadership refers

to "a certain quality of an individual personality" that sets a person a part from others (p. 8).

From a behaviorist perspective, Northouse (2007) defines leadership as "a process whereby an

individual influences a group of people to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). Scholars (Brinia,

2011; Gunbayani, 2005) concur that leadership is a position of influence that allows a person to

motivate, inspire, and to set direction for the purpose of achieving certain goals. Leadership

operates under three dimensions that include: context, vision, and action (Levitt, 2010).

Considering varying definitions of leadership, Bass (1997) and Fiedler (1993) suggest the

meaning of leadership be defined and understood within specific situations or contexts.

Leaders are essential to social and cultural functioning in academic and non-academic

institutions. They possess influential skills to meet the mission and goals of institutions hence

produce best outcomes in education (Pelonis & Gialamas, 2010). Scholars consider successful

leaders to be great at generating visions, taking risks and demonstrating interest in continuous

education (Pelonis & Gialamas, 2010). In the context of education, for example, teacher leaders

are responsible for student learning outcomes (Brinia, 2011), while in the area of coaching, the

athletes look up to the coach for guidance, strategic planning, motivation, inspiration, and team

outcomes. Rather than view coaching positions as power positions, women coaches view

themselves as being in a position to provide support and encourage athletes (Theberge, 1990). In coaching, leadership requires the creation of interpersonal relationships between the coach and athletes (Vella, Oades, & Crowe, 2010), which helps to develop athletes. On their part, sports administrators are directly involved in making strategic planning goals and decision-making processes which impact the operations of the organization and the eventual achievement of the organizations' goals.

Leadership is particularly complicated for women because it requires them to align their actions with values, weigh the options they hold, manage multiple work relationships, and navigate complicated boundaries, while at the same time trying to meet obligations related to their professional duties and responsibilities (Hertneky, 2010). The multiplicity of these roles may prove quite burdensome to some women, leading to a lack of interest in leadership positions and to low representation of women in governance positions at both the national and international level (Sweetman, 2000).

There are a number of factors are responsible for the low representation of women in sports leadership. The factors, which may be categorized as being historical, social, organizational, and political factors, include: the conceptions of women as frail and inferior (Couturier & Chepko, 2001), male masculinity and dominance (Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009), cultural beliefs and sex stereotypes (Coleman, 2001; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010), feminine modesty (Budworth & Mann, 2010), lack of institutional support (Bodey, 2007; Carlson, 2008), gender role expectations (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010), work-family balances (Evetts, 1988; Robertson, 2010), lack of social network and role models (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010), lack of education and experience (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010), and organizational structures that inadvertently promote men over women (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). Generally, the deep seated

and unchanging organizational cultures that favor male leadership are the major impediments to women's progress into leadership.

A theoretical perspective that informs this study on women in sports leadership is fashioned alongside Segura's (2007) feminist analysis of the hegemonic power of patriarchy, which was as used in the analysis of motherhood and employment among immigrant women. In this study, Segura (2007) found motherhood to be an impediment to women's employment. Throughout this dissertation study on women in leadership, various theories of domination, including patriarchy and male hegemony, are used to understand and determine the construction of gender relations, and their effects on the status of women in leadership. More specifically, the theory of feminism is used in this study to explore gender relations and the status of women in sports. Feminist's research challenges power relationships that exist in most of the social sectors including sports, and also critiques sports as a sexist and male dominated institute (Messner & Sabo, 1990). Through social constructivism, multiplicity of perspectives in research is accepted (Creswell, 2007).

The concept of patriarchy informs the assignment of men to leadership positions, allowing for the acceptance of the supernatural and natural explanations of male dominance (Chowdhury, 2009). It is a system of power that is based on gender, and shows preference for hierarchical ordering of society, where men possess power and economic privilege (Eisenstein, 1999; Omwami, 2011). Feminists identify oppression and exploitation of women as the main features in patriarchy, with the former centering on sex and class differences, and the later occurring in labor relations between men and women. According to Eisenstein (1999), patriarchy exists in and is maintained by all other social structures including marriage, family, sexual division of labor and society. This domination of positions of power and challenges that result

from the marginalization of women confirms feminists' views that patriarchy undermines the position of women by excluding them from participating in the social, economic and political agenda (Omwami, 2011).   This also explains the underrepresentation of women in leadership in all social- political and corporate societies as well as in sports (Bodey, 2007; Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 2000; Norman, 2010; Staurowsky, 1990; Chabaya, Rembe, & Wadesango, 2009; Dominici, Fried, & Zeger, 2009; Hoffman, 2006; McCartney, 2007; Triola, 2008; Brown & Evans, 2004; Burnett, 2002; Pheko, 2009; Webb & Macdonald, 2007).

In sports, gender differentiation is powerfully constructed to favor men, helping the development of subordinate roles for women. Discussing male hegemony, Schell and Rodriquez (2000) identified sports and society as areas where dominant ideologies control both the social and economic aspects of sports. This helps to explain the low representation of women in sports. Employing Gramsci's theory of hegemony to examine the experiences of elite female coaches in coaching profession in the UK, Norman's (2010) study found female coaches to be undervalued, undermined and trivialized. The society's notion of the "ideal coach" as being male disadvantaged those women seeking for coaching positions in sports organizations. In another study on women leadership in girls' basketball in Australia, Burke and Hallinan, (2006) pointed out that the maintenance of male domination in leadership was blamed on women's lack of interest or aspirations for higher coaching jobs. While this view has been noted by some scholars (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010; Theberge, 1990), research on sports organizations in UK and Germany contrasts this notion through findings that attribute low representation of women in leadership positions to discriminatory recruitment practices (Norman, 2010; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). Evidently, patriarchy subscribes to the idea of "power over" rather than "power with", the latter being the feminist's ideal of positions of power (Theberge, 1990) .

In the area of sport, women are generally underrepresented in leadership positions. For instance, the Olympics leadership structural practices maintained a male hegemony and patriarchal culture that resisted the involvement of women in sports. It took more than seven decades for women to be first accepted into the Olympic leadership, and it was only in 1981 that the first women were elected to serve on the International Olympic Committee (IOC) under the leadership of IOC president Samaranch (Rintala & Bischoff, 1997). As women continuously seek for equal representation, sport remains a contested arena, where piecemeal equality rules and policies are dispensed at the discretion of men, who are unwilling to share power (Staurowsky, 1990).

Recent statistics on the women in IOC leadership positions and its affiliate organizations around the world also reveal lack of women in leadership positions. This appears to indicate their exclusion in national and international sports policy boards. Furthermore, women have not received full benefits from the various national and international equality policies. The 2006 report on IOC leadership shows that of the 15 members of the executive committee, only one member (6.6%) was a woman; the general committee had only 15 (13%) of the 100 members as women; and only 36 (15.3%) out of 199 members of the IOC commissions were women (Women in Sports Foundation, 2009b). This situation has hardly changed. The statistics of women on the executive board remains the same in 2012 with only one woman, Gunilla Lindberge serving as one of the four vice presidents (www.lisafernandez16.com/letter/IOCmembers.pdf)

The 1997 Women and Sports policy of empowering women in National Olympic Committees (NOC) and governing bodies, had not achieved the target for increasing the number of women on the NOC bodies, which was to be 10 percent in 2001 and 20 percent in 2005. Only

12.6 % increase in NOC's general assembly, and 15.4 % increase in the Executive boards of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) positions had been realized. Noting that the intended targets were yet to be realized, the IOC recommended that recruitment of women into national federations be intensified. With only 12.6 percent representation, women could never amass enough voting power or effectively influence the decision making process. Schell and Rodriquez (2000) perceive the domination of power structures as enabling imposition of dominant values in sport and society ensuring a continued marginalization of women.

Although the last few decades have witnessed increased entry of women into positions of leadership, studies on the career paths show that the progress of women into leadership has been slower than that of men. This has been attributed to organizational, cultural and personal factors (Colemana & Campbell-Stephens, 2010; Doherty & Manfredi, 2010; Eddy & Cox, 2008). Generally, the progress of women in their careers has been inhibited by their roles as mothers, wives, as well as by their reproductive roles, low education and inadequate skills. Robertson's (2010) study on women in coaching revealed the struggles that women undergo in their attempts to manage motherhood and coaching. Career breaks due to maternity leave, lack of career planning or confidence to apply for leadership positions, lack of role models, and being evaluated against male standards contributed to women's slow progress in leadership.

Despite the many challenges encountered by women into leadership and their exemplary performance as leaders, gender differences continue to be a subject of discussion in numerous studies (Budworth & Mann, 2010; Coleman, 2003; Doherty & Manfredi, 2010; Oplatka, 2001). Some of the studies have identified differences in leadership styles between men and women. Collaborative and democratic styles have been associated with women while assertiveness, competitions and direct styles have been linked to men (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). These

perceived differences are based on gender experiences (Budworth & Mann, 2010) and are related to the gender role socialization and perception of women and actions towards them, both of which further marginalize women in leadership positions.

As various researchers previously indicated, male dominated leadership implies low representation of women in positions of power. The social, historical, cultural and structural factors appear to contribute to the marginalization of women in leadership, with these factors being categorized under the organizational, relational and individual barriers labels. Coleman (1996) used the theories of inequality to determine how the social, structural and organizational factors impede the advancement of women to leadership. Organizational barriers are characterized by lack of institutional policies that support women, inadequate resource allocation (Bodey, 2007), unbalanced job selection and promotion strategies, and unrealistic expectations (Carlson, 2008; Coleman, 1996; Dominici et al., 2009). Gendered stereotypes, lack of social capital, family- work conflicts, motherhood, and isolation constitute relational barriers (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010; Evetts, 1988; Ismail & Rasdi, 2008; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010).

Individual barriers are blamed for the low representation of women in leadership. For example, Budworth and Mann (2010) advanced the theory of female modesty to explain the women's slow or lack of progress to leadership positions. Feminine modesty occurs when one downplays their abilities, and instead promotes the contributions of others. Feminine modesty is seen as the reluctance to be involved in self-promoting behaviors (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010), yet men use these self-promoting behaviors to access leadership positions and gain economic rewards. The feminine modesty could be a result of gender role socialization and is blamed for the low numbers of women in leadership. Other reasons to explain the low representation of women in leadership include dropping out of leadership positions or taking early retirement.

Pfister and Radke (2006) found men and women to cite different reasons for resigning from leadership positions in organizations. While power struggles constituted the main reasons for men leaving, women dropped out because of family- work conflicts or other personal matters. Though both men and women dropped out of leadership, this situation had negative implications for the representation of women in leadership.

Research on women in leadership attests to the low representation of women in leadership positions. The low representation of women in leadership denotes a society with predetermined gender roles that perpetuate male hegemony in sports leadership. Nevertheless, research reveals the important roles women play as agents of change (Chepyator-Thomson, 2005) and as having the ability to lead (Hoyt, 2010). However, despite the legislation of laws and policies such as the Equal Opportunity for All (EOA), United Nations Human Rights (UNHR) act and the Affirmative action intended to increase the participation of women in various work places, the progress of women into leadership positions has been slow, and their representation remains low (Therberge & Birell, 2007). On average, less than 20 percent of women hold the CEO positions in all public sectors around the world. For instance, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) executive office has only 6 percent representation of women on its board and less than 20 percent representation on all its other committees (womenssportsfoundation.org).

In Kenya, the Affirmative Action Bill of 2007 centers on the promotion of education and representation of women in public life in which women are supposed to occupy at least 30 percent of the political posts and the public sector jobs. This target has yet to be reached, and in politics only 10 percent of women hold parliamentary seats. In sports, Kenyan male runners have enjoyed national and international celebrity status for many years. However, in the past 10 years female runners have been posting better results. Kenyan women runners first participated in the

1968 Olympics but it is only at the 2008 Beijing Olympics that a Kenyan woman was able to win the first ever Olympic gold medal. In 2011, Kenyan women held five of the top ten fastest times in world marathon races. Kenya has also been a dominant force in the women's volleyball, and is one of the top teams in Africa. Besides, Kenyan sportswomen have initiated projects that have transformed lives. The most notable among these women include the Tecla Lorupe Peace Foundation founded in 2003; Ruth Waithera's Avenue Sports Club in 1998 for development of the underserved youth, and Lorna Kiplagat's High Altitude Athletics Training Camp in Iten (Nzwili, 2006). Despite the increased participation of Kenyan women in sports, their exemplary performance and their roles in community development, Kenyan women's contributions have remained unaccounted, and women are underrepresented in leadership positions in Kenya. For example, until 2011, only one woman had served on the National Olympic Committee of Kenya (NOCK).

Rationale for the Study

While under representation of women in leadership continues to be of great concern, it is important to note that most of the research in the area is limited to U.S. and European contexts. Very few studies exist on women leaders and managers in Africa. Nkomo and Ngambi's (2009) analysis on the current knowledge on African women in leadership found only 43 publications, 32 journal articles , three monographs, one book, two book chapters and five others studies on African women in leadership. Majority of the articles focused on South Africa, Nigeria and Ghana respectively. The main focus of the studies was on obstacles and barriers that the women in management faced. None of the articles found were related to sports. However, the researchers pointed out that since their research was limited to computer search, it was possible that there were other studies that may have been left out.   My recent search using the *Education Research*

Complete EBSCOhost basic search engine produced a total of 1274 articles published between 1891 and 2012 on "women in leadership". Of these, 874 were peer reviewed, with only 30 focusing on African-American and African women combined and only six being specific to African women in leadership. The *Sport Discuss* database produced 351 researches on women in leadership. One hundred and ten research studies were peer reviewed and none of them focused on African women. This appears to confirm Nkomo and Ngambi's (2009) findings about the scarcity of research on African women in leadership on various subjects including women in sport leadership, thus the current study.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in giving a voice to women's issues in sports, giving the women a chance to share their sports stories. The study provides an insightful and in-depth understanding of the issues of inequality in sport. Women's sports stories should be both inspiring and empowering to other women aspiring for leadership positions in sports. The study provides information that helps to influence the current policy on women in leadership positions in Kenya. The study also contributes new information to bridge the knowledge gap on women in sport and leadership in Africa. The study adds a new cultural dimension to the study of leadership, and serves as a basis for more research in the area of women in sports in Africa. It is acknowledged that the roles of women as leaders cannot be ignored; hence the need for leadership development. In addition, through research, the needs of the African women can be identified, highlighted, and improved.

Problem Statement

While the representation of women in sports continues to be of great interest, it is important to note that most of the research on women in sports is limited to U.S. and European

contexts. Very few studies have been conducted in Africa or addressed experiences of women in sports leadership from the African women's perspectives. Given the paucity of research on women in sports leadership in Africa, this study explored experiences of women in physical education, coaching and sports administration, who served in various sports organizations and educational institutions in Kenya. As women increasingly take up leadership roles, the need to explore their experiences in the male dominated organizations is paramount, hence the conduction of the current study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine experiences of 20 women leaders representing coaches, sports administrators and physical educators, purposively selected from various sports organizations and educational institutions in Kenya. Specifically, the study addressed the women sports leaders in the areas of socialization, career development, leadership roles, leadership styles, challenges and barriers. It is hoped that the stories of these women will inspire other women aspiring for leadership positions.

Research Questions

Research questions for this study were informed by the literature review on the studies of women in leadership. Specifically, Henry et al's.(2004) report on women leaders in Olympics; Martel's (2007) study on Canadian women in sports leadership; McAllister's (2006) study on the influence of competitive athletic careers on leadership styles, Pfister & Radtke's (2009) study on Germany sports federations, and Inglis et al's., (2000) study on multiple realities of women sports leaders. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What factors influenced women's choice of a career in sports leadership?
   a. Socialization

      b.   Opportunity for leadership

2. What roles do women fulfill in sports leadership?

      a.   To what extent do they influence the decision making process

3. What are the leadership styles of women sports leaders?

4. What challenges do women in sports leadership encounter?

5. How do women in sports leadership overcome these challenges?

Research Approach

Phenomenology; ethnography; case studies; grounded theories and narrative studies are among the different research approaches used in qualitative research (Creswell, 2007). Phenomenology attempts to understand the essence of experiences about a phenomenon. In ethnography, one describes and interprets cultural or social groups. Case studies focus on developing an in-depth analysis of a single case or multiple cases, and in grounded theory, a researcher develops a theory grounded in the field narratives whose focus in on the individual and personal experiences (Creswell, 2007). This study used a qualitative research design, and followed Merriam's (1998) basic qualitative research design, which embodies all the characteristics of a qualitative research method and is defined as that "which seeks to discover and understand a phenomenon, a process or perspectives and worldviews of people involved" (Merriam 1998, p. 11). In view of this, interviews were used to collect data from the participants, with the researcher serving as the main tool for data collection, and with the data being analysed inductively (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

Researcher Assumptions

Based on my experiences in sports administration and education, I made various assumptions. First is that the women sports leaders' choices of career are influenced by various

factors such as family and education, leading to their present positions as leaders in sports. The second assumption is that as leaders, women in sports have specific roles to play and that they engage in various decision-making processes in their place of work. The third assumption is that in the course of their long careers in sports, women have developed a style of leadership which suits their specific roles within particular environments. Fourth is the assumption that given the fact that women in sports operate in a male dominated environment, they encounter various organizational or social-cultural barriers and challenges in their place of work. The fifth assumption is that in their course of work and long careers, the women in sports leadership must have devised strategies for overcoming the challenges that they encounter that enabled them to perform their duties. The sixth assumption is that women in sports leadership have aspirations and goals for themselves, which enabled them to stay motivated and do their work. The last assumption is those that participated in this study are considered as leaders in physical education, coaching as well as leaders in sports organizations.

The Researcher

I bring the experience of having been an active athlete in school and college, and I have many years of experiences as a physical educator and sports administrator. As a high school Physical Education teacher for 12 years, I held multiple roles of teacher, coach, and administrator of the school's sports program. As a married woman with young children, engaging in sports required a delicate balancing of the family- work situations. It is at this point in my teaching career that I was first exposed to leadership roles, where I remember being "tapped," against my will, by my school principal to serve as the Vice Chairperson (V.C.) of the Nairobi Province Secondary Schools Sports Association. While I had resisted taking up this role, I came to realize that the duties assigned to me as a V.C. were of low status. Generally, my

13

position was just for "window dressing" as I hardly contributed to the decision making process, and besides, all decisions were made for me. For instance, on one of the trips to the national championships, I was made the girl's chaperon and had to stay in the girls' dormitory, while the Chairman and other Vice chairman (both male) stayed in a five star hotel.

My role as a director of sports at a university exposed me to more leadership roles. Generally, the organizational structure of sports in Kenya's universities has sports departments operating under the Dean of Students (D.O.S) office. Normally, D.O.S's have qualifications in counseling psychology and often, neither possesses knowledge nor hold any interest in sports. Operating under such an organizational structure can either be rewarding or frustrating based on the support by the D.O.S. My experience in these roles have equipped me with the knowledge on what it means to be woman in sports leadership, and provided me with a rich background of knowledge on Kenya's sports contexts. In addition, the education that I have received as a physical education major has further exposed me to the literature on the study of women in sports. It is these experiences that place me at a vantage position to conduct this research. The experiences have also provided me with deep insights into the study on women leaders in sports.

In spite of these experiences, I am not averse to the fact that they could influence my interpretation of the study. Peshkin (1988) notes that, subjectivity can be virtuous and can serve as basis for researchers making unique contributions, resulting from their individual perspectives and qualities that may be included in the data collected. It is with this in mind that I know that my subjectivity will enable me delve deeply into the research and ask the right questions. According to Suzuki, Ahluwalia, Arora, and Mattis, (2007), data gathering is reflexive and it requires researchers to engage in self-reflection in which the researcher discusses his/her personal experience and values and how they impact what he /she finds. Following Peshkin

(1988), my subjectivity is like a "garment that cannot be removed." As a researcher, I am aware of the subjectivity that I brought to this study and I strove to keep a journal to record any subjectivity that I may have harbored, thus ensuring that stayed truthful to the qualitative research.

Definitions of Terminology

Agentic: Masculine behavior that is characterized by aggressiveness in competition**.**

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

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

Colonial Education: Formal education which was different from indigenous African education.

Form One: A British Education grade level classification. Thus Form one is the equivalent of 9th grade

Leadership: The positions that enable one to influence others and accomplish a goal

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

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

Sports Federations: Organizations in charge of different sports

List of Abbreviations

AK: Athletics Kenya

CAR: Confederation of Africa Rugby

CAV: Confederation of African Volleyball

CECAFA: Confederation of East and Central Africa Football Association

FIFA: Federation Internationale de Football Association

FIV: Federation of International Volleyball

FKL: Football Kenya Limited

IAAF: International Amateur Athletics Federation

IHU: International Hockey Union

IOC: International Olympic Committee

IRF: International Rugby Federation

ISLP: Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy

ITF: international Tennis federation

KHU: Kenya Hockey Union

KLTA: Kenya Lawn Tennis Association

KNA: Kenya Netball Association

KNSC: Kenya National Sports Council

KRFU: Kenya Rugby Football Union

KSA: Kenya Swimming Association

KVF: Kenya Volleyball Federation

NOCK: National Olympic Committee of Kenya

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature starts with a general historical overview of women in leadership in education, sports, politics and the corporate world. The next section of the review focuses on women in leadership in Africa, emphasizing women leaders in physical education and sports administration, followed by the current status of women in leadership. Equal legislation laws, critical in the emancipation of women are also discussed. The section on sports in Kenya provides insights into background knowledge and the organization of sports in Kenya, as well as the participation of women in Kenyan sports. This serves as the context of the dissertation study. The subsequent section on literature review addresses the main topics that emerged from studies on women in leadership and they include the following: career paths and progress, leadership practices and gender, challenges and barriers that women encounter, and how they navigate those barriers. This section also provides ways of developing women leaders. Finally, the theoretical frameworks used to ground this study are discussed. Figure 1 represents topics covered in the first section of the literature review and they include: women in leadership, changes made through legislation, and sports in Kenya.

A Historical Overview

While leadership has been assumed to be an "entitlement" for men, women have had to work hard to prove their leadership abilities. The historical, social, political, religious, cultural practices and ideologies uphold the superiority of men over women. Women's progressive entry into leadership positions and working within a male dominated environment is filled with

18

controversy and barriers. The patriarchal heritage present in most societies and organizations around the world promote women's subordination to men. For example, the Victorian conceptions of women as frail and inferior promoted the assignment of leadership roles to men, while relegating women to subordinate roles of child rearing and bearing (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). In the gender allocation of duties, the roles assigned to women were considered "private", while those allocated to men were of the "public" nature.

Women in Leadership

Women in Leadership	Making changes through Legislation	Sports in Kenya
• Historical overview • African women in leadership • Women in sports administration & physical education leadership • Current status of women • Summary	• Equal Opportunity Act • Affirmative Action • Brighton Declaration • Summary	• Kenya women in sports • Sports Leaders • Summary

Figure 1: Topics covered under section 1 of the literature review

Prior to women's movements' fight for property and education rights in the 18th century in Europe and USA, education was considered necessary for men who served in the government. For women, education was considered an "unnecessary luxury" because their roles as wives were not considered to require any intellectual capabilities (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). Illustrating the history of education in the USA, McAllister (2006) noted that the best education was provided to men, while women received only basic minimum education suitable for domestic

work and teaching children. Furthermore, there were fears that providing women with an education freed them from domestic roles (Freedman, 2002). However, the breakthrough for women came during the civil war and World War I, when men were called to serve in the military, leaving women to take over roles that had been previously occupied by the men, including leadership positions (McAllister, 2006). After the war, the management of education was restructured to follow a business model, creating the superintendent position as the highest post where the principals, deputy principals and teachers reported. The superintendent was mainly a man. In addition, the chances of women ever becoming leaders in education were inhibited by the universities exclusion of women from administration and management programs; yet administration and management skills were prerequisites for one becoming a school Superintendent or school principal (McAllister, 2006).

The changes in education occurred in tandem with other sectors of society. Freedman (2002) points out that the growth of labor market and industrialization, which paved way for men's paid employment in the industries away from home, resulted in the confinement of women to domestic labor. This was unrewarding and made women to be dependent on men. The structuring of labor into "separate spheres" were effectively used to define gender roles, under which, domestic labor / roles were trivialized.   Feminists regard both capitalism and colonialism as being conduits of the oppression of the women (Freedman, 2002).

Furthermore, the subordination of the women was also enhanced by Charles Darwin's theory of male superiority and sex differences, which promoted the patriarchal hierarchical structure that was predominantly used in the Victorian era (Couturier & Chepko, 2001).This theoretical perspective continues to manifest in most organizations today. Colonialist and the Christian missionaries extended the idea of natural superiority of men to other continents such as

Africa and Asia, and used education and religion to prepare men for leadership positions (Freedman, 2002).This illustration demonstrates the genesis of the marginalization of women; their loss of authority, and the continued loss on the grip of power in public sectors and sports sector as well.

A number of researchers consider education and sports as areas where the gender roles are continuously perpetuated, and a place where the dominant group controls the agenda (Coleman, 2001; Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009). Although various national and international bodies have ratified policies such as Affirmative Action and the Equal Opportunities Acts, women continue to be underrepresented in most leadership positions, an obvious disconnect between policy and practice. The passing of some of the legislation such as the Brighton Declaration in the United Kingdom was met with a lot of resistance from men as they saw it as a form of "reverse discrimination" and a way of denying them their rightful positions (Freedman, 2002). The empowerment policies are yet to be fully implemented in some countries which further disenfranchise the women in leadership.

While the international bodies acknowledge the existing inequities and have adopted a number of legislative laws and policies for the empowerment of women, the progress of women to leadership positions has been slow. Despite the phenomenon increase of women acquiring higher education and gaining entry into the labor market, the progress of women into leadership positions has not been proportional with the changes. Few women occupy decision making positions. Statistics from around the world attest to the unequal representation of women in leadership positions: the 2006 American Association of University Professors (AAUP) report showed that there were 66 % men, and 34 % women professors; 43% women, and 66% men were tenured (Carlson, 2008). In 2005, 14.7% women held board seats in the Fortune 500

companies, but only 2.4% were in the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) position (Branson, 2007). The 2000 world wide representation of women in parliament was 5100 (13.8%), and that out of 179 nations around the world, only 39 had ever elected women as prime minister or president. Additionally only one tenth of the world cabinet and one fifth of assistant minister positions were held by women, with Kenya having 3.6 percent representation of women in 222 member parliament (http://unstats.un.org).

Apparently, there are no comprehensive data on the world wide representation of women in sports leadership, particularly at the grassroots levels either in sports administration, coaching or physical education. Only Henry et al. (2004), through a study commissioned by the IOC, provide some data on women in the National Olympic Committee (NOC) around the world. Nevertheless, those results uphold findings that women are underrepresented leadership positions as only 12.4 percent women had been recruited to serve on the NOC. While the Henry et al.'s (2004) study focused on representation of women in NOC's around the world, failure to consider the position of women leaders in sports federations or those at the grass roots levels implies lack of comprehensive statistical study on women in sports leadership around the world.

African Women in Leadership

When considering African women in leadership, it is important to note that: "At independence, Africa inherited political ideologies and structures designed to consolidate male privilege and power, and women's subordination" (Tamale, 2000, p.10). Although the African society was patriarchal and a sex-separate institution, both the men's and women's roles were seen as complementing each other and women played very important roles that were seen as critical to the welfare of the society (Chepyator-Thomson, 2005). In fact, women held some powerful religious and political positions in the society and they were also economically

empowered through their farming and trade activities (Allen, 1972; Freedman, 2002). Authority vested in women and motherhood was deemed as central to the growth and stability of the community, and in some cultures, women shared political power with their sons, and further members of the community looked up to the queen mother for directions (Freedman, 2002; Sudarkasa, 1982). In Nigeria, leadership was shared between the male (Obi) and female (Oma) monarchs (Tamale, 2000). Women were also actively involved in governance of the community and they adjudicated cases and passed judgments (Falola, 1995; Tamale, 2000). Generally, the women were so revered in the community that their roles could only be equated to that of providence or mother earth. In sum, women drew their power and authority from respectable roles that were bestowed upon them by the society.

However, this ended with the introduction of the centralized administrative system by the colonialists and the imposition of male superiority-based ideologies that only recognized male authority. According to Falola (1995), women always had some form of political control in various parts of their communities and had special titles that recognized successful women. Basically the African woman held domestic power, and even participated in the decision making and was thus regarded as an elder in her own right. The changes in the social-structural organization during colonization period disrupted the social, political, religious and economic order and the structure of African society. Consequently, the authority of women was eroded and their former powerful positions dissolved (Freedman, 2002). Colonial education and Christian missionary practices were effectively used to promote men over women.

At the close of the last millennium, only 17 African countries had 10 percent representation of women in parliament (Tamale, 2000). Although this percentage was the lowest among all continents, there have been some slight improvements in the representation of women

in political leadership, with Rwanda being ranked as the nation with majority female representation in the national legislative body (Burnet, 2012).   The increases number of women in politics have however not translated into increased influence in the decision making process.

In Africa, Nigerian women waged a "women's war" similar to the feminist movement in Europe which fought for the equal rights and liberation of women, in 1929, to protect their economic and political power which was threatened by the imposition of taxes on women's properties. Other resistant protests by Nigerian women took place in 1959 to protect their declining power status (Freedman, 2002).   Generally, the women's rights movements in Africa have not been as robust as the European feminist movements. At independence some African Nations formed women's groups to represent women's interests; however, the objectives of most of these groups were limited to the empowering women at the household levels and not increasing their participation in leadership at the national and international levels. For instance, Kenya's *Maendeleo Ya Wanawake* (MYW), women's development, and Tanzania's *Umoja Wa Wanawake Wa Tanzania* (UWT), women's unity groups are seen as extensions of the political ruling class, whose agenda is not representing women's issues (Tamale , 2000). Longwe, (2000) portends no hope for complete integration of the African women in leadership given that the politics, economics and social structures at national levels are shaped by international governing bodies that are patriarchal in nature.

Although considerable gains have been made through the empowerment of women's legislations, and which have increased access to education and entry into the labor market, a number of challenges fuelled by the cultural norms and gender role expectations continue to inhibit women's progress to leadership positions. Abdela's (2000) research on why men were reluctant to elect women as leaders found that the cultural influences and gender stereotypes

assumed that women were unqualified, unable to lead, could never command authority, and could not fit into the "boys network" hence were not worthy of any elective positions into parliament. Abdela, (2000) further noted that:

> We have learned that getting a few more women elected or appointed to leadership and decision making positions is not enough, if the systems and political culture are still designed for men. We have found that it is not enough just to train women as leaders without working on changing negative attitudes towards women leaders on the part of political parties, governments, the media, and the public (p.23).

This statement highlights the fact that women will only be guaranteed equality when the patriarchal practices change to be more accepting of women as leaders and when their roles begin to be viewed as being complementary rather than being in opposition to men's power. Longwe (2000) also maintains that education and training are not enough, and that increased power, increased participation in the decision making process, and increased control of resources, is the only way of empowering women. Generally, this situation requires a whole lot of structural, organizational, cultural and individual transformation to achieve the target of advancing women in leadership. Evidently, information on African women in leadership is scarce thus the need for this study.

Women in Sports Administration and Physical Education Leadership

Generally, sports remain a male dominated arena, especially in leadership positions, where women are seen as intruders (Hargreaves, 2007). Despite the different social, religious and cultural factors that distinguish communities around the world, one thing that remains common to all humanity is gender and how it is constructed and maintained, indicating that most of the societies around the world support the notions of gender differences. In Europe, the Victorian

conceptions depicted women as frail and inferior (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). While men were

in paid employment in commerce and industry, women concentrated on domestic work and

raised children (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). The same reasons were used to deny women a

chance to participate in sports as illustrated in the following section that focuses on women at the

Olympics and women leaders' roles in physical education and sports.

Women at the Olympics

The history of sports shows that the ancient Olympics games were constructed as a

preserve for men, and women were neither allowed to watch nor participate in the games

(Couturier & Chepko, 2001; Norman, 2010). It is only in the year 1900, when women were first

allowed to participate in the IOC games, and only in selected sports, which emphasized grace

and beauty such as golf and lawn tennis (Hargreaves, 2001). Some of the founding fathers of

modern Olympics games objected to women's participation in sports. For instance "Baron de

Coubertin envisioned the modern Olympic Games as a celebration of masculinity," and said that:

"women's proper place was in the stands as appreciative observers and not participants"

(Couturier & Chepko, 2001, p. 89). By this statement, de Coubertin was marking out sports as a

male domain. In fact, his statement reinforced the long-held beliefs and patriarchal practices of

the ancient Olympics, where women were originally the prizes in men's Olympic chariot races

(www.olympicwomen.co.uk/3.html.) Avery Brundage, the IOC president (1952- 1972) was also

opposed to women sports and advocated for removal of some of the women's events from the

Olympic program (Greendorfer, 2001; Hargreaves, 2001). These leaders' positions articulate the

gendered ideologies used to protect sports from women's involvement. This, in turn, resulted in

the slow growth of women's sports. Schell & Rodriquez (2000) observed that inadequate

representation decision-making positions allow the dominant group to successfully impose their ideas on the minority. In sports for example, men determine the whole agenda.

Women Leaders' Roles in Promoting Physical Education and Sports

After successfully lobbying for equal access to education and employment, women became bolder in their demands for equal rights, and succeeded in getting women allowed to participate in the Olympics games. With the expansion of education, USA and European nations recognized the importance of sports and physical education programs, and introduced them to the university and colleges academic programs (Swanson & Spears, 1995). However, men and women's sports and PE programs were conducted separately. For women leaders in sports and PE, "separate spheres" strategy ensured that women could have equal access to sports and PE without interfering in men's sport (Park, 2010; Poulsen, 2004). Women were only allowed to participate in certain sports that were modified in accordance with the prescribed feminine requirements. In Belgium, women PE and sports leaders introduced girls' physical education programs in schools, as well as in women's Teacher training colleges. Moreover, aggressive appointment of women as inspectors of girls PE in school and promotion of gymnastics as a women's activity helped create an identity for women's PE and sports (Poulsen, 2004). Notably, highly educated professionals who were committed to promoting sports for all women managed women's sports, and these professionals were opposed to the men-preferred competitive sports because they wanted to expand opportunities for women's participation in sports.

Women physical educators were proactive in advocating for participation of women in sports. These pioneer physical educators played tripartite roles of teachers, coaches and administrators (Park, 2010; Swanson & Spears, 1995). In addition to these multiple roles, they used their organizations to develop women's physical education programs in the universities.

While men sports showed preference for competitive sports which were viewed as promoting individualism, women leaders resisted the idea of competitive sports for women, and instead preferred the participation-for-all model, encouraging the development of a culture that allowed everyone to benefit from the sports experience (Park, 2010; Swanson & Spears, 1995).

The success of women only activities combined with women's management of their own activities lasted up to the 1970's when there was a merger of women's and men's physical education and sports programs under the Title IX (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008). The subsequent appointment of men to head those programs further reduced the number of women in sports leadership. For instance the number of women coaches declined from 90% in the 1970's to less than 45 % in 2000 (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008). Increasingly, more men are being hired to coach women sports, yet very few women ever get a chance to coach male sports; the gendered stereotypes and sexism limit coaching opportunities for women (Norman, 2010; Staurowsky, 1990). In view of the declining representation of women in leadership, Branson (2007) argues that women have been underserved by policies that were meant to empower them. This situation is replicated by other national and international sports organizations around the world. In Kenyan schools, Physical Education educators still hold tripartite roles of teaching, coaching and sports administration. This is because there is usually just one physical education teacher in a school and they are expected to teach, coach sports and manage the school's sports programs. This study will provide an opportunity to examine women leaders' levels of involvement in PE and sports, and to discover their challenges and achievements.

Current Status of Women in Sports Leadership Internationally

One of the IOC's 1997 women's sports policy resolutions was to increase the number of women in NOC leadership to 10% by 2001 and to 20% by 2005. However, the 2004 IOC/ISLP's

evaluation indicated that those targets had not been achieved due to the lack of women members or representatives at the local sports federations. The study revealed that women were not offering themselves for positions in their sports federations and thus men remain dominant leaders in national bodies (Henry et al., 2004). As previously provided, the Women Sports Foundation report on the 2006 leadership representation at the IOC indicated male dominated IOC committees at all levels except the women's sports committee, and the situation remained unchanged from recent data (www.lisafernandez16.com/letter/IOCmembers.pdf). It is clear that the Olympic movement's leadership continues to function as a male dominated arena from its highest office to the grassroots or the national sports federation levels.

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

Pfister and Radtke's (2009) study on German sports federations showed that nearly all of the top level sport positions were men leaders, specifically 96.6% presidents and 80% of other top executive positions. The regional sports federations consisted of 18 men and one woman. Additionally, women composed of only 20.1% of the regional federations' executive positions,

and of the 2726 leadership positions at different levels of the regional sports associations, women occupied only14%. Of the positions at the national level, the proportion of women to men in leadership was even more striking, with men occupying 91% of the 682 positions, and women occupying only 9%. The number of women in leadership positions decreased greatly as the status of the job increased at all levels of governance, from the regional to the national levels. The study further revealed that in 2002, only four of the 55 national sports federations had a woman president, and that women were typically allocated roles in women and youth sports , and strategic planning responsibilities were reserved for men. The gender role hierarchies present in the organizational cultures impede women from taking up leadership positions. Although women may just be as qualified as the men, a number of them hardly meet standards considered for an ideal leader.

Contrary to most studies that indicate the low representation of women in sports, Canada seems to be the one nation where equal opportunity policies seem to have been fully implemented. According to Martel (2007), Canada's sports survey showed that by 1991, 42% of women were employed in sports Administration in Canada and that equal participation in sports had been achieved, with 49% women participating on equal grounds as men. Further, there was a steady growth of the women's representation in leadership from the general underrepresentation in 1981, to an improved status in 1985, though in smaller organization and later in 1988, more women were serving in executive positions in national bodies (Martel, 2007). Evidently the progress of women in leadership positions in Canada resulted from Canadian government's commitment to increase the number of women in the governance of sports.

Summary of Women in Leadership

The history of women in leadership illustrates how the existing inequalities in sports developed and the subsequent push for equal rights by the women's movements during different times. Cultural and medical reasons were successfully used to prevent women from engaging in strenuous activities. The IOC leadership structure and that of its affiliate organizations attests to the low status of women and consequent underrepresentation of women in leadership positions. Essentially it confirms the perception that sports remain the powerful medium for construction of the dominant male superiority and the subordination of women (Couturier & Chepko, 2001; Sage, 1998; Schell & Rodriquez, 2000).

In spite of passing various empowerment mechanisms made through legislation, women made very little gains in sports leadership. However, some notable achievements critical to the women's cause include: access to formal education, entry into formal employment, the increasing number of women in leadership roles, as well as the implementation of equal opportunity legislation. While legislation is pivotal in the increased opportunities for women in sports and the public sector, the same laws are regarded as "double edged sword" (Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan, & Ballenger, 2007)   For instance, while Title IX of the United States increased access to education and sports, these massive increases in sports participation failed to translate into increased representation of women in leadership.

In order to increase women's participation in leadership, various legislative policies related to sports have been implemented. These legislative policies provide the lenses from which to examine the experiences, opportunities, and challenges for women in leadership. The following section discusses the various empowerment legislations that resulted in advocacy for women's equal rights movements.

Making Changes through Legislation

Some of the most celebrated achievements in women's movements have been the successful push for legislation of international laws against discrimination. Legislation provides a structure for examining equality issues, and the progress toward achieving goals passed at various international forums such as the Equal Opportunity Act, the Affirmative Action and the Brighton Declaration, which are discussed in the sections that follow.

Equal Opportunities Act

Women's agitation for equal representation was provoked by capitalism and industrial changes that were seen as suppressing women while awarding men special privileges (Freedman, 2002). Salaried employment, access to education, and property rights for men were perceived by women as being out rightly unjust, hence the feminist movements and agitation for equal rights. The achievement of women's movement included the increased entry of women into labor market, the enactment of equal pay law in European nations in 1957; Scandinavian nations passed the law in the 1960's; USA in 1963, and Britain in 1975. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) of 1969 was also formed in response to the women's demands to be allowed into formal employment, access to better wages and improved working conditions. Following the EEOC recommendations, a number of countries enacted anti-discrimination laws and vowed to improve the working conditions for women. Britain outlawed sexual discrimination in employment in 1975; Italy passed the Equal employment Act in 1977; France in 1983; Japan in 1985 (Freedman, 2002). These laws enabled women have access to jobs. The ability to secure a job is viewed as the first step towards accessing leadership position.

Affirmative Action

Although the EEOC was ratified by a number of nations, not everyone seemed to benefit from this specific act, specifically women and other minority groups. In the United States, where the Affirmative Action (AA) concept originated in 1967, AA was considered as a remedy to the problem of discrimination of marginalized groups based on their race, gender, sexual orientations, religious affiliations and ethnicity (Freedman 2002). The affirmative action in the United States focused on recruitment of 20-25% of the underrepresented groups into formal employment.

For most African nations that are signatories to the international laws against gender based discrimination, the Affirmative Action law is widely used for the purpose of increasing the number of women civic employment and other decision making positions. In Kenya, affirmative action that was proposed in 2007 was recently included in the country's constitution of 2010. The law recommends that women are to form at least 30% of the employees both in the public and private sectors. Following the 2007 election, there are 18 women in parliament; 10 elected and 8 nominated, which is an increase from 3.8% in 2002 and 9.5 % in 2007.   Out of the 2837 civic seats, only 377 are held by women, and of the 90 ministerial and assistant minister's positions, seven were ministers and six were assistant ministers. In the corporate world, Ogutu (2010) found that the gender equity was not observed by a majority of the organizations. Clearly, the absence of women on the executive boards points to the low or lack of priority given to gender equity within organizations. For example, of the two companies that had women on their boards, one had two women out of the 17 board seats, and another had only three women directors out of 11 members.

Chabaya, Rembe, and Wadesango (2009) report that when Zimbabwe attained independence in 1980, gender equity policy became part of the national agenda, with the establishment of the affirmative action policy of 1992 confirming the government's intent to make gender equity possible. The National Gender Policy of 2004 was also enacted with the purpose of eliminating all forms discriminatory practices including political, economic, cultural and religious, yet the paucity of women in governance persists. Continued underrepresentation of women in governance points to disconnection between policy and practice.

Although research points to the persistent low representation of women in governance, some critics consider laws such as Affirmative Action (AA) as "reverse discrimination" which disadvantages men (Freedman, 2002). Others consider adoption of affirmative action as a confirmation of the deeply held perceptions of women's inferiority, and that women may be stigmatized as being less qualified. Additionally, Affirmative Action has been criticized for excluding those it was originally intended for, and this has been seen as promoting social class, as appointments to positions maybe based on nepotism; hence, AA is regarded as being ineffective in influencing policies for promoting women into leadership positions.

When the historical background of the status of women in sports is considered, then the effects of the Equal Opportunity Act in sports can be perceived as being enormous, given the tremendous increase in participation of women in sports over the years. However, from the leadership standpoint, sport remains a male dominated area and is seen as one of the most "contested arena" (Sabo & Messner, 2001).

In order to increase the number of women in sports, a number of global and regional sport policies and declarations on women and sports have been enacted. These include: Brighton Declaration (1994); Beijing platform for action (1995); IOC Women and Sport Commission

(2004); "Women, Leadership and the Olympic Movement" (2004); The International Year of Sport and Physical Education (UN 2005); "Women 2000 and Beyond: Women, gender equality and sport" (UN 2007); EU Commission's "White Paper on Sport" and accompanying "Action Plan" -2007 (Mattila, 2010). Of all these, the Brighton declaration is said to be the most critical when considering the representation of women in sports leadership.

Brighton Declaration

The 1994 Brighton Declaration is particularly important to the cause of women in sports leadership around the world. For instance, although some gains were realized following the Equal Opportunity Act of 1969 and subsequent legislation laws and policies, access to leadership remained a challenge for women in all sectors. In sports, the outcomes of Title IX, in the United States were incongruent with its purposes given that the increased participation of women in sports never translated in the increase of women in leadership positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008). Therefore, the Brighton declaration was conceptualized to counter the under-representation of women in leadership positions in sports. According to International Working Group website, "the Brighton declaration is meant to complement all sporting, local, national and international charters, laws, codes, rules and regulations relating to women or sport." Among the outcomes of the 1994 Brighton conference was the formation of the International Working Group (IWG) on women and sport, which was to oversee the implementation of the Brighton principles. During the world conference in Montreal Canada in 2002, the IWG reported that 250 organizations had adopted the declaration (White & Scoretz, 2002). The main purpose of the Brighton declaration is: *To develop a sporting culture that enables and values the full involvement of women in every aspect of sport*. The Brighton objectives (http://www.iwg-gti.org/) included:

- Ensuring equality in society and sport

- Increasing availability and access to sport facilities for women

- Increasing representation of women in leadership positions in sport

- Increasing education, training and development programs that address gender equality

- Increased information and research on women and sport

- Allocation of resources for sportswomen and women's programs

- Incorporation of the promotion of gender equality and sharing of good practices into governmental and non-governmental policies and programs on women and sport.

The Brighton conference emphasized on the importance of physical education and sports in society and underscored the need for women leaders in sports to act as role models in society. Currently a total of 322 nations around the world have adopted and endorsed the Brighton declaration (http://www.iwg-gti.org/@Bin/122230/Brighton+Signatories.pdf). It still remains a crucial reference point for governments and sports organizations interested in enhancing participation of women in sports and also developing a more inclusive sports governance body (Mattila, 2010).

Summary of Making Changes through Legislation

The literature on the legislation laws for equal opportunities showed how women's suffrage movement resulted in important legislations that have enabled women access to opportunities that had previously been denied to them. For instance, the United States' Title IX resulted in more gains for women in education and sports, and that Affirmative Action laws have been used in most nations to enable women access opportunities in sports. However, in spite of all these, there is still a lot of resistance to women's entry into leadership positions, making it a great challenge for those women aspiring to participate in governance and decision making

process. Evidently legislation on equality were being adopted and implemented to provide women with more privileges, with AA widely used in Africa to fulfill this purpose. In this study, perspectives of participants on the AA and Brighton declaration were sought to determine the extent to which these laws had been useful in promoting women sports in Kenya. The next section focuses on Kenya as a context for this study.

Kenyan Women in Sports

Although Kenya values the role of sports for its national and individual development, the exemplary performance of Kenyan women in sports have not been recognized. In fact, the low representation of women in leadership attests to the marginalization and invisibility of women in Kenyan sports. Very little research exists on women in sports in Kenya. Chepyator-Thomson's (2005) work on the Kenya women in sports reveals how the cultural practices and traditional values defining gender roles deterred them from participating in sports.   It is the Kenyan men in sports that have always benefited from international limelight and it was only in 1968 that Kenyan women first participated in the Olympics games. However, compared to men, very few women ever participated in sports and a news reporter noted that: "The paucity of women's athletic talent in Kenya will be as revealing as a miniskirt at this weekend's national championships in Mombasa" (Daily Nation, June 1972, p.32).   Additionally, despite their exemplary performance in sports, there was lack of support or concern for women sport by the government. This organizational oversight promoted men's sports over the women's as reported in one the daily paper:

> Unlike men's in-depth talent, women's athletics in Kenya is sustained by a few dedicated
> athletes. Lacking encouragement, coaching or real competition, the miracle is that they

37

have achieved such high standards and the best rank first in Africa and high in

commonwealth standings (Daily Nation, June 22, 1972, p. 23).

Lacking the necessary support, and without adequate preparation, only three women

qualified for the Olympics in 1972, which consisted of a contingent of 61 athletes (Daily Nation,

1972). Existing literature shows the organizational structure that was completely averse to

women sports, and left them struggling to make it on their own. The fact that women lacked both

the human and financial resources required to prepare them for an international competition

indicates the persistent structural barriers that exist for women as they search for equal

opportunities in sports. The gender stereotype used to assign women specific roles have also

been reported by Chepyator-Thomson, one of the top female athletes in the middle distance

races, who was ridiculed for competing as a married woman (Chepyator-Thomson, 2005). Kenya

women, like the rest of the women around the world endure social-cultural struggles, which are

meant to discourage them from participating in sports either based on western patriarchy or

based on African indigenous divisions of gender roles. Additionally, it represents the

stereotypical notions that attempt to undermine the athletic achievements by women and instead,

emphasize their reproductive roles, a perspective grounded in western patriarchy.

The 1990's witnessed the emergence of the Kenyan women who were determined to

claim their rightful place in the sports to balance indigenous and western patriarchal notions of

gender roles. The women's exemplary performance peaked in the 2000's and culminated in

consecutive wins in the world athletics championships marathon wins in 2003 to 2008, entry into

and wins in the New York, Chicago and Boston, London Marathons from 2002 to 2010, and

Olympics wins in the middle and long distance running in 2008. In volleyball, Kenyan women

are the African volleyball champions and have been representing Africa in the regional and

world championships events for many years, and were [2010-2011] ranked 23rd in the world. Between 1991 and 2007, the Kenyan women won the African Volleyball Championship a record 7 times (http://www.com/Kenya_women%27s_national_volleyball_team).

Besides, the Kenyan women athletes have taken advantage of their newly acquired "celebrity status" to impact their society in a positive way. The community development enterprises predominantly focus on the common social problems such as poverty, conflict resolution, education and health for the girls. Chepyator-Thomson (2005) notes that: "women have rearticulated the family role and reshaped its function to include women's expanded roles in sports participation" (p. 251). Essentially, through their activities, women have indicated their readiness to participate in nation building; they want to be part of the solution to society's problem, and not the problem to development, hence the growing demand for inclusion of women in decision making processes. However, although women have proved that they are agents of social change, their low representation in leadership positions means that their voices are silenced. This further necessitates the current study.

Research on the representation of women from some of the sports federations' websites in Kenya revealed that leadership positions are dominated by men in almost all organizations. The Kenya Rugby Football Union (KRFU) had a total of 17 directors, 4 (23.5%) of whom were women. Out of the 26 Kenya Hockey Union (KHU) boards of directors members were only 2 (7.7%) women. The Kenya Lawn Tennis Association's (KLTA) leadership included 5 (41.7%) representation of women. Although KLTA seemed to have an almost equal representation in its leadership, only one woman was on the executive board with the rest serving as council members. In both KRFU and KHU women's roles were limited to office administration or serving as facilitators of women's and youth programs. In addition, women served as vice chairs

or treasurers. This role allocation is similar to what has been found in other countries, and even at the IOC, where women are hardly allocated roles that can impact policy decisions in sports organizations.

Sports Leaders in Kenya

Although sport is popular in Kenya and there are a number of Kenyan sports men and women playing professional sports in different parts of the world, only a few of Kenya's sports teams are professional. The Ministry of Youth and Sports and the Ministry of Education are also the only ministries that have full time employees in the area of sports and physical education. The Ministry of Youth and Sports employs District and Provincial Sports officers to coordinate sports in their regions. Physical education teachers are employed by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) and are deployed to schools and Teacher Training colleges to teach physical education. However, in addition to teaching, these teachers perform multiple duties which include coaching and taking charge of all sports and recreation programs in schools and colleges. Universities in Kenya employ sports tutors and instructors that have background training in physical education, recreation management and sport science and just like their counterparts, they also engage in multiple roles of teaching, coaching and managing sports programs in the universities.

The other groups of leaders are the sports administrators in sports federations. This group consists of those who serve as volunteers in various sports federations and vie for elected leadership positions in, or are normally selected to serve as co-opted members on various committees.   This is in line with the Olympic movement's Volunteerism, where majority of the members serve on voluntary basis. This is a trend that is practiced in many countries such as Germany and Canada, where a majority of the leaders in sports administration are volunteers

(Martel, 2007; Pfister & Radtke, 2006). Whereas Volunteer leaders are often professionals in other areas such as law, medicine, business and other fields, volunteers serve in sports federations for various reasons such as love for the sports, the need to change things to improve the sport, or provide needed expertise (Martel, 2007). Physical education educators are professionals in the area of sports and are usually on permanent employment in the ministry of education. For this reason, their experiences may be totally different from those of other sports administrators.

Summary of Sports in Kenya

Sports in Kenya provided an overview of the background information of the context in which this study will be located. The historical background and colonial influences provide insights into the foundation of sports in Kenya, the management of sports, and participation of women in sports. The participation of women in sports is particularly important to this study for it documents experiences of women in sports leadership. The historical perspectives present an understanding into the management practices and cultures of sports organizations and their influences on the experiences of women in sports in Kenya. While Kenya's sporting culture, especially in middle and long distance races, is recognized around the world, women are underrepresented in leadership roles. Patriarchy and male hegemony are blamed for the subordination of women. Further examination of the current literature review on the study of women in leadership offered the basis for this study.

Research Studies on Women in Leadership

The gradual advancement of women into leadership positions recently stimulated a lot of research interest among scholars, who have examined various aspects of women in leadership such as career paths and progress, leadership practices, challenges and barriers, navigating

barriers, and developing women leaders. Figure 2 represents the concepts that emerged from studies on women in leadership and guided this study.

Career Paths & Progress	Women's Leadership Practices	Challenges & Barriers	Navigating Barriers & Developing Women Leaders
•Socialization •Mentorship •Education & training •Recruitment patterns •Career paths & progress for men & women	•Leadership roles •Leadership styles •Culture & leadership practice	•Organizational barriers •Individual barriers •Relational barriers	•Education •Law and legislation •Change of attitude

Figure 2: Major themes that have emerged from studies on women in leadership.

Career Paths and Progress

Noh (2010) defined a career as "work activities, behaviors, values, and ambitions occurring in a lifetime" (p. 329). Career path or movement is what takes place inside organizations and in one's social world, out of the workplace environment. Generally career paths for women in sports include: socialization, education and training and mentorship that could influence their choice of careers as well as sports. Career progress is viewed in terms of one's rates of advancement at workplaces, and would include job promotions and salary increments as determined by one's level of education, experience, recruitment process, continuous work history and career mentorship (Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991).

Socialization

Socialization is a way of integrating people into particular customs of a group in society (Shakeshaft et al., 2007). Bandura's Social Learning Theory (SLT) is widely used to explain how socialization takes place in form experiences, pointing out factors that influence peoples' behavior, choices, and actions in life. Based on SLT theory, learning consists of both social interaction and cognitive processes (Ismail & Rasdi, 2008; Pheko, 2009). The theory implies that a person's choices and actions in life are determined by experiences that shape their world view, character and social interactions. Therefore, socialization has a great impact on a person's career choice and development. Studies confirm that youths learn to socialize when provided with opportunities through motivation and peer interaction (Duerden & Witt, 2010). Schools and families create environments that allow youths to learn social interactions that figure into their experiences, which eventually influence individual's behaviors, actions, and choices in life.

Studies on sport specific socialization show that exposure to sporting environments and availability of resources influenced women leaders to develop interest in sports (Martel, 2007; McAllister, 2006). Researchers further confirm that a majority of women leaders attribute their socialization into sports to family, school experiences, and peer interactions (Henry et al., 2004; Martel, 2007; McAllister, 2006). These studies show that majority of women attribute their participation in sports and career choices to encouragement and support from parents, partners as well as friends. Exposure to activities through availing of opportunities and being involved in the activities fosters the development of skills and also enhances positive socialization. Additionally, developing special interests in sports leadership, as well as involvement in volunteer work in sport, and extracurricular activities were found to enhance individuals' chances in gaining entry into leadership positions. McAllister's (2006) study found that the majority of school principals

43

applied the leadership skills acquired from their days as competitive athletes to their management of schools.

While positive socialization is enabling, negative socialization inhibits personal development. Negative socialization occurs when it is grounded in the traditional or patriarchal practices that have no regard for women. Chabaya et al. (2009) note that, in some communities, gender role socialization is considered as normal and is no longer viewed as a form of discrimination, or a stereotype that needs to be challenged. This "normalization" of stereotypes and gender expectations inhibit women from advancing their careers and thus enhance male hegemony. Chabaya et al. (2009) explains the normalization of stereotypes and their negative impact on the position of women in leadership pointing out that:

> This, in a way, shows that although gender socialization in a patriarchal society creates discrimination between men and women, it takes place in such a way that both men and women accept it without force. Women teachers' perceptions of gender roles and of what women can and cannot do are influenced by gender socialization (p. 241).

This statement underscores the gendered nature of sports and labor organizations, where women are subordinate; and despite the policy issues on empowerment, the subtexts within organizations have perceptions of the ideal leader (Pfister & Radtke, 2009) thereby setting standards that women are unable to fulfill. Ismail and Rasdi (2008) proposed the idea of positive socialization, which entails changing people's attitudes, cultural and society practices, as well as systemic changes in the organizational structures. While family, friends, and schools are considered as the largest socialization agents, their involvement in the athlete's lives transcends that of providing material support, because they also act as mentors of athletes.

Mentorship

Mentorship is also considered as being critical to the socialization process into any profession for both men and women (Oplatka, 2001). Mentoring is said to involve both the psychosocial and material support that enable the mentee to develop social capital (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). According to Shakeshaft et al. (2007), mentorship roles include: career development, coaching and sponsoring, offering psychosocial support and increasing mentor confidence or serving as a friend, a counselor and role model. Mentors are very important in enhancing individuals' careers because they provide guidance and support. Mentors are also important in making the protégé visible by introducing them to people, inspiring them, and helping them develop their own social capital (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). The Women In Leadership Development Institute (WILDI) program for advancing women in leadership is an example of successful mentorship program where women are prepared for leadership responsibilities. The skills acquired in that program enhanced the participants' confidence and they were able to get job promotions (Lafreniere & Longman, 2008). Since mentorship is critical in the development of life and work skills, it is important to acknowledge that lack of mentorship or role models inhibit or challenges women's progress into leadership positions (Carlson, 2008; Chabaya et al., 2009; Greendorfer, 2001).

Education and Training

Education is considered as a crucial ingredient in personal and social development. Education provides one with the opportunity to develop management skills that are required for leadership. History shows that communities around the world used both formal and informal types of education to prepare young people for leadership roles in society. In the Victorian era, for example, social-cultural myths on the unsuitability of strenuous activities and intellectual

45

pursuits for women were used to deny women a chance for education (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). Concerted efforts were also made to exclude women from administrative and management courses at the university level, thus establishing the men's control to remain as school principals or superintendents (McAllister, 2006).

In Africa, colonial and missionary education was initially availed to men only and it was intended to prepare them for clerical jobs, and later on administrative jobs. By denying women the chance for an education, male domination and patriarchy in governance were effectively established. These colonial practices have been used to reproduce and promote social ideologies, which are effectively used to normalize patriarchy in society (Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). Colonial ideologies favored men for leadership roles, and used education to provide them with a head start to leadership. Women's inability to access education inhibited their chances of entry into positions of leadership (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010).

Following successful campaigns by women's movements, which culminated in women accessing education and employment opportunities in the 1960's, the last few decades have seen the emergence of women leaders keen on participating in governance of social institutions. Arguably research studies attest to the positive relationship between education and access to leadership (Branson, 2007; Coleman, 2007; Henry et al., 2004; Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 2000; Norman, 2010). For instance, women in the corporate sector's Board of Directors of the top Fortune 500 are highly educated and were recruited from top corporate companies with some being highly accomplished professors in institutions of higher education (Branson, 2007).

Inglis, Danylchuk, and Pastore's (2000) research on women's experiences in athletics and coaching showed that all of the eleven participants had undergraduate degrees, 10 of them had master's degrees, with most of them having completed education during their tenure as sports

managers. Similarly, in Germany, women sports leaders were highly educated and "they had higher educational qualifications than the national average" (Pfister and Radtke, 2006 p.121). Henry et al's. (2004) evaluation on the progress of the women and sports policy for increasing representation of women in National Olympic Committee (NOC) also revealed that most of the women recruits were well educated, 78 percent of them had degrees, and 29.5 percent had postgraduate qualifications, while eight percent had Ph.D. degrees. It has been noted that having highly educated women in leadership positions could add more value to the organizations (Vanderbroeck, 2010).

Although women in sport leadership were highly educated, unstructured allocation of jobs and discriminatory hiring practices left them without jobs (Norman, 2010; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). The high demands that are placed on women leaders result in women attaining exemplary academic qualifications; yet ironically, studies revealed that education does not automatically guarantee women positions of leadership in sports. Chances are that organizations may be looking for other requirements such as personal characteristics or rather assume that denying women chances provides a way of maintaining status quo. Nevertheless, it is quite evident that the progressive entry of women into leadership positions is positively related to high academic qualifications.

Recruitment Patterns

The typical recruitment patterns of women into positions of leadership mostly involve being co-opted, nominated, or being tapped for the position (Henry et al., 2004; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). A possible explanation for this is the lack of women offering themselves for leadership positions. A second explanation concerns socio-cultural beliefs on gender specific roles that prevent women from holding leadership positions and explain the low representation of

women leaders (Chabaya, Rembe, & Wadesango, 2009). The feminine modesty theory posits that women are reluctant to indulge in self-promoting behaviors (Budworth & Mann, 2010), which negatively impact their career progress. Also, lack of confidence in their own abilities has been found to prevent women from applying for leadership positions (Sperandio, 2010). The women's approach to leadership clearly contrasts with that of men who have well planned career paths and confidently apply for leadership positions (Coleman, 1996).

The recruitment of women leaders is not limited to being tapped or nominated only. Experience, networking, establishing social capital and social support and presenting oneself for elective positions have been found to work for some women (Henry et al., 2004). Besides experience and the influences mentioned above, advancement in leadership positions could be enhanced by training and preparation of women leaders using mentorship programs. A study by Lafreniere & Longman (2008) on the impact of the leadership programs at the WILDI indicated that upon graduation, 60% of the women assumed new leadership responsibilities, and that the program prepared them well for the new roles. Leadership development programs could be used to help in educating and equipping women leaders with skills to develop their confidence and to improve their chances for advancing into leadership positions. The IOC's women sports policy programs also funds educational and leadership training programs that aim at equipping women with skills to prepare them for active engagement in the governance of sports organizations at both the local and international levels. Although development programs for women leaders exist, research shows that the organizational structures in sports have not been favorable to women interested in positions of leadership.

Comparing Career Paths and Progress for Men and Women

Although most men and women have similar academic and athletic backgrounds, the path to leadership positions are said to progress along separate but parallel paths (Coleman, 1996). For women, the paths to leadership are thought to be slower and often blocked (Chabaya et al., 2009; Dominici, Fried, & Zeger, 2009). Different organizations uphold to different but specific hiring and promotion procedures and organizational cultures, which are blamed for the slow progress of women into leadership. In education, Coleman's (1996) study showed that the typical career paths for men began with being a classroom teacher, deputy head teacher, and then head teacher. On the other hand, a number of female teachers indicated that they had started in other careers before joining the teaching profession. Specifically one female participant started her career as a nursery school teacher and progressed through ranks to become the head teacher. Another participant started as a secretary and moved thorough ranks to become head teacher. Although starting out in other careers delayed career progress for women, the most salient factors that delay women's career progress have been seen as consisting of organizational and personal factors such as constant career breaks to start a family or follow a husband's new posting (Coleman, 1996).

Women leaders in most sports organizations have diversified professional qualifications and serve in voluntary capacities. However, studies have indicated a strong sports background as an inherent factor for most women leaders. The typical career path involves a strong athletic background, serving as official/ athlete representative, becoming a coach or referee, and finally becoming a sports administrator (Henry et al., 2004; McAllister, 2006). Other studies, for example Martel (2007) and Pfister and Radtke (2009) showed some sports leaders to start out as officials at the club level, then moved to the regional level, and finally became leaders at national

level. The ability to work at different levels in the organizations acquainted one with skills and experience required in leadership.

For women, being promoted to leadership positions was based on experience or lengthy service in the organization, the ability to develop networks, visibility, and evidence of service (Agezo, 2010; Martel, 2007; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). Research shows that the length of service in leadership position in the German sports federations was different for men and women. Pfister and Radtke's (2009) study found that the men had a more lengthy service in leadership than women. Majority of the women (61%) served in leadership positions for 0-5 years, and 38% females and 49% males had served for a period of 6-36 years. The lengthy service of men in leadership compared with women can be attributed to the social-cultural and organizational factors that give preference to male leadership, which for a long time inhibited women's entry into leadership. Regardless of the differences in the years of experience, both men and women tend to possess the same qualifications, and this makes their career paths to progress similar to some extent (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). However, the progressions in their career paths are slower for women at the highest levels of leadership.

Women's Leadership Practices

According to Oplatka (2001), gender is an essential component to understanding leadership behavior. Since most of the earlier studies focused on men's leadership, the emergence of women leaders calls for the development of a new understanding of women leaders (McAllister, 2006). Gender and gender role socialization as well as one's experiences within specific cultures have an impact on people's actions and perspectives, and also help determine the development of leadership roles (Budworth & Mann, 2010; Coleman, 2003). Inevitably, gender and cultural factors are important in leadership and hence the need to research

women in sport. In the sections that follow, leadership roles, styles and culture of women leaders are discussed.

Leadership Roles

The conceptualization of leadership as a male preserve ensures that women remain in subordinate positions (Branson, 2007; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). In sports, very few women serve on the IOC and its related sports organizations' executive positions. The same situation is replicated in education, where the majority of women (80%) comprise of the teaching population, yet men dominate education administrative positions of school superintendents and principals (McAllister, 2006).The organizational structures are blamed for the gender imbalances in leadership positions as they are designed to exclude women from governance, thus enhancing male domination (Eddy & Cox, 2008; Webb & Macdonald, 2007).   For instance, in the United States Intercollegiate Athletics, the Senior Women's Administrator position is the highest position assigned to women, an indication of the ceiling cap for women in sports, and this not only limits women's involvement in decision making, but also their chances of ever rising to the Athletic Directors position (Hoffman, 2006).

Gender stereotyping is typically used in school settings to assign men and women different roles. For example, women were assigned "soft roles" comprising of pastoral roles, guidance and counseling roles, and cleanliness and gardening roles. Men were typically assigned "high opportunity" roles consisting academic roles and handling discipline matters. These propelled them to leadership positions. Generally, the roles assigned to women lacked the power and authority necessary for advancement into leadership positions (Coleman, 2001), or a chance to display their leadership skills (Shakeshaft et al. 2007). According to Eisenstein (1999),

role allocation is a strategy for maintaining male dominance, suggesting that the presence of women in labor force is seen as a threat to patriarchy.

Norman's (2010) study corroborates findings that show women being excluded from leadership. Norman's study revealed that women coaches in the UK were excluded from leadership positions in male sports, yet the men were involved in women sports. Furthermore, there was a preference for male coaches to the extent that senior and highly qualified female coaches remained unemployed while men with lower coaching qualifications were appointed to higher performance coaching roles. Also, the WSF report of 2004 on gender in sports leadership in United Kingdom found sports to be male dominated and women to comprise less than a quarter of the executive members of the Central Council for Physical Recreation, of the UK sports high performance institutes, and of the Institute of Leisure and Amenities. The British Universities Sports association's executives and committee members had 39% females and 61% males, and the sports active coaches' body had 34% female and 60% male. The 2000 Olympics games had less than 5% representation of women as coaches or team managers. Additionally, most of the high profile positions of executive directors, chairmen, head coaches and team managers were all occupied by men while women in those organizations served on the general committees (WSF, 2004).

Despite efforts by the IOC to include more women in leadership, the gendered assignment of roles has not escaped the IOC and its affiliate organizations. Henry et al's (2004) study on the NOC revealed that although women were highly educated, roles allocation favored men as they were assigned strategic planning roles, while women only dealt with women and youth or general issues. Only 21.3% of women in NOC's around the world were serving as chair.

The low representation of women in executive boards in UK, Germany and the IOC illustrates the existing stereotypes about women's leadership, and confirms Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory of prejudice against women. The role congruity theory is used to explain the prejudice against female leaders. From role congruity theory perspective women are discriminated based on the perception that they are less capable of leadership roles than men and are evaluated less favorably compared with men. The role congruity theory is influenced by the gendered stereotypes, cultural beliefs, and the organizational structures which have maintained male dominance in leadership in spite of women possessing better qualifications (Pfister & Radtke, 2009).

The gendered stereotypes emanate from traditional practices seen as promoting gender differences, whereby the men's roles are regarded as being higher than women's roles. Sartore and Cunningham's (2007) research found that the imbalanced allocation of roles resulted from the belief that women are unsuitable for sports jobs, that women lack leadership characteristics and excluded due perceptions of sports as a male domain. The systems justification have been used to justify gender imbalances to the extent that gender stereotypes are embraced or normalized by both the dominant groups and subordinate groups, thus maintaining the status quo (Sartore & Cunningham , 2007).

Styles of Leadership

Leadership style refers to the behavior, actions and decisions of leaders, and to ways of implementation (Sadler, 1997). Style is characterized by two behavior patterns: trait and relational behaviors (Northouse, 2007). Early researches on leadership were conducted under the western male models of leadership (Sperandio, 2010). In recent times, scholars have focused their studies on gender differences in leadership styles.

A number of studies (Agezo, 2010; Chin, 2007; Coleman, 2003; Collins & Singh, 2006; Doherty & Manfredi, 2010; Eddy & Cox, 2008; Julien, Zinni, & Wright, 2008; Mullen, 2009) have examined leadership styles and gender differences. According to McAllister (2006), women's ways of leading are different from those of men. Generally, men favor the agentic style of leadership that is aggressive, competitive and direct. On the other hand, the feminine style of leadership is relationship oriented, participatory, empowering, and concerns shared leadership (Caldwel-Colbert & Albino, 2007; Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). It is also interpersonal, charismatic, collaborative (Mullen, 2009), dynamic, (Oplatka, 2001), and consultative (Julien et al., 2008). Moreover, women have been found to be more democratic in their style and are more transformational than men who are more transactional (Chin, 2007; Doherty & Manfredi, 2010).

Previously, popular styles of leadership styles included democratic, Laizzes faire and autocratic styles. However, studies on organizational behavior occasioned changes in management of organizations that resulted in a transformed concept of leadership styles. The new concept of leadership involves understanding people, building relationships within work situations, and working together to fulfill missions of organizations. Consequently, leadership becomes no longer an individual's action; rather it is viewed as a process that involves others. Transformational, transactional, situational, participatory are some of the emerging leadership styles. Transformational leadership, which was proposed by Burns in 1978, focuses on empowering, relationship building, participation, inspiration and motivation of workers, communicating and shaping the vision of the organization, and power sharing and collaboration (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2003). Generally, organizations seek or try to develop styles that are deemed as most effective in fulfilling organizations' mission. A study by Agezo, (2010) on female principals from high performing schools in Ghana, for example, found that each one of

them developed strategies that proved to be effective for managing their schools and they included instructional leadership, leading by example, providing direction, and effective communication. Although these were different schools, each of the leaders tended to identify with the relationship type of leadership.

Coleman's (2003) study on leadership styles of head teachers utilized Gray's gendered paradigms (Appendix E) to determine self-perception of male and female leadership styles and the characteristics they applied to their leadership practices. Teachers were asked to select the words that best described their leadership style. The "androgynous" model that traverses both genders, favoring the feminine style was preferred by majority. The Head Teacher's choices included: collaborative, people oriented, participatory styles which are transformational. Julien et al.'s (2008) study on the leadership styles of the Aboriginal men and women revealed that both male and female styles gravitated more towards the transformational style than the transactional. Additionally, advocacy and social justice formed part of the participants' objectives as they were interested in contributing to changes in their organizations. Social justice is identified as a common female leadership behavior (McAllister, 2006; Shakeshaft et al., 2007).

Because most organizations have certain criteria that identifies an ideal leader, some of the participants in Doherty and Manfredi's (2010) study felt that their style was not congruent with those they led or that of their bosses. Obviously, both gender and organizational culture resulted in the conflict of style. The fact that existing systems cannot be changed and are keen on maintaining status quo implies that women are forced to adopt the masculine leadership style as a strategy for progress into leadership or retain their jobs (Oplatka, 2001). Eddy and Cox (2008) also maintain that: "the bind for women is that the quickest route to upper level positions is to

mirror the practices currently expected, which are based on the disembodied (male) worker"
(p.75).

While women are forced to adopt the male style as a way of progressing in leadership, it is ironical that the question of whether men and women differ in their leadership style remains inconclusive. For instance, Oplatka's (2001) study showed that there was no specific style that could be discerned as being practiced by women, since they applied both masculine and feminine styles. This study suggests that there are no particular leadership styles that are specific to men or women; rather, following Bass and Fiedler's 1978 situational theory, leadership styles is contextual. Also, because of the varied perceptions of individuals as well as society, the debate on differences in leadership styles of men and women will persist. The evidence provided consists of results conducted by both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Surveys tend to rely on self reports, yet perceptions could be discerned through interviews and observation measures as in the study by Agezo (2010). While leaders may profess a certain style, the organizational subtexts or cultures determine the leadership style. For women leaders, these subtexts may present a challenge; but for others, adopting the preferred style has become the only option. In the following section, the influence of culture on leadership is discussed.

Culture and Leadership Practices

Ayman and Korabik (2010) defined culture as an acquired and transmitted pattern of behavior, value, or belief systems shared by a group of people. Culture consists of both the visible and invisible characteristics that may influence leadership in diverse ways (Triandis, 1993). Increasing globalization and the growing interconnectedness among different culture draws attention to increasing sensitivity to cultural differences. In leadership, globalization of business, education and other social-economic aspects of life inject diversity into organizations,

thus the need to incorporate multiculturalism in organizations (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Cultural differences imply different perceptions and application of leadership styles that are suitable to a particular cultural context. Organizational cultures are developed over the years and they determine the organization's policies on recruitment, the office structure, and allocation of roles, duties as well as the functioning of members within a particular organization. In leadership, organizations have an "ideal" type of a leader that they would recruit most of whom often appeal to the masculine models of leadership (Pfister & Radtke, 2009). Sports organizations are viewed as hierarchal, patriarchal, and male hegemonic organizational structures, where gender differences are maintained (Brown & Evans, 2004).

Essentially this male hegemonic culture in leadership requires women to emulate the leadership style of men so as to "fit" into the organization. Some participants in Martel's (2007) study confessed to adopting the masculine values because of the requirement of the sports organizations. Also, older women in Oplatka's, (2001) study described their leadership style as "masculine," a behavior that was probably shaped over the years and influenced by the culture, interactions, as well as by other influences within the organization. Thus, organizational cultures or subtexts (Pfister & Radtke, 2009) determine the style and its effectiveness on individuals' leadership styles. Pfister and Radtke (2009) define subtexts as things that may not be particularly spelt out, but are expected of the every member in the organization. According to Oplatka (2001), some workplace experiences, such as discrimination against women, could influence differently the careers of women, and men are decision makers, forcing women to adopt strategies that may not be in conformity with the gender expectation. Emphasizing on the differences that may arise due to gender and organizational cultures, Oplatka, (2001) further noted:

In a culture that tends to expect that managers are men, the whole experience of being a head teacher is felt very differently by women and men [and] this must impact on the professional identity and the mode of operation of both men and women heads (p. 33).

For women, the traditional cultures and stereotypes influenced by patriarchal heritage and masculine hegemony are deeply embedded in every aspect of social and organizational structures. For instance, a study by Julien et al. (2008) on the Aborigines leadership practices revealed that although there were similarities in the leadership styles of men and women, women attributed the influence of gender on their leadership style. Obviously, the women were aware of the gender role and place as was determined by their community; hence they were always gender-conscious, a present and constant thought, which determined and controlled their daily activities. In addition to gender, women also had to deal with racism and sexism in their organizations. Nevertheless, the Aborigines valued their cultural practices and integrated cultural values into their leadership practices. For instance, the role of spirituality and commitment to the community was so important that all the decisions were made in consultation with others and also in viewed of their long-term impact on the next generations (Julien et al., 2008).

Noting the importance of cultural differences, Ayman and Korabik, (2010) suggest that: "if leaders have to be effective in a diverse society, they need to understand their own preferred style and behaviors and how these may differ from those preferred by others" (p.157). These researchers conclude that contingency approach to leadership incorporates culture in its conceptualization and has been validated in several countries. Further, they propose the need for leaders to know and understand differences in groups, learn how control and manage the groups, thus the need to incorporate multiculturalism in leadership.

Challenges and Barriers for Women in Leadership

Historical, political, social, cultural and religious ideologies used to promote the patriarchal hierarchal organizational structures are heavily weighted in favor of men, making women invisible (Hargreaves, 2001), helping to explain the low representation of women in leadership. The challenges women face in sports leadership traverses all social, political and cultural spaces and are not limited to any specific culture, geographical region, country, ethnicity, religion or social class groups. Despite the passing of various legislations on gender discrimination in sports, very little achievements have been realized. Accordingly, sport remains one of the most gendered institutions. While the number of women participating in sports has been increasing over the years, the representation of women in leadership has remained low (Hargreaves, 2007). Greendorfer (2001) noted that: "….even during their older years, women are subjected to gender role stereotypes about physical activities…an outcome of an ideological belief system that continues to discourage equal opportunity" (p. 16).

Scholars identified barriers that women experience as being related to gender role discrimination, career and family conflicts, career breaks (Coleman, 2001; Robertson, 2010), lack of support from family (Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009), lack of education or experience (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010), gendered stereotypes (Krane, Choi, Baird, Aimar, & Kauer, 2007; Messner & Duncan, & Jensen, 2007; Norman, 2010; Sabo & Messner, 2001), and male hegemony (Burnett, 2002; Pfister & Radtke, 2009; Staurowsky, 1990; Webb & Macdonald, 2007). These barriers are categorized into three areas: organizational barriers, individual barriers, and relational barriers (Coleman, 1996; Martel, 2007; Mullen, 2009).

Organizational Barriers

Leadership is considered as a catalyst for creating opportunities for women in governance (Hargreaves, 2001). Leadership can be empowering, enabling, and influence policies and decision making process. For women leaders, the male dominated socio-economic and political environments under which they operate denies them a chance to effectively participate in governance. Some of the struggles that women deal with are deeply embedded in the social-cultural and organizational structures, positions of leadership, and in policies that are hard to change (Hargreaves, 2001), including such areas as stereotypes (Agezo, 2010; Chabaya et al., 2009), lack of policies and inadequate resource allocation (Bodey, 2007), unbalanced job selection and promotion strategies, and unrealistic expectations (Carlson, 2008; Coleman, 1996; Dominici et al., 2009).

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

Patriarchy and associated beliefs are operational within structures of organizational that put men's careers in positions of high visibility, expediting men's ascendancy to leadership roles, while pastoral or counseling roles assigned to women inhibit their visibility and career progress (Coleman, 1996). In the corporate world, women are typically "shunted" into staff roles or human resources, invisible positions that they cannot emerge from them (Branson, 2007). The women's 'shunted position is explained by the "glass walls" metaphor, which describes situations that denies women opportunities to serve in other capacities so as to gain the necessary experience required for promotion to leadership (Branson, 2007). Unrealistic demands placed on the women leaders by the organizations are also seen as intended to frustrate women into submissive positions. Studies show that when women reach the highest CEO positions, the assigned duties maybe overwhelming because they are high risk in nature and are specifically designed to "set them up for failure" (Branson, 2007; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010) . Additionally, the use of long hours of work as criteria for effective leadership disqualifies women from pursuing leadership positions (Pfister & Radtke, 2009; Shakeshaft et al., 2007). This assumption disregards the extra domestic work responsibilities that women often engage in hence discriminating women during recruitment.

The Recruitment process. Hiring and recruitment process in most of the organizations favor men for selection and promotion (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010; Dominici et al., 2009). The male dominated interview panels tend to be prejudicial and sexist, and women tend to receive poor evaluations (Coleman, 2001; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010). Kanter's 1977 homologous reproduction theory can be used to explain the low recruitment of women into administrative/ leadership positions (Dominici et al., 2009). The theory states that people select those that have similar characteristics with them, and exclude and discriminate against "the other" or people who

61

are different (Norman, 2010), thus the male dominated interview panels are more likely to favor men for recruitment. Moreover, from the patriarchal perspective men are "the ideal leaders" as ideal leaders, resulting in an organization's conscious or unconscious promotion of stereotypes (Shakeshaft et al., 2007). This helps expedite promotion of men or availing them with opportunities to serve on committees where they gain experience, develop confidence, and are prepared for leadership responsibilities (Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009). Gender stereotypes work to hinder or disqualify women from assuming position of leadership in society, enhancing male power and position in leadership and the reproduction of gender (Brown & Evans, 2004).

Merger of institutions. Prior to the equality legislation, women enjoyed their autonomy through the separate spheres of education and sports as they were in charge of managing their own institutions (Martel, 2007; Park, 2010). In the United States, the return of WWII men impacted the structure education as a business model was developed and promoted, leading to the creation of superintendent position, which made a man the overall overseer of education (McAllister, 2006). Currently, a majority of the school superintendents are men (McAllister, 2006). In the UK, the co-education system favors men for school principal positions, and women can only serve as assistant principal in co-ed schools or principals in girl's schools (Coleman, 1996). The gendered role allocation limits the chances of women to serve as principal in co-ed institutions yet they posses same qualifications as men. In sports, the aftermath of the Title IX resulted in the merger of men and women sports programs and the appointment of men as director of sports, culminating in the loss of power positions by women (Hoffman, 2006; Rintala & Bischoff, 1997). Physical education was also affected by the Title IX legislation in that when men and women's PE programs in colleges were merged into one department, the head of department automatically went to a man (Park, 2010). While the idea of merging of institutions

was meant to strengthen women's activities and also provide equitable access to resources, these mergers resulted in women losing their power, autonomy, and control of their activities.

Lack of support. Lack of structural, organizational, and financial support often prevent women from performing their duties or even accessing leadership positions. Most women successful in their leadership roles attributed their success to the support that they got from their families, friends, and organizations (Agezo, 2010; Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Duerden & Witt, 2010; Evetts, 1988; Robertson, 2010). Bodey's (2007) study on women sport leaders in Morocco identified differential treatment and resource allocation as obstacles to women sports. Often, the female leaders were not consulted or involved in the decision making process and there was a clear preference for men's sports. Sartore and Cunningham's (2007) analysis of gendered stereotypes in sports found deeply rooted decision-making process, where decisions were made on behalf of women, basically as if they were not there. Failure to recognize and compensate women appropriately for their roles and achievements and to provide them with much needed resources undermines women's authority. Dominici et al.'s (2009) study found that although women were accorded positions of leadership in universities and were dedicated to improving their communities, they were neither recognized nor rewarded, and their designated leadership positions were not similar to men. Yet:

> These women leaders have developed centers or programs that address important unmet needs and have often done so without support from either their departments or the university, with little encouragement, and with only tacit approval from their department chairs and deans (Dominici et al., 2009).

There is no doubt that women are as committed to their work as men, and are willing to commit their time and resources to developing their organizations, helping to discredit the view women are not as committed to organizations as men.

Lack of policies. Research shows that between 1998 and 2003 employment levels among women with children younger than one year old dropped from 57.9 percent to 53.7 percent (Branson, 2007). Lack of family-friendly policies within organizations, and lack of the management's support for women planning to start families all contributed to the declining numbers of young women in formal employment (Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Robertson, 2010). Lack of family-friendly policies within organizations resulted in women choosing family over career, the consequences of which may include: premature resignation, taking extended time away, lost wages, and termination of contracts (Robertson, 2010). These career breaks inhibit progress of women into leadership position (Coleman, 2001).

Branson (2007) views U.S.'s corporate world as penalizing child rearing because it is considered to be of no economic value, hence reproductive roles are undervalued. He further notes that the male leadership attitudes stigmatize the flexible working hours that mothers may negotiate for in the work place. In some instances companies may be hesitant to hire young women who are of the reproductive age. Those women opting to stay in employment make serious adjustments in their lives and also rely on strong family support system (Bruening, 2008; Nkomo & Ngambi, 2009), and sometimes negotiate for a flexible working timetable at the work place. Doherty and Manfredi's (2010) study on the implementation of equality policies in universities revealed that universities that made conscious efforts to adopt the gender-friendly policies achieved what other organizations did not. In this situation, women expressed satisfaction with their work, and their careers progressed at the same level with men. Evidently,

the implementation of gender friendly policies can enhance the position of women in leadership. Culture, gender stereotypes, unbalanced recruitment process, merger of institutions, lack of organization's support and lack of policies constitute the organizational barriers for women in leadership positions. At the individual level, women also encounter barriers that impede their progress to leadership positions.

Individual Barriers

The social construction of gender depicts a woman as being weak, frail and not as capable of any physically or intellectually strenuous activities when compared to men (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). Gender role socialization enhances subordination of women to men (Greendorfer, 2001). Gender stereotypes formed throughout one's life's experiences may be difficult to separate from the person. Negative cultural socialization perpetuates the belief that women are not suited for leadership positions and also influence the type of decisions that they make. These decisions are based on the attitudes and perception of women as leaders. Abdela, (2000) maintains that self-limiting behaviors reinforce the gendered stereotypes about women's ability to lead and negatively affect their self confidence. The social dominance theory views society cultures, beliefs and socialization systems, which assign men superior roles to those of women as normal (Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). Further the theory posits that at some point, both the marginalized groups and the dominant groups tend to agree and accept this situation as normal and thus cannot challenge the existing inequalities.

Lack of confidence. Lack of confidence is cited as a barrier to women's progress or promotion to leadership. Women rarely apply for leadership positions because of lack of confidence (Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009). In fact, some have admitted to being forced to apply for leadership positions (Coleman, 1996; Eddy & Cox, 2008; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). These

self-limiting behaviors can be explained using Budworth and Mann's (2010) feminine modesty theory. Feminine modesty theory is where one downplays her abilities, and instead promotes the contributions of others (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). Feminine modesty theory impinges on women's careers and access to leadership positions and economic rewards (Budworth & Mann, 2010). It is noted that while self-promotion behaviors are rare in women, men use these self-promoting behaviors to access leadership positions and gain economic rewards.

Generally, men tend to have well-planned career plans that target leadership positions, while women lacked career plans and had no intentions or confidence to apply for leadership positions (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010).   Coleman's (2001) study revealed that men would confidently apply for jobs in which they were less qualified, but women would only do so upon confirming that they had all the required qualifications. This behavior negatively impacts society's perception of women and enhances the notion that women are incapable of leadership. For those women in leadership positions, a number of them confessed to having been "tapped for leadership" positions by their immediate boss or someone influential (Chabaya et al., 2009; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010), while others were thrust into leadership against their will (Mullen, 2009).   Pfister and Radtke (2006) explain that the low power status assigned to women causes them to perceive themselves as not being capable of leading, hence their reluctance to apply for leadership positions. For example, the failure of female teachers in Uganda to apply for posts was attributed to their lack of interest, which was based on inadequate qualifications and ignorance about the application procedures (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). In sports, the study by Henry et al. (2004) revealed that women were reluctant to apply for positions of leadership. The lack of women on the national sports federation was attributed to women's lack of interest in

leadership positions, and was perceived as not enhancing IOC's efforts to increase the number of women in sport leadership around the world.

Family-work conflict. Women's roles as mothers and professionals are entwined, and it is a twofold identity and a connection of mother and child, with their private and public spheres (Evetts, 1988). Most women plan their careers to coincide with their family situation, taking into consideration the needs of their children and spouse (Eddy & Cox, 2008). This is particularly true and challenging for women in different careers because they have to resolve existing tensions that may arise at the peak of their careers, when job promotion or tenure track decisions coincide with their childbearing years (Dominici et al., 2009). Despite the equal opportunity legislation laws, research indicates that women still take the largest domestic responsibilities, including taking career breaks, and even deferring job promotion for the sake of the family, when compared with men (Branson, 2007). Essentially, women make these decisions based on their values for the family and also based on the traditional gender roles, where child rearing and other domestic responsibilities are considered to belong to women. Such decisions have negative implications on the progress of women into leadership, and result in low representation of women in leadership positions. It is apparent that amidst the changing trends of increased entry of women into formal employment, the traditional gender roles still uphold, as Branson (2007) pointed out: "one thing has stayed the same: it is still women who adjust their lives to accommodate the needs of children, who do what is necessary to make a home, who forego status, income, advancement and independence" (p. 41). However, for contemporary career women, delayed motherhood and choice of a career over family becomes the only way to sustaining career growth and progress (Coleman, 2001).

Lack of mentors and role models. Mentors are very critical to the development of

one's social and even professional life because they provide direction, guidance, counseling,

inspiration and motivation, as well as emotional support. While lack of social networks and role

models among women are cited as some of the barriers to leadership, men have built very strong

social relations through the "boy's networks", which they successfully used to advance their

interests. For the men, the boy's networks are used to claim power, increase their influence and

further perpetuate male dominance in leadership. Branson's (2007) research on women in the

corporate world revealed that when women CEOs were fired, they never made a comeback into

the corporate world; yet men always managed to resurface-thanks to the "old boys' networks.

Without a strong social support, women in the higher echelons often find themselves lonely such

that whenever they take a fall, no one is ever there to cushion them.

 Also, new female professors identified lack of mentorship as limiting them from

accessing informal networks, and thus increasing their marginalization (Carlson, 2008). As lone

voices in a male dominated board of governance, women leaders may not be taken seriously in

meetings, thus were unlikely to fully contribute to the decision making process (Hoffman, 2006).

In the next section I discuss relational barriers that women encounter in sports. These barriers

include; negative socialization, the use of male standards as a benchmark, and the presence of

power relationships.

Relational Barriers

For sports organizations to function effectively, both the leader and members have to

develop relationships that will ensure that the organizational goals are met. Through interactions,

people learn to communicate, understand each other, and work to accomplish specific goals. In

sports, the male dominated work place environment tends to create certain tensions that prevent

women from realizing their goals or rising to leadership positions (Inglis et al., 2000). Research on the underrepresentation of women in leadership indicate glass ceiling, glass floors (Branson, 2007), old boys' networks (Staurowsky, 1990), gender discrimination (Pfister & Radtke, 2006), and power relations (Webb & Macdonald, 2007) as some of the obstacles to women's advancement to leadership.

Negative socialization as rooted in culture. Social learning theories assume that people and the environment jointly influence a person's behavior. Socialization through interaction determines people's activities and choice in life (Ismail & Rasdi, 2008). When one is socialized into their community's practices and belief systems, they develop collective consciousness common to that of community, which could be of a negative or positive nature. According Chabaya et al. (2009) negative socialization impacts women's perception of themselves and lowers their self esteem. Chabaya et al.'s (2009) study of female teachers in Zimbabwe found that women underestimated their ability to lead and lacked the confidence to apply for leadership positions. Sartore and Cunningham (2007) consider social and cultural forces as being critical in shaping the self, in this case, the gendered stereotypes, resulting from cultural socialization that is deeply ingrained in the women's consciousness, which helped enhanced the belief that they were not suited for leadership. Sperandio (2010) maintains that the social cultural gendered stereotypes requiring women to behave in a certain way while professing to adhere to and promote the equality at the place of work is contradictory and is a mismatch between policy and practice, further helping to marginalize women in sports leadership positions.

Male standards. Since leadership was founded on male principles, most organizations use male standards to evaluate women during recruitment or promotion. These lopsided recruitment criteria that look for male qualities in women (Eddy & Cox, 2008; Vanderbroeck,

2010) are seen as discriminatory and deliberately prevent women from accessing high leadership

positions. In addition, requiring women to adhere to male standards or leadership styles often

result in conflicts or a "double bind" situation (Shakeshaft et al., 2007) that expects them to

display feminine behavior; yet, masculine characteristics are normally sought when recruiting

leaders. Moreover, when women display male behavior, they are perceived in a negative way,

yet when they display too much feminine behavior, they are seen as "too soft" to lead

(Vanderbroeck, 2010). In sports, women that display masculine characteristics of aggressiveness

and competitiveness are labeled lesbians (Gurthrie & Kauer, 2009). The lesbian stigma is used to

instill fear in women, isolate them, and enhance men's power and control over women. Feminist

theorists maintain that the entry and success of women in sports threatens the male ego and

power structure, and that by using the lesbian tag, they succeed in maintaining their rule over

women (Sabo & Messner, 2001; Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). Researchers advise the need to

be cognizant of the both the biological and individual difference between men and women,

because using male standards on women may not reflect their true leadership qualities (Eddy &

Cox, 2008).

     Power relationships. Power is seen as central to operations and social relations in

organizations and that: "Power establishes maintains, and challenges particular discourses within

daily social relations" (Webb & Macdonald, 2007, p. 280). Issues of power relationships always

surface in environments where there exists a dominant group. In sports, men have been accused

of using their power to ensure that women remain in subordinate positions. Some studies have

proposed that the entry of women into sports are seen as a threat to masculine power,

consequently, men have devised ways of ensuring that they maintain their power and control

over women. Sexual harassment, sexism, violence and lesbian tags (Cohen, 2001; Messner,

Duncan & Jensen, 2007) as well as denying them information, excluding them from activities, assigning them high risk jobs and generally creating a hostile environment (Branson, 2007; Pfister & Radtke, 2006) are some of the strategies that are used to suppress women.

Webb and Macdonald's (2007) study examined how variants of power techniques drawn from Foucault, such as exclusion, classification, normalization and distribution were used to suppress women. Findings revealed that the exclusion power techniques were used to deny women information and knowledge, and that training and interview processes were biased in favor of men. The classification power technique alludes to the gender role expectations and enhanced the belief that older women were not suited to teach physical education, forcing them into early retirement. The normalization power techniques determined standards and norms of evaluation, performance in schools and the behavior and actions of female teachers in school. The distribution power technique manifested in the way men used their masculine bodies to invade spaces in schools.

While power is related to leadership, women resist claiming power that they could be entitled to in their work places. Therberge (1990) found that, while coaching is a position of power, women coaches were reluctant to claim and use their positions as power positions, but instead, they viewed themselves as mentors who could influence athletes in a positive way. Other studies also confirm that men and women perceive power in different ways. While power is what motivates men to pursue leadership position and often understand power-conflicts result in their dropping out of leadership positions, women tend to avoid such conflicts, and instead focus on helping develop the organization (Pfister & Radtke, 2006). Feminist theories in research challenge the imbalances in power which create inequalities in most workplaces. There is enough evidence to suggest that insurmountable challenges exist at various workplaces for women in

leadership. In the male dominated sports organizations, women leaders are not likely to have a mentor or role model whom they could emulate or rely on to provide them with guidance, inspiration or motivation.

Navigating the Barriers

In spite of the gender stereotypes suggesting women as incapable of leading, there is enough evidence showing women as suited for leadership (Hoyt, 2010). Women leaders bring a different perspective to leadership (Vanderbroeck, 2010), thus the proposition to include more women in leadership positions in various organizations. Despite women being highly educated with excellent credentials, they still remain invisible in leadership positions, making women to constantly search for equal representation in governance. Equality can only be gained through changing the systemic and organizational structures. Northouse (2010) suggests that increasing the number of women in the boardroom and other senior management positions can increase the appreciation for diverse talents and enrich the organization. Also, organizations are advised to devise flexible schedule and family friendly reforms (Bruening & Dixon, 2008) such as maternity leave, to accommodate women. Developing social capital and networks can be used to mentor others and help women to develop careers and advance into leadership positions (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). As noted before, networks are very crucial in enhancing personal development and acquiring groups' support as evidenced by the "old boys' networks," which have been used by men to enhance their positions in work places, and in sports as well.

A study by Inglis et al.'s (2000) echoes the importance of social support groups for women in sports coaching and management. Participants in this study relied on social support groups from family, peers, mentors, women's leagues, and to some extent, the administration, as a way of coping with challenges in sports. Self-improvement strategies such as further

education, acquiring new skills, and taking on roles that would impact women's programs ensured that they remained competitive as leaders. The authors suggested systemic changes in the recruitment practices and creating safe work places environment for women as a way of ensuring fair competition.

While a number of women have been able to make it to the highest positions in their organizations, for some women the glass ceiling has been difficult to break, consequently forcing women to venture out of formal employment into entrepreneurship as an alternative way of achieving the exclusive executive CEOs positions, which are seen as impossible to attain in the male dominated organizations (Branson, 2007). Private enterprise provides women with a chance to implement family-friendly policies that allow them to balance their roles as mothers, wives and career women. Research shows that when the Massachusetts Institute of Technology implemented family-friendly policies, the number of women faculty increased by 50 percent (Dominici et al., 2009). The change of systems, policies, increasing the number of women in the boardroom or even venturing into private enterprises constitutes some of the broad based solutions to the barriers at the workplaces. Programs could be developed that target both individuals and institutions in helping women have long-term impact on leadership in organizations.

Developing Women Leaders

Developing women leaders is a continuous and sustainable process that will ensure more inclusion and active participation of women in governance of organizations. While men treat leadership as their heritage, consequent cultural beliefs and organizational structures influence women's perception of themselves, revealing them as intruders in leadership. Underrepresentation of women in leadership has therefore become a concern, not only for

73

international organizations, but also for educators and feminists interested in creating strategies for developing women leaders. Such strategies include education, the use of laws and legislation, and change of attitudes to bring about needed reforms.

Education

Tamale (2000) has proposed that developing women leaders should be done through capacity building, which entails providing them with access to education, equipping them with the necessary skills for the new roles, and engaging them in confidence building. For instance, the United Nation's (UN) Millennium Development Goal's (MDGs) lists access to education as one way of empowering women and increasing the chances of a fair competition with men. Even though a number of studies found education failed to guarantee women's entry into positions of leadership (Norman, 2010; Pfister & Radtke, 2006), most research studies (Branson, 2007; Julien et al., 2008; McAllister, 2006) attest to the importance of education in leadership, and that quality education is what guarantees women's entry into positions of leadership. Thus women are urged to develop their human capital, which includes education (Northouse, 2010).

The IOC's women sports policy agenda focuses on developing women leaders and increasing their participation in the NOC leadership, through funding of leadership training programs around the world. These programs provide women with much needed social networks and confidence building skills. In the 2004 IOC/ ISLR research, participants suggested leadership training on issues of women and sports, acquiring knowledge on equality and women's projects, sport management and administration courses, training on confidence building as well as mentoring programs as ways of making them more effective as NOC leaders (Henry et al., 2004). These responses suggest women leaders feel that they are not adequately prepared to

fully participate in the decision making processes in their organizations. This often results in frustration and dropping out from leadership positions in sports (Pfister & Radtke, 2006).

Law and legislation

Equal rights legislations help generate ways to empower women and to develop them to become leaders. The history of women in leadership demonstrates the importance of using the existing laws for equality purposes. The EOA of the 1960's saw many nations around the world open up employment and educational opportunities to women. The affirmative action policies have resulted in more women enjoying social, economic and political rights. For instance, the 1972 Title IX of USA saw an increased access to education, employment, better pay, political seats, and participation in sports of the marginalized populations. Title IX requires gender equity for boys and girls in every educational program that receives federal funding (Triola, 2008). Although the merger of men and women sports under Title IX resulted in the low representation of woman in leadership, more achievements than losses have resulted from this particular legislation and others. For instance, the Affirmative Action originated in US and has been adopted by most nations such as those in Africa resulting in more leverage for women in governance of institutions, especially in politics. However, research has also indicate that legislation alone does not guarantee women equal opportunities (Abdela, 2000) since the personal, society as well as organizations and cultural environmental factors could determine the efficacy of the legislative laws (Pheko, 2009).

Change of Attitudes

Women are perceived as different, and these biased perceptions are formed over the years through cultural and social interactions. Culture plays a major role in influencing behaviors, attitudes, as well as conceptualizations of leadership. While most organizations are cognizant of

the need to have gender-friendly policies, people's attitude have proved hard to change, and women are still perceived as inferior to men. Developing women leaders provides a means for empowering women and ensuring that they are equipped with skills to assume leadership roles. Scholars recommend the use of individual level interventions as an effective way of teaching people to cope with the challenges (Budworth & Mann, 2010). Pheko (2009) proposes a change of people's attitudes, embracing cultural diversities, as well as to be accepting of women as equals. Chabaya et al. (2009) recommends re-socializing of individuals and embracing gender equality as a way of addressing cultural stereotypes that prevent women from seeking for leadership positions. Pheko's (2009) proposed use of competency model, which recommends that training should start at an early age before pupils can internalize the gender stereotype and develop gender role identities. Noting that opposite gender dispositions develop during childhood, and that that gender identities are also formed at different stages in life, Mennesson (2009) proposed reverse-gender socialization, where men and women could participate in activities that are not congruent with their gender. Additionally, using the symbolic and structuralism concepts in the study on men in dance, Mennesson provided evidence of the multiple ways in which gender identity was constructed. Mennesson (2009) argued that gender role or identity was not permanent but was flexible as indicated by some of the participants in the study who were socialized into dance at a later stage in life, where they identified themselves as being "feminine-masculine." Using Mennesson (2009) concept, it may be plausible to socialize both girls and women into believing that leadership is not a male preserve, which could be a positive step towards increasing the number of women leaders.

Increasingly, more research is being done on women in leadership. This is in recognition of the important roles and the special skills that women have and can inject into organizations. In

spite of the challenges that depict a mismatch between policy and practice, many world bodies continue to address the issue of inequalities in society. The implementation of the laws and legislation such as the Affirmative Action policies by governments around the world provides hope for promoting and enabling women leaders, eliminating all forms of discrimination, and supporting women leadership from the grassroots to the national and international levels.

Summary of the Literature Review

A review of literature has provided information on women in leadership from a historical perspective. The current research on women leaders highlighted the major topics that have been covered in the study of leadership in the politics, business, education and sports. The most common finding is that the women are underrepresented in all leadership sectors in society. Historical, political, religious and cultural factors have been used to explain the underrepresentation of women in leadership. The current status of women in leadership at the global level indicates that the increased numbers of women in employment has not been proportional to the representation of women in leadership, in education, politics, and sports. More specific to sport the representation of women in leadership at both the national and international levels has remained low. This suggests the gendered nature of sports organizations that are dominated by men both locally and at international levels. Various aspects of women in leadership such as style, roles and responsibilities, and decision-making have been interrogated, pointing to the power imbalances between men and women. The social structure is infused with patriarchal predispositions, where the society is viewed from the gender dichotomy in which men have the advantage over the women (Webb & Macdonald, 2007) and they determine every aspect of women's lives. Northouse (2010) uses the leadership labyrinth to explain underrepresentation of women in leadership. The labyrinth holds three types of explanations

including; lack of human capital, prejudice, and gender differences, as conduits for women's suppression.

Theoretical Framework

Feminism provided the theoretical framework and social constructivism was the epistemological stance used to examine experiences of women in sports leadership. Feminism challenges those existing power structures that favor men. Social constructivism provided ways to understand the multiple perspectives of women in sports leadership. Social constructivism also helps understand gender and gender role allocation, the world of sports, as well as leadership as social constructs that are used to exclude women. While constructivism was necessary for creating meaning out of the participant's stories, the critical feminist perspective was used to create a better understanding of the work place experiences of women sports leaders in a predominantly male environment (Higgs, 2001). Burns (1987) aimed at developing a feminist theory that would be used in studies on women in leadership. Noting that previous studies on women leadership were conducted by men and framed within the male theoretical frameworks, it was imperative that a feminist perspective be developed and used for studies on experiences of women in leadership. Underlining the appropriateness of a feminist theoretical perspectives for studies on the experiences of women in leadership, Burns (1987) noted that a feminist theoretical perspective "includes the construction of that reality, but also may specifically attend to the special needs of women to establish self and her activities within the social world that has a predominate male definition" (p. 216). Hence, because each person is able to narrate their experiences from their own perspectives and construct meanings of those experiences individually, constructivism and feminism were deemed to be appropriate theoretical perspectives for this study.

Social constructivism

As an epistemology of knowledge, social constructivism posits that meaning is constructed through people's interaction with their environment, and that people's worldviews are influenced by their culture, historical as well as social institutions (Crotty, 1998). Constructivism also holds that in order to understand the social world, one has to take into consideration the use of language, symbols, and meanings in that social setting; hence, reality is socially constructed (Klenke, 2008). Social constructivism, which embraces multiple realities, was chosen as the epistemological stance in which the experiences of women in this study were examined. From social constructivism meaning is generated from previous experiences and what is in the mind, and that reality is in the human thought (Glasersfield, 1995). Also from social constructivism, the world is comprehended as complex and interconnected, thus a phenomenon that should be understood within its environment (Klenke, 2008). The researcher acknowledges the different perceptions and meanings that each individual creates through interaction with others, resulting in multiple realities (Cresswell, 2007; Higgs, 2001). Inglis et al (2000) expressed that meaning as experienced by every individual could only be attained through listening to voices of the people concerned, with each person's experience being shaped by their interactions in their work situations. Through interaction and inductive reasoning, knowledge and truth are created not discovered (Klenke, 2008). In this regard, the current study focused on how women perceived themselves in a male dominated world, on the gendered ideals set by institutions to maintain power imbalances (Webb & Macdonald, 2007; Pfister & Radke, 2006; Brown & Evans, 2004); societal attitudes (Norman 2010; Saturowsky, 1990), and on the sports participation experiences as influenced by the teachers, parents and schools.

Research conducted using this perspective is done in the natural world or field (Klenke 2008), and this enables the researcher and participants to interact and in the process, co-construct meanings. Participant's views are considered important, and therefore interviews, focus group interviews and observations methods of data collection were seen as appropriate and utilized in this study. In addition to the construction of meaning through focus group discussion and interviews, researchers also acknowledged their own personal, cultural and historical experiences as shaping their interpretation (Creswell, 2007), which helped enhance the trustworthiness of the research.

Feminism

A brief history of the feminist theory can be traced back to John Stuart, an advocate for human rights and author of *Subjection of Women* (Hattery, 2010). Feminism began with the concern for the status of women in the family and the right for women to vote. Modern feminist theory (1960's-1970) focused on reproductive rights, economic freedom that resulted in the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the U.S. Title IX of 1972. Diverse forms of feminism propose different ways of fighting for social injustice including liberal feminism, which champions personal autonomy and individual rights. It advocates for equal opportunity, sharing power and transforming institutions (Hattery, 2010). Marxist feminist, on the other hand, views power in terms of capitalism and focuses on complete dismantling of oppressive structures while radical feminism views patriarchy as contaminating the social structure and advocates for complete dismantling and rebuilding of all structures so as to establish some form of gender equality. On their part, social feminists seek to unify feminists to speak in one voice (Crotty, 1998; Messner & Sabo, 1990), while postmodern feminism focuses on the intersection of race, gender, class and

other variants as being part of " a complex system of oppression that results in variations of gender oppression" (Hattery, 2010 p. 100).

Feminist critical inquiry is attributed to Karl Marx's theories, and it is critical of the use of knowledge by power elites to control others (Crotty, 1998). The critical ideological paradigm focuses on the way in which power is structured by race, class, gender and other systems of domination and oppression. Critical perspectives not only aim at drawing attention to the existing oppressive structures brought about by historical, social and political factors, but they also seek to challenge and transform those structures and to emancipate the marginalized (Haverkamp & Young, 2007 ; Higgs, 2001). As one of the theories that utilize the critical perspective, feminism views the world within the oppressive lens and reality as it is related to power (Crotty, 1998; Messner & Sabo, 1990). According to Kleinman (2007), feminist inquiry concerns finding facts, and highlighting the existing inequalities in order to challenge the existing power structures. Through feminism females are given a voice to bring their issues to the forefront (Kay & Jeans, 2008).

Previous research studies on leadership as well as leadership theories placed women in subordinate position, where men are perceived as having inherent leadership qualities that were lacking in women such as intelligence, confidence, dominance and masculinity that make a leader effective (Lau, 2007; Sperandio, 2010). The leadership theories conceptualized leadership as a male preserve thus effectively locked out women from leadership positions. Although the second wave of feminism helped to provide equal access, resulting in a tremendous number of women entering into the male dominated spaces including participation in sport (Hanis-Martin, 2006), women remain underrepresented in sport leadership positions. Sadly, the entry of women into male dominated areas was seen as a challenge to the traditional image of men and women,

and those misconceptions of women in leadership positions still reign today especially sport, helping identify sport as one of the "last male bastion." For this reason, feminism becomes a relevant theory through which to explore gender relations and explicate how sport is considered as a sexist and male dominated institute (Messner & Sabo, 1990).

The black feminist thought is one of the notable postmodern feminist theories stemming from the notion that there exist variants in the oppression of women based on gender, race, class, and religion. Scholars in feminism propose that a better understanding of marginalization of women requires identification of patriarchal structures, capitalism and other historical structures which conspire to undermine women (Omwami, 2011). Black feminism takes into account the social-cultural differences as a way of understanding the world of women (Collins, 2000). Proposed by Patricia Hill Collins, the black women's experiences were viewed as being unique and that they could only be understood within their own perspectives/ consciousness, which were different from that of the dominant group. Both Collins (2000) and Aina (1998) criticized the western feminism's assumption that issues faced by women are universal, thus requiring a blanket type of solution. Bell hooks is also cited by Aina (1998) as saying "white women liberationist saw feminism as their movement and resisted any efforts by non-white women to critique, challenge or change its direction (1993, p. 502). This resistance to acknowledging existence of multiple oppression patterns of women resulted in the rearticulating feminism. Consequently, the black feminist theory has been adopted with modification and used by scholars such as Palmer and Masters' (2010) to examine experiences of women in sports leadership in New Zealand, and the Maori feminism was used; Phendla (2008) used the theory to explain the role and status of South African women in education. The black feminist theory also informed Ngunjiri's (2011) research on women's spiritual leadership in Africa.

Like Patricia Hill Collins, Aina (1998) has proposed Africana Womanism, which is grounded in the African culture and focuses on the unique experiences, needs and desires of the African women. Obviously these scholars relate to the contemporary feminist thought, which seeks for a more pluralistic approach that recognizes complexities and differences in the women's life's experiences (Hooks, 1993). African feminism may be better explained within different historical epochs such as pre colonial, colonial and postcolonial. Aina (1998) notes that feminism in Africa is a consequence of colonial interference with the social structures in which there was no separation of power between men and women. Aina (1998) further noted that under colonial and postcolonial regimes in Africa, subordination of women operated at three levels: 1) male dominance of the traditional patriarchal social structures; 2) domination of women as members of the peripheral societies subordinated to foreign capitalist makes of the metropolitan states ; 3) subordination of women as members of the underpaid working class and impoverished peasantry. Clearly, the African feminist agenda is considered to be broader than the Western one as it focuses on the reproductive and productive roles, oppressive structures, oppressive traditions, stabilizing marital relations, building bridges in traditional African communal life, and center on the emerging individualistic tendencies of the modern world (Aina, 1998). Ultimately, African women's challenge is not just about gender domination, but double oppression caused by slavery, colonialism, imperialism, neo-colonialism and apartheid. Therefore the differences between these two forms of feminism are that "while western feminism exists with a structure which had successfully broken away from fetters of tradition; African feminism operates within a framework that sees tradition as inherently part of the present" (Aina, 1998 p. 72).

Although African feminism is broader in scope than western feminism, a multitude of existing challenges or differences in priority issues among the women could slow the feminist movement process in Africa. However the success of feminism in Africa depends on raising awareness among women as well as getting cooperation from men (Aina, 1998). From African feminism perspective, it is believed that there is no sex that is complete-in-itself. They argue that individuals are a part of a greater culture, and that gender relationships are necessary for maintenance of harmony in a social group (Nkomo & Ngambi, 2009). In this study, I align with the postmodern feminist perspective, which embraces diversity or pluralism. Specifically, the African feminism underscores pre-colonial, colonial and postcolonial issues that affect women in Africa. Like other researchers from Africa, I draw from Patricia Hill-Collins's black feminism theory. As a postmodern feminist, I am opposed to the radical feminist notion of fighting men, rather I am cognizant of the important roles that both men and women play in society as promoted by the African traditional Societies in which "no sex was considered as being complete in itself." Further, researchers and various organizations propose that both men and women work together to promote women.

Nkomo and Ngambi (2009) conducted a study on the current knowledge on African women in leadership, based on the fact that few studies existed on female leaders and managers in Africa. The authors argued that for the African continent to prosper, the role of women as leaders could not be ignored, hence the need for leadership development. The studies also revealed that the corporate sector was dominated by men and that women generally experienced problems that were socio-culturally and politically related. One surprising finding was that some research topics common in the Western countries such as mentoring, sexual harassment, and work and family were rare in the case of African studies. Researchers also found that African

women prioritized family over the job, and that in the South African case, family-work were not seen to be in conflict, rather they complemented each other. Also, culture played a crucial role in the family-work lives of the women, with extended family members providing for social support which enabled women to advance in their careers. Therefore, communal life was favored over individualistic life.

The authors suggested that the study of African women in leadership and management be re-conceptualized to include the cultural factor when interrogating African issues, and that the Eurocentric theoretical perspectives may not be suitable to research on Africa given the socio-historical and cultural differences. They also proposed a meso-model for researching gender and leadership in Africa to include the individual level, social level and the organizational level contexts. The African feminism and postcolonial theories were proposed. Like the black feminist theory, African feminism disputes the idea of universal subordination, arguing that men and women in the African society have spheres of autonomy in the economic, social, ritual and political areas that were ensured by checks and balances.

The post-colonial theories are used to analyze the negative effect of colonial rule in Africa and its consequences on the status of the African woman. Postcolonial theories critique the Eurocentric and Western representation of the non-Western worlds. They help understand the evolution of representations of gender, sexuality, culture and the body within specific historical epoch. Freedman (2002) points out that feminism in the postcolonial world calls for recognition of multiple forms of injustice and emancipation. It is through scholarship that the world will get a glimpse into the world of the African woman. Lamenting the loss of former powerful status (dewomanization) of the African woman Sofola (1998) noted that "assailed by Western and Arab cultures, she has been stripped bare of all that made her central and relevant in the traditional

socio-political domain" (p. 52). In view of such experiences, an opportunity to speak about, and voice the issues that affect women as provided in this research is not only liberating but also provides African women with a chance to regain their lost status under colonialism.

Since previous research on women in sports leadership was predominantly western-oriented, this study provides a new cultural dimension to the studies on leadership, which is in line with globalization spirit requiring world leaders to be sensitive to cultural diversities in their organizations. That leadership has to be understood within specific individual and collective cultures (Triandis, 1993), based on religion, family, school, race and gender dimensions. For instance, many studies on women and leadership are located in the west and abide by western cultures, and because of the cultural differences, their findings may not be applicable to the women in Africa.

In view of this, Bass (1997) and Fiedler's (1993) concept of leadership as being contextual implies that environmental and organizational cultures also determine one's leadership practice. What is apparent though, is the different levels at which we have to understand culture. Women leaders in Kenya are defined by different cultural context both at the individual and societal levels. It is these cultural influences that shape their leadership practices and provide insights into understanding their perceptions of leadership. At the individual level, the woman is a mother, daughter and wife. At the societal level, she is an educated woman and a leader in sports, yet still at the global level she is a woman whose knowledge transcends the local environment and has an understanding of global issues such as the various laws and policies. While the global knowledge links her to other women at international level, she is separated from them by the differences in culture. Our awareness of influences of diverse cultures is what will make us understand these participants. It is also assumed that diverse cultures are likely to make

86

one an effective leader (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). The current study on the experiences of Kenyan women in sports leadership provides an understanding of how the different cultures and subcultures shaped the leaders' practices, including the decisions that they made. This study is different from previous studies that are predominantly western oriented. The experiences of women leaders in male dominated world were examined along the lens of culture, history and society. By including women coaches', sports administrators' and physical educators' perspectives, this research study provided a more comprehensive picture of women sports leaders in Africa.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

This chapter provides the methods of the study and includes the purpose, research questions, and the rationale for the research approach. The chapter also provides information about the research site, the participants, sampling procedure, data collection methods, data analysis, trustworthiness, ethical considerations, and limitations of the study. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine experiences of women in sport leadership, with particular attention paid to decision-making processes, achievements, opportunities available to them, and the challenges encountered. Thirteen women in positions of leadership as sports administrators, coaches and physical education teachers in various sports organizations and educational institutions in Kenya were purposively selected for this study.

Research Questions

The review of literature informed development of research questions used in this study. Specifically, the IOC / ISLP report on women leaders in NOC's (Henry et al., 2004) and Martel's study (2007) on Canadian women in sports leadership, McAllister's study (2006) on the influence of competitive athletic careers on leadership styles of school principals,   Pfister and Radtke's study (2009) on Germany sports federations, as well as Inglis et al.'s study (2000) on multiple realities of women sports leaders were especially helpful. The following questions directed this research study:

1. What factors influenced women's choice of a career in sports leadership?

    a. Socialization

    b. Opportunities for leadership

2. What roles do women fulfill in sports leadership?

    a. To what extent do they influence the decision making process

3. What are the leadership styles of women sports leaders?

4. What challenges do women in sports leadership encounter?

5. How do women in sports leadership overcome these challenges?

Rationale for Using Qualitative Methods

Qualitative research approach emphasizes collection of descriptive data in natural settings and promotes understanding from the participant's point of view and the meanings they ascribe to their actions (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). In qualitative studies, the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection, and researchers attempt to understand human nature in a natural world through inductive analysis of collected data (Merriam, 1998; Rossman & Rallis, 1998). Qualitative researchers interact with people in their natural world, ask questions, listen to people and gather information about people's social world and environment with the aim of generating new knowledge and understanding (Rossman & Rallis, 1998). Consistent with qualitative research underpinnings and content knowledge derived from review of literature, this study focused on experiences of women in sport leadership in Kenya. The main aim of study was to understand how women leaders constructed meanings about their lives in a male dominated environment, how they comprehended the challenges they faced, and how they learned about their opportunities in sports, as well as their achievements and contributions to the decision-making process.

The Research Location

The study was conducted in Kenya's capital, Nairobi. The republic of Kenya is a country in East Africa. It is bordered by Ethiopia to the North, Tanzania to the South and South Sudan to the North West, and Uganda to the West, Somalia to the North East, with the Indian Ocean running along the south-eastern border. Kenya is a former colony of Britain, and the name "Kenya" is named after Mount Kenya, the second highest mountain in Africa. Kenya is known for its long distance runners and world marathon record holders. Nairobi city is home to all sports associations hence the choice of the location.

Research Participants

The participants were recruited from various sports organizations and educational institutions in Kenya. The target population was 20 female participants from a pool of coaches, physical educators, and sports administrators. However, one was deceased and two others declined to participate in the study, thus only 17 were interviewed. Four other interviewees seemed to hold back information, thus the decision not to include them; there was no evidence that they will cooperate fully in the data collection process. Therefore findings of this study are based on data from 13 participants. Qualitative research requires a few participants, with Creswell (2007) recommending 5 to 25 participants to be the ideal. Participants included school teachers, ministry officials, and businesswomen or private entrepreneurs. Only six of the participants were associated with The Association of Kenyan Women In Sports (TAKWIS). TAKWIS is an organization that is concerned with the development women leaders and advocates for the increased representation of women in sports from the grassroots to the national level. It is thus considered the "voice" of women in sport at the national level.

Sampling Strategy

According to Rosenberge and Daly (1993), purposive sampling maximizes the value of information that the participant offers. This is done through emphasizing in-depth understanding and selection of information-rich cases (Patton, 2002). Through intensive sampling strategy, one is able to identify and select information-rich cases that manifest in the phenomena of interest (Patton, 2002). Thus, the following criteria were used to select research participants. (a) They were women; (b) They were all involved in leadership positions as sports administrators, coaches or physical education teachers for at least three years. (c) They served or were serving as members of committees at national sports federations or educational institutions. While three years was set as a basis of determining who qualified to participate, those participants with longer experience in sport leadership were included in the study. All the participants in the study had more than 10years of experience as leaders in their sports federations.

Data Collection Methods

Various data collection strategies are employed in qualitative research including interviews, document analysis and observation. Since qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed about their world and experiences. Individual interviews and documents analysis were selected as methods for data collection for this study.

Interviews

Various researchers (Fontana & Frey, 2005; Seidman, 2006) regard interviews as the powerful way of understanding human behavior. Interviews are about "interaction between two or more people leading to negotiated contextually based results" (Fontana & Frey, 2005 p. 698), resulting in accurate accounts and active construction knowledge between the researcher and the

participant. Qualitative research allows researchers to learn about what cannot be seen and to explore alternative explanations of what they see (Glesne, 1999). Interviews may take on various characteristics including face-to face interviews or telephone interviews, and they may be in the structured, unstructured and semi-structured forms, and could also include long-term or short term, one-time or several visits interactions between the researcher and the participant/s (Fontana & Frey, 2005). Standard questions are used in structured interviews. However, using structured questions omits the utilization of individual differences; hence a researcher cannot evaluate responses as it does not allow for any flexibility. Telephone interviews promote a sense of anonymity but limit the use of non-verbal cues to guide the research and the levels of disclosure, honesty and intimacy that are normally created in face to face interviews (Suzuki et al., 2007).

Individual face to face semi-structured and open- ended interviews were used for data collection. Open ended interviews allowed participants to extensively express their points of view (Giorgi, 1997) . Each participant was asked to describe an incident and further prompts were used to get detailed information. One-time 60 to 90-minutes interviews were conducted. Mostly, the stories by 13 of the 17 women after the first interview were detailed and explicitly narrated to the extent that subsequent interviews were not warranted. All interviews were conducted over summer of 2011, with follow-up questions or clarifications conducted over the phone. Initial contact with participants was made through telephone and emails, where the researcher introduced herself and explained the purpose of the study in the invitation letter request to participate in the study (See Appendix C). Telephone calls were also made to those that had not responded to the email after one week. Given that most of the participants had full time employment; interviews were scheduled at a time that was convenient to both the interviewee and the researcher.

Interview questions focused on the career paths, socialization into sports and leadership career, roles and responsibilities in the organization, leadership practices, challenges encountered and strategies for overcoming them, and future aspirations of women leaders. The interview guide (Appendix A) served as guide, but the researcher used a lot of probes to generate more information.

Documents

Documents are a rich source of data and include records, artifacts, and archives (Patton, 2002). Documents as a source of data are very convenient because they already exist in the research location. The advantage of documents as a source of data is that they are not affected by the presence of the investigator, they do not need relation building, and the researcher can refer to them as many times as possible. To gather demographic information of the participants, the researcher used McAllister's (2006) participant profile form (Appendix B). McAllister (2006) used the participant profile form to gather information on the marital status, education history and other basic information to help the researcher gain background formulation to augment generation of interview questions. This information provided more knowledge about each of the participant. The participant profile forms were analyzed and used to triangulate the interview data.

<div align="center">

Data Management

</div>

All the interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed (Suzuki et al., 2007), and stored in a personal computer and flash drive to ensure that the data were protected until completion of research work. Audio recording allows the researcher to capture the whole interview, thus allowing the interviewer to concentrate on listening. Transcription of each interview took place following the study. Patton (2002) advises researchers to conduct their own transcriptions as a

way of getting immersed in the data, and that making backup copies of all data as a way of

protecting data is critical. All interview transcripts were labeled to include the use of pseudonym

as a way of ensuring confidentiality (Patton, 2002), the time and site. These identification labels

served as reminders to the researcher about the contents of the interview. This allowed for easy

follow up and clarification on some of the issues, thereby enabling the researcher to plan how to

approach the subsequent interview. For accuracy of the data collected, each participant was

emailed a copy of their transcript, so that they could review and clarify the transcribed

information. Suzuki et al., (2007) advise that researchers perform post transcription checks with

participants as a way of confirming the accuracy of the information recorded.

Assessing Data Quality / Trustworthiness

According to Merriam (2002), the main methodological concerns in qualitative research

relate to the criteria used to judge qualitative research, which includes credibility, dependability,

and transferability, confirming the trustworthiness of the researcher, the research process and the

results (Thomas, 2006). Credibility refers to the extent to which the results are believed by the

participant, dependability is the extent to which results can be obtained by an independent

researcher, transferability is whether the results can be applied to another context, and

confirmability refers to the extent to which results can be verified (Klenke, 2008; Merriam,

2002; Thomas, 2006), all of which determine the trustworthiness of the research and researcher.

Being ethical in qualitative research enhances the quality of one's research but also reinforces the

credibility of qualitative research. The trustworthiness of a study is further enhanced through

including both the researcher's and participants' perspectives, which can be accessed by the

audience and applied to their own situations (Morrow, 2007). Observations, interviews, peer

review, and triangulation methods are used to access the quality of data (Merriam, 2002).

Trustworthiness should permeate the entire research process and also be reflected in the participants report (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

Triangulation

Triangulation is a strategy that is used by qualitative researchers to enhance trustworthiness or reliability and validity of the study, through providing multiple ways of understanding a phenomenon (Mathison, 1988; Merriam, 2002). Triangulation involves the use of various methods such as data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, and methodological triangulation (Mathison, 1988) as ways of assessing data quality. Data triangulation uses multiple data collection methods, investigator triangulation involves using more than one researcher, methodological triangulation applies multiple methods to one study, and theory triangulation entails using multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data (Patton, 2002). Data triangulation was applied to this study through the use of interviews and participant profile forms for data collection methods. These two methods complemented each other by providing information that was not captured by either one of them.

Dependability

The auditing process is recommended as a way of ensuring that the data is dependable. This included keeping a journal or record of the entire research process and using member checks. Researchers should be able to "explain how they arrived at the results or give evidence of their data collection methods and analysis, allowing for the assessment of the degree to which theoretical inferences can be justified" (Bryman, 2001 p. 274). My dissertation committee members served as scholars to ensure that the research design, methods and data collection and analysis process were conducted properly. Participants in the study also confirmed the transcript information.

Credibility

To ensure credibility, researchers are required to have prolonged engagement in the field conducting intensive interviews and having persistent observations (Lincoln & Guba, 1986; Merriam, 2002). I have had prolonged engagement in the field as I was born and raised in Kenya, and I stayed for an extended time (2 months) while conducting the interviews for this dissertation study. Semi- structured and open-ended interviews with participants enabled the researcher to get the in-depth information. The face to face interviews enabled the researcher to read the non-verbal expressions as a way of authenticating the verbal information. Research credibility was further strengthened through the use of thick-description of the study findings, peer debriefing, member checks and the use of maximum variation in the selection of the research participants (Merriam, 2002) who were drawn from various sports organizations and educational institutions in Kenya.

The role of the researcher was not just to report findings; however given the researcher's personal background as an athlete, a woman in sport leadership, along with the extensive literature review on women in leadership, she was well equipped to accurately interpret findings in relation to the research purpose and within the selected paradigm (Haverkamp & Young, 2007). Stating the important role of the researcher's perspectives and uniqueness of each discipline, (Giorgi, 1997) cautions that:

> One cannot simply use subject's words because they were given from everyday life. From a phenomenological viewpoint, the life-world is pre-theoretical and pre-scientific and not yet theoretical or scientific in itself. It is the foundation of all sciences, and so its expressions must be taken up, examined and re-described more vigorously from the perspective of a chosen discipline (p. 10).

The researcher operating within this perspective should be able to present data in a way that effectively represents the participants' voice. The use of direct quotations from, and member checking by participants enhanced the trustworthiness of the data, thus avoiding misrepresentation of information. Additionally, the methods of the study aligned with the qualitative research traditions and results were interpreted according to the selected theoretical perspective. As recommended by Peshkin (1988), the researcher was aware of, and acknowledged, her subjectivities to guard against any bias (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Journal keeping and constant self-reflection throughout the research process (Higgs, 2001) helped as well.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are very critical to any research process. Since this study concerned the welfare of human beings, all ethical considerations were observed during the research. The researcher applied for and obtained Institutional Review Board permission to conduct the study under all the IRB protocols, and the researcher observed the three ethical principles of respect for persons, justice and beneficence. Additionally, the researcher also got a research permit to conduct the study in Kenya from the Kenyan National Council for Research, Science and Technology, a body that is concerned with vetting, regulating and licensing of any research conducted by individuals, organizations or government and other agencies in the country.

Ethical principles in qualitative research are enforced through various ways such as, providing full information about the research and getting the informed consent through participants signing of the informed consent form, ensuring that the participants have a right to privacy, which was done through the use of pseudonyms and assuring participants of the

97

confidentiality of the shared information, thus ensuring that the participants were protected from any harm (Fontana & Frey, 2005). The researcher followed all the required protocols for conducting a qualitative research through revealing the purpose of the study, seeking informed consent, to ensuring that the participant's information is kept confidential and anonymous, as well as informing participants of their rights (Merriam, 2002; Suzuki et al., 2007).

Data Analysis

Results were analyzed using the thematic analytic process, which is commonly used to analyze interview data (Roulston, 2001), and it involved developing and putting data into categories (Preissle, 2008), which was accomplished through determining the links and meanings and seeing how they fit into themes (Thomas, 2006). The purpose of thematic analysis is to generate categories and identify common thematic elements across the research participants, the events they report and the actions they take (Reissman, 2008). Themes give control and order to research and help in the understanding of a phenomenon (Thomas, 2006). Patton (2002) advises that one should get the feel of the data; hence, the researcher applied inductive analysis, which involved detailed reading of raw data to identify and allow dominant concepts and themes to emerge (Thomas, 2006). Following Saldana (2009), the researcher applied Strauss and Corbin's initial coding, which involved breaking data into discrete parts and comparing them for similarities and difference from repeated words. These codes were put in categories to help create some order and then developed into themes (Saldana, 2009). Constant reflection on the research questions and interview questions guided the researcher to see the emerging patterns and themes. As the patterns became clear, the researcher was able to develop taxonomic names (Le Compte, 2000).

Limitations

The main limitation in this study was the methodological limitation. Qualitative research attempts to understand and make sense of a phenomenon from the participant's perspectives; however, the human instrument has shortcomings and biases. The subjective nature of qualitative research questions the trustworthiness of qualitative research, leading to what Merriam (2002) refers to as the reliability and validity dilemma, Questioned as well is the challenge of controlling for researcher bias and establishing the trustworthiness of qualitative approach (Maxwell, 2005). Since the researcher is the main instrument for data collection, lack of transparency could result in difficulties in establishing data collection and data analysis methods (Bryman, 2001).

The role of the researcher as the main instrument for data collection has a lot of implications on the whole research including the final report, in which the participant's story or voice is represented. The researcher was careful not to misrepresent the participants. She controlled for limitations of the study by acknowledging the assumptions she brought to the study, constant reflexivity about her role as a researcher, proper representation of the participants' voices, and proper dissemination of the information gathered (Magdola & Weems, 2002; Merriam, 2002).

Summary

This chapter has provided detailed descriptions of the research methods. The qualitative research design was used to examine the experiences of Kenyan women in sports leadership. Interview questions (Appendix A) focused on socialization into sports, opportunities for leadership, leadership practices,   challenges women encountered in their workplace, and how they were able to navigate through them. The location of the study was Nairobi, Kenya.

Participants in the study consisted of 13 women leaders that were purposively selected from different sports organizations and educational institutions, including coaches, sports administrators, and physical educators. Member checks, peer debriefing and maximum variations were used to enhance the trustworthiness of the research. Both inductive and thematic analysis was employed to data. The significance of this study was that it provided women an opportunity to voice issues and perspectives on their experiences, providing insights and in-depth understanding on issues of inequality in sport. The findings from this study will serve as an inspiration and empowerment for the women who would like to pursue leadership positions in sports organizations. This study has generated policy implications for Kenya women in leadership, and also contributes to the knowledge gap on women in sports leadership in Africa, and serves as a basis for more research in the area of women in sports in Africa.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This study examined experiences of 13 women in sports leadership from various

educational institutions and sports organizations in Kenya. The study focused on factors that

influenced the women's choices of career in sports leadership, roles, responsibilities, and

challenges. The findings of the study are divided into four sections. The first section provides

demographic information on the participants' families, and their athletic and educational

backgrounds. The second part focuses on results from the interviews and is categorized into four

areas: (1) socialization in sports, (2) leadership opportunities, (3) sport leadership practices, (4)

challenges and strategies for overcoming the challenges.

The Participants

Thirteen women participated in this study. The participants were selected from various

educational and sports federations in Kenya, which were all based in Nairobi. All of the women

had diverse social as well as educational backgrounds, with a majority of them having grown up

and gone to school in the rural areas, but were based in Nairobi (Kenya's capital city) at the time

of carrying out this research.   The women leaders were professionals in diverse areas such as

teaching, business or self-employment, and only engaged in sports leadership on voluntary basis.

The participants' ages ranged between 40 and 60 years old. On marital status, only two

participants indicated that they were single, with the rest reporting to be either married or

widowed. Each of the participants had at least one child. All of the participants were highly

educated individuals, with a number of them still pursuing further education. Their parents' level

of education showed mothers as having lower education than fathers. Also, all of the women

leaders had been athletes who had represented their schools or clubs at the provincial, national

and international levels. A summary of the participants' demographic information is provided in

Table 4.1. Table 4.2 presents a summary of the findings by major categories and themes.

Table 4.1

Demographic Information of the Participants

Pseudo-name	Age	Marital Status	Number of Children	Parents Education		Profession	Competitive Sport Level	Education Level
				Father	*Mother*			
Billie	63	Single	2	Primary	Primary	Business woman	International	Diploma (*Higher Diploma in progress*)
Sanyo	52	Widow	6	College	College	University sport Adm.	National	M.Ed. (*PhD in progress*)
Teresa	60's	Married	3	None	None	Teacher	Provincial	Diploma
Rose	46	Widow	4	High school	Primary	Teacher	National	Diploma (*B.Ed. in progress*)
Wanyika	45	Married	2	College	College	Media	International	Masters
Princi	48	Married	2	Graduate	Bachelor	Scientist	International	PhD
Jill	43	Married	1	Bachelor	Primary	Teacher	National	Bachelor's
Eva	45	Married	6	College	Primary	Teacher	National	Diploma (*B.Ed. in progress*)
September	58	Married	3	Primary	None	Military	International	Diploma
Murang'a	62	Widow	2	Primary	None	Business Mgt	National	Bachelor's
Mumea Bora	58	Widow	3	None	None	Teacher	Provincial	Diploma
Ollie	43	Single	1	Graduate	Graduate	Teacher	National	B.Ed. (*Masters in progress*)
Lany	40's	Married	2	College	College	Business mgt	National	Diploma

Table 4.2

An Overview of Categories and Themes

Major Categories	Major Themes		
Socialization into sports	Agents of socialization • Family • School and teachers		
Opportunities for leadership	• Leadership in school • Leadership in the family • Leadership in sports federations and place of work		
Leadership practices	• Developing programs • Initiating programs • Fulfilling athletes needs • Decision making • Leadership styles		
Challenges	Individual • Lack of confidence • Family-work • Multiple roles	Relational • Discrimination • Isolating women • Women as own enemies • Undermining & slandering • Male ego & gender stereotypes • Cultural & traditional practices	Institutional • Male domination • Merger of institutions • Constitution & resistance to change • Unsafe working conditions • Limited resources
Strategies for overcoming challenges	• Resistance to discriminatory practices • Becoming the voice of social change • Balancing family-work • Empowering women • Networking & social support • Role modeling & mentoring • Creating visibility through the use of media		

Socialization into Sports

Socialization is a process that involves integrating people in particular groups. It involves exposure to certain habits or practices that are common to that group or community. The process of becoming a leader in sports began with socialization into sport, where assigned leadership roles occurred at home, school, and in sports federations.

Agents of Socialization

The factors that influenced the participants' choice of career in sport leadership included agents of socialization that included family, teachers, and schools. These agents were instrumental in providing women with opportunities to engage in high levels of sport participation.

Family. Members of the family were instrumental in the participants' socialization into sports. This socialization occurred in different ways, which included attendance at sport events, emulation of a family member that played a sport, and most importantly, it included the encouragement and support that the participants received from parents who promoted sports participation and pursuance of sports careers. For example, Eva, Rose and September mentioned siblings as their role models, whom these women leaders watched, admired and always aspired to be like, hence the decision to engage in sport. Eva, for example, stated:

 My big sisters used to go and participate in netball, and then I would go and watch when

 I was in class one; but when I got to class three, class four, I said even me I can make it;

 so I joined the team and I was the youngest.

Because of the exemplary performance of her sister in sport, Rose aspired to be like her sister. She explained:

 As a student in form one, which was way back in 1977, then I had my elder sister who

 was also…in the same school. She was a very good athlete; she was actually running

 short races. I used to really admire her and got into that because of her. So, I began to be

 very active in running. I could run but at one point, I became a little bit heavy. So I went

 into the throws [field events].

For some like September, the inspiration found in having an athletic family influenced her to participate in sport and she also believed that the family had some great athletics ability:

 We were all in sport, my brother played hockey, and the other sister played basketball

 and netball and also athletics, participating in track and field partly; so it was a sporting

 family… Yes my father was a good footballer [soccer player], but my mother never went

104

to school. If she had gone to school, she would have excelled. It's the combination of two to produce good sportsmen but my father did a lot of sports, and from my family background

Corroborating September's views on the families' great ability to produce sports persons was Mumea Bora, who attributed her excellent sports performances to her family's background:

From the family part I had cousins who were very good sportsmen and that was a part of the influence... From the maternal side, I had my cousins, one of my cousins who were very good footballer, that was Ouma and the brother Odhiambo. Remember there was this lady who a sprinter was called Joyce, that's my niece. So those are my first cousins because their mother was a twin sister to my mother… Perhaps running is within the family, that's how I got involved in sports.

Both Wanyika and Sanyo attributed their socialization and liking for sports to the exposure provided when they accompanied parents to watch club and college sports.   Although Wanyika's father lacked the athletics background and had not actively participated in sport when growing up, he was a very active spectator to the extent that when he did not get a chance to go to watch the matches at the stadium, he would be listening to the match on the radio. Wanyika recalled:

I used to accompany my dad to go to watch football…[starting] at the age of four to go to the stadium and watch some of the best teams in Kenya, we had players in the national team, that is the Ministry of Works (MOW) football club, but at the same time under the company of the ministry of transport. That way I used to go and watch with him that early age. But I think later on I realized that I had talent in sports, then when I was in school I used to think, I thought I would also end up as a famous sports person…Dad did not actually used to run but also sometimes when there were national athletics he could watch, he loved sports because sometimes if he is not going to watch local football match…. so if he doesn't go to watch football he would be listening to a football match. Even my mum she told me even she used to run in primary. Yeah, actually she also ran

during her primary and a bit of secondary. My brothers played football, my brother, my follower used to run like me, we were in the same primary school that is Kakamega Primary School, he loved football, and he also started playing football, up to now he is still a footballer.

Wanyika's father's love for sports definitely explains the involvement of all members of the family in sports, as seen here where all of her siblings actively participated in sports. Consistent with Wanyika, Sanyo believes that it was through accompanying her father to watch the college student athletes that she started engaging in sport. In addition to the families' active involvement in sports, a structure was provided in the children's lives to include playtime. As Sanyo explained:

Incidentally, I used to be a very bright child and early times, I lived with my dad and he monitored that very well, that is in the evening, he used to monitor my homework and work with me. He insisted that in the evening after school, I must play (ah) he insisted, even at home over the holiday, we had to wake up early in the morning, do the house chores, everything but the time for play had to be there and especially dad used to be keen if my mum gave us too much work, he would say no…that was dad and maybe it was the teacher in him. I believe it was, and of course, the love of sports.

Sanyo's response makes reference to the idea of priorities given to academics and sports, stating that her father insisted on balancing both. The most interesting finding here was prominent roles displayed by teacher-father in encouraging participation of their children in sport. A number of participants whose fathers were teachers stated that that they received unanimous support and encouragement to participate in sport. Perhaps this trend is related to their training as school-teachers and their involvement in a curriculum that emphasized holistic development of the pupil through all subjects. The narratives from Billie and Ollie attest to this trend:

My father was a teacher, and I want to believe that he took physical education seriously. Saturday is a day for sports, but from Monday to Friday you must sit down in the evening and do your homework. That is the environment that we grew in, where…when it came

to something to do with sports, my father would take out money and tell you to go.
BILLIE.

As a coach, Ollie's father seemed to naturally steer his children towards sports as indicated in her narrative:

There was that interest, okay I didn't know much about sports, but still at a very young age at around six-seven old, I would tag along with him as he was going to coach the football team, join them in… So I think that interest was created at a very early age. Then for us, I would say we are lucky because our father, when he was a coach so encouraging us into sports was just the norm. In my family, we are six of us, and each one of us was taken to play basketball, netball, and swimming. My sister, who follows me, has been a hockey player and my brother used to play rugby.

Similar to Sanyo, Billie and Wanyika, Ollie's father was also a teacher and coach and had influenced her liking for sport, which also resulted in all of her siblings engaging in a variety of sports. While most of the participants received a lot of encouragement and support from family members to participate in sport, others were dismayed by the fact that they never received any family support, because their parents emphasized academic excellence over sports. However, a number of them indicated that the only way that they got to participate in sport was by defying their parents' orders and sneaking to go and play. For example, Lany believes that she would have excelled more in sports had her parents supported her earlier on as opposed to later:

I think I would have been much far because in primary school my mother and father used to think if you were not number one in class, then you are curtailed, sometimes I would be stopped from going to run, so I would hide and go…they did not think of sports as much, they felt good that I brought all the trophies home but, it reached a point where they said no, you are not getting the same… I was not that bad in school they did not give me the support… they didn't harness it so really. Sometimes they would be like no you can't go, when I was in Form one, sometimes I had to get permission, sometimes I would hide, just for them to find that I am not in the house. You know, we used to get this

107

invitational's relays in most sports in secondary schools, so I would disappear and go, so they would ask: "Where were you?" I think they started appreciating it much later, then I think I had made up my mind on what I wanted to do, so I continued to do the same, after high school, I played for Barclays Bank.

Eva narrated how her sister, a promising swimmer, was stopped from engaging in sports because of poor academic grades. With a father who preferred academics to sports, the only way to participate in sports was to maintain high grades in school:

My father was against, totally against co-curriculum activities especially if you were not performing. So for me to be allowed to perform in the extra curriculum activities, I had to work very hard in class and take the report form to my father, number one always, then he said now that you are always number one. I have a sister who could have been the best swimmer in Kenya   but she was not allowed by my father-because she was not performing, and she was a very good netballer [netball player]. EVA

School and teachers. Besides the family's influence on the participant's socialization into sports, schools and teachers also played an important role in the socialization of the women leaders into sports. Almost all participants in the study mentioned the availability of, and access to, facilities and equipment, as well as the encouragement received from teachers, who helped them to excel in sport.   For example, Princi's response to the question on the role of schools in developing sports talent demonstrates the significant role that schools and teachers played in socializing the women into sports:

I think yes, and I think that the basis for development of sport is the school. If you don't build it in school, especially high school then is it very…difficult to do it any other time, it is in schools when you horn your skills. Primary is, I think, if you have basic athletics developed in primary school you will be able to do the rest or even if it is not in the primary school itself, but around when you are young. You are getting to do as much as you can, maybe really getting into it rather than integrating later.

This response underlines the important role of school in developing talents, thus the need for more emphasis and support for school sports programs. Sanyo, a university sport administrator benefitted from a school whose mission was to promote holistic development of the child and all the members of the school were involved in sport:

…It played a major [role] …primary school incidentally, I learnt in the hands of sisters and the Catholic institutions stressed so much on play…Physical Education, you know and the emphasis on the development of body mind and both was very important...and then especially now in high school with the Catholic nuns they made sure that they brought it out [sport talents] using physical education and promoted it. They enable you use it to the full.

For other participants like Jill, a high school physical education teacher and coach of a club, the availability of facilities as well as the varied opportunities provided by the school ensured that she got to engage in multiple sporting activities. Jill's statement also highlights the combined role of the school, teachers and siblings in influencing her to engage in sports:

Basically, [I was always attracted to sports] then when I went to secondary school, I continued because my teachers were able to put me in different sport areas. Example I used to play netball, as a Wing Attack (WA) or Goal Attack (GA), and then I went to hockey, I played a little bit of rounders, soccer. Soccer came in because I have six brothers, ahead of me so we used to go to the field together most of the time. Then you know in secondary school you always have somebody there to look around and check who is actually active and also has the passion to participate in the sport.

Although Jill believed that she was naturally inclined towards sports, the teachers' and school's role in enhancing the great athletics skills were critical. For Ollie, her body type as a tall girl led the basketball teacher to urge her to join the team on her first day in high school as indicated in her narrative:

He said, "Can the tall Form One [girl] come to the basketball court at 4:00 p.m." I did not know much about basketball and now this announcement in front of everybody assembly,

for a whole moment nobody knew my name they just called me the tall Form One...at

that age I was fairly taller than the rest of the students. So I didn't know if it was by

chance, but I got into sports because of height, and then I went into swimming.

While the majority of the participants were first-admitted into schools because of the academics,

then later decided on the sport that they were interested in playing based on what was

available at school, Princi, a scientist and sports administrator in her 40's explained that her

choice of school was determined by the number of sports facilities and the varied sports

opportunities that she discovered to exist in neighboring high school while still a primary

school pupil. She explained:

 I think I chose my high school because not…so much because my sister, my older sister

went there, but because it was at that time … I saw the school, I loved. There was… they

had six hockey pitches, twenty tennis courts, [a] big gym, I could see that already,

because we used to sometimes go to the back of the school to do some of the sports and

at that time… that's all I loved, I didn't go into, I didn't even think about the academics

at that stage, it was aaaah...I can get play some more. I learned a lot of sports, because

Kenya High as at that time used to expose us to as many sports as we wanted to.

Although the prospect of playing a lot of sports led Princi to choosing her school, the ability of a

school to provide varied activities was critical to the development of sports skills among pupils.

For example, Wanyika considers herself to be lucky that she went to a school that was renowned

for providing varied sports and cultural activities. This enabled her to develop her sports skills.

She indicated:

In high school, I went to a school that is actually renowned in the whole country as in

participating in many cultural activities so it was up to us and actually we used to get

support. Games time was games time there was no compromise. It was at 3.30 pm, we

leave class and go for games and everybody goes for games. I remember one day my

coach, my hockey coach, they had a problem with the volleyball coach because I am tall;

the volleyball coach said 'Ah, this height I need it in volleyball'. But the hockey coach said: "No, I need her speed in hockey."

In addition to the school providing facilities and equipment for sports, teachers as leaders had the responsibility of ensuring that students were availed opportunities that would enable them to succeed in life. This involved skilled athlete identification, motivation and encouragement that are considered as enabling factors.   Ollie, Rose and Mumea Bora attributed their inspiration to sport involvement and love for sports to their physical education teachers. For example Ollie recalled:

> When we are being introduced to the specific subject teacher, the principal came in to tell us; I expect you to put on this. Honestly we did not understand what the principal was doing, telling us that we have to change and go to the field, and we have to go in for PE lessons right in Form One. She was my gymnastics teacher. Now, looking back, and you are admiring her as a principal, and sport has never been taken seriously in other spheres, and now here PE is compulsory, everyone must go for it, and everybody must participate in it. We even had teachers, who were posted directly from the university to teach physical education… a wide range of sporting activities, and recreation activities. So all that background, my own principal teaching me PE, for us, this was like, this must be a very important subject, a very important subject. So you are looking at the contribution to move into sports, mine, going to that particular school, maybe I would not have done physical education or gone to the sports if I would have gone to another school, but that particular school…

Mumea Bora explained that she benefited from the support provided by her teachers, as well as from the school environment:

> Aaah…they loved…the sports, they really loved and I had the privilege of being in a missionary school. That time, and our teachers, the P.E. teachers were very, very passionate about it. So we could never miss those P.E. lessons, they made it to look very

nice, very interesting and those activities they were going to do, were made to be so

simplified until you got yourself doing them.

Similarly, the encouragement and exposure provided by teachers through taking the students to

watch and cheer the school team inspired Rose to take up sport. She explained:

Ok, a... at primary level, we had one teacher who loved sports and who encouraged us so

much. Even though we were not participating but we would carry a large group of young

people to go and sing for the older ones as they were playing.... we were the cheering

squad and we would walk miles and miles on foot, running and dancing and singing and

go there and really cheer and that really motivated us because we wanted to be like the

big ones, so that particular teacher really encouraged us.

Rose considered herself lucky to have had teachers both at the primary school and secondary

school that motivated her and provided her with opportunities to participate in sport. She further

narrated:

She, the PE teacher… her name was Ngundo …very welcoming, always ready to listen,

encouraged us and she loved sports. So we did practically all the games that were there.

I remember when we first came; fortunately we didn't have the field. The field was there

but there were no posts. So you would put the three stones, yeah, the two goals….a goal

will be stones and then she would give us balls and she would give us the hockey sticks

and go there even if she's not there...and then she would take us for competition and

sometimes we would go up to provincial level and even win. Just because of her and she

was so much into it. In swimming… I was so scared but she encouraged us, told us, you

would learn by just going there and getting brave and she really did a lot of

encouragement.

Findings of the study show that all the participants in the study participated in multiple activities

growing up and had a chance to go to school, which opened more opportunities to access more

sports. The ability to engage in multiple sports was considered as a positive attribute for which

most of the participants were extolled and they loved it. However, although she excelled in almost all of the sports that she participated in, Teresa felt that her talent was used to exploit her:

> …. Because like in primary school, you see I was sort of like being exploited because everything I tried – high jump, long jump, sprinting, long distance, they wanted me to do everything but the regulations do not allow for such a thing. If it was in sprints it is two and one long distance. So that is how I was saved from participating in everything, but in the school level, I had to do everything to gain points for my house.

Because of the cultural or religious factors, some of the schools failed to provide opportunities for participation in sports, forcing talented pupils like September to sneak to go and play in the neighboring school. Explaining the lack of support for sports by the school, September stated:

> First, it could be religion. It could be religion, is you…sports is not in their mind. Sports is not in their mind, sports is not…during that time, I don't know, know but during that time, sports was not in their minds, it was…When it comes to the time where people are doing sports, they will just want to participate, to be seen to have participated but not because they have sports at their heart. Now especially, their boys could play football, but their girls, oh, even to remove that long dress of theirs to do sports. I had never seen at any time… I would sneak from school and go and participate for other schools…a free time, oh the free time, we were just…maybe you decide to sit in class and do some of your extra ...there was nothing much. There was nothing much in secondary school.

Similarly, Teresa indicated that schools' religious values inhibited her participation in events outside of the school, and that the District Education Officer (D.E.O) had to intervene for her to be allowed to participate in sports outside the confines of her school:

> Unfortunately the talent was not tapped so much in high school because I went to a catholic school where they did not encourage socialization with the boys. At the time I remember the D.E.O had to intervene because I was in their team and they knew I was good, so I had to go and take part and the principal then who was a nun had to be convinced that nothing will happen. So it was not encouraging in high school. I can't

113

remember much of what I did, but I was very good in long jump and I had to go up to provincial level.

Opportunities for Leadership

Results of this study show that sports participation provided women leaders with the opportunities for socialization into leadership positions. The responses to the question on the decision to become a leader focused on leadership at three levels: School, family, and sports federations. Most conspicuous was the fact that active engagement in sport created visibility for the participants, leading to their being appointed to leadership positions. The transition to leadership through various leadership stages is best illustrated by Mumea Bora's description of her path to leadership:

My leadership path started when I was in college. When I was in school, I was elected the school sports captain for the women and overall captain. Then I was also the netball captain and when I left college, I came out and went to teach in one of the remote areas of Kenya, that is, Lamu. And again when I was in Lamu, I was made the District Coach for the District Netball team. And when I left, I came back to do Special Needs Education, in college, I was made a captain for this women's team and it continued like that. So when I left college to come back to work again, then I was made to be the coach for the Special Needs team in Kenya, and it went on, and I found myself getting the position of Secretary General for the Special Olympics team, Kenya Sports Association for the Mentally Handicapped for many years then I came and joined Special Olympics again I was made the Volunteer National Director. Then when the Association of Kenya Women in Sports (TAKWIS) started, again I became the Secretary General. So it was something that somebody was seeing in me that I might have not been seeing and so I kept finding myself being elected.

Leadership in School

The participants were unanimous on the initial decision to become leaders, which started with selection to leadership positions while participants in sport. Jill emphasized the fact that her

114

exemplary performance in sports placed her in a position that enhanced her visibility as a role model to others, leading to her being appointed as a leader:

> I used to be a [games] captain of my school; then I was also being used as a role model because I had already made my name nationally in the cross country running, so winning the events there; which the teacher put you in charge so that this other students can.

In addition to her active participation in multiple sports activities, the other attributes that people look for in potential leaders include the ability to interact and socialize with people in different sports activities. This is what enhanced Wanyika's appointment to the position of games captain. Wanyika regards leadership role as a position that requires one to understand people and be able to represent their concerns. She elaborated:

> … at secondary school- actually I was the games captain at form three, yeah it started there. Of course I was chosen, because I am one person who was a utility player in whichever sport. So I was actually in hockey and also in athletics... Adding the two I stood out as a sports personality in school... yeah I could say I was because I could relate well with other disciplines; hockey, volleyball, netball. That's why I was chosen as a leader if I was not playing I could join the other teams as a cheering squad… I think I stood out and everybody realized that there could be no question about who could be the games captain.

Apparently, leadership does not depend on one's size or physical strength; rather, as participants indicated, selection to leadership position in sport was mainly based on their involvement in competitive sports, their ability to learn skills fast, and their being considered a role model to others. Billie, a sports administrator in her 60's confessed that despite her small body stature, she was chosen to be a leader. She explained that:

> Well in my primary school I was Captain. I was also playing centre but I was so small looking after big ladies. But in high school I was captain for hockey and turned up when I was in form three and became a coach for hockey- A coach for hockey. ..You know the

teachers see you and they say, now we are going to have so and so, who has a problem?
No, no problems.

Eva, a high school physical education teacher believed that she was chosen to lead because of her ability to master skills faster than the rest of the students. This also supports the idea that leadership and role modeling are components that work simultaneously. In fact, her quick masterly of skills placed her in a position where the teacher required her to help teach others. She narrated:

I never realized I was a leader; the minute I just joined the group, I was the one who was learning the activities faster than the others I mastered them very fast, then the teacher identified me, then the teacher said, 'Now that you are the one who has mastered the activities faster than the others, now you will be teaching the others'.

While majority of the participants in this study were selected to lead while in primary school, Princi's opportunity to become a leader came much later in high school. Although she had always been actively engaged in sports, her restless nature never made her a candidate for leadership position while in primary school. However, the chance to become a leader presented itself when she was appointed as a senior prefect [leader] in secondary school. When I asked her if she was prepared for the leadership role at that time, she responded:

I grabbed it with both hands [**you were ready for it?**] Absolutely, I grabbed it with both hands and I didn't look back. I didn't even think and don't if any of my sisters would say that I was the fearful kind for me it was ah...here is a chance a… to be number one and for me being number-one was important, so I did, I did take it up. I became a prefect in Form Five…by the time I was, you know we went through high school that had six years. The time I was in form five, I was a senior prefect, so we had moved from being… if you were a senior prefect you wore a blue rag [blue tie]. I did not; I was not red rag [red tie]. Red rag was the one who was Assistant.

116

Princi's readiness to embrace leadership at the time could be interpreted to mean that women did not shy from leadership; rather it all depends on the time when one felt they are ready- readiness to present themselves for leadership positions.

Leadership at Family Level

A majority of the interviewees indicate that their leadership roles begun at school. However, it is worth noting that socialization at the family level played a critical role in preparing people for different roles in society. The roles and responsibilities assigned at the family level could have some lifelong influence on one's characteristics as well as choices in life. For example, Teresa attributed her initiation into leadership to her birth position, as a first-born child which was tantamount to being a leader; she was always left in charge of her siblings. She indicated:

> Being the first born in my family this is why I was put in charge by my mother and …
> she used to be away quite a lot and I was left in charge of my siblings. This is where I
> started, even in Primary I was … class monitor, I was made games captain, and then in
> KU I was in charge of hockey.

Billie also believed that her leadership skills were first honed at home when her father assigned her responsibilities of supervising the farm workers. She believed that this prepared her for the leadership roles and positions in school and into her adult life. She explained:

> I don't know whether it's in-born or you are born a leader, but I don't think so, I think my
> father did influence me in a way, because every time he could not, like I told you I am
> seventh out of eight. At home, my father would put me in charge of the workers and tell
> me to make sure they have done a good job before you pay them. So if you were left with
> me in charge, you just know you would not be paid until you do a good job.

The role of mentors within the family cannot be overlooked. Sanyo attributed her being a leader to mentorship from her father's encouragement, and confidence in her at a very young age. It is this kind of mentoring that inspired Sanyo to contest for a student leadership position

while in college become a teacher of physical education, and eventually a sport administrator.

She narrated that:

> My dad told me, is that nobody…let no man tell you he is better than you, you can be
>
> better than men. So my dad has always been my role model, my best…and I want you to
>
> be better than me and let no man stand before you and tell you they are better than you.
>
> So I had that in me. So when I went to university, I said and why not, I am going to try it
>
> [becoming a student leader].

Leadership in Sports Federation or Workplaces

Unlike the leadership positions at the school levels where one is appointed because of exemplary performance in sports as indicated by most of the participants in this study, leadership at the higher levels is typically determined by various factors and occurs in different ways.   The results of this study indicate that becoming a leader at the sport federation level required one to show interest and be willing to serve, present oneself for an elective position, and to be co-opted into leadership. Based on the situation, leadership could also be attained by virtue of the workplace position/ responsibilities, or in some cases, one could create a leadership position for herself through private enterprise. Murang'a's description of her ascendancy to leadership position as the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) points to academic and professional qualifications, confidence, as well as proving oneself as crucial elements to becoming a leader. She explained:

> I defeated even the professors who had applied and I went through the interview and
>
> managed to get the position…1993 – 95, then, then the C.E.O. of a company in Nairobi,
>
> used to come and see the way my management of things, then he thought, this lady, I can
>
> win her. You know Nairobi Stock Exchange, you have 58 companies but he wooed me
>
> and wooed me. Finally I found myself there, but I have got no regret.

The ability to present oneself for a competitive job position indicates women can effectively compete for leadership positions. Murang'a's confidence was further exemplified by her

decision to boldly seek for a position to serve on the Athletics Kenya body in the 1980's. She said:

> When I came back to the country… I met the Chairman of Athletic. I always knew I wanted to serve in athletics Kenya as a leader. So in 1983, I decided to join athletics in full swing and I was elected as a member of Athletics Kenya… I was interested to be one of the leaders in athletics, since then I have been there, since 1983 with a break of 8 years.

The idea of boldly seeking a leadership position was also utilized by Eva, a 45 year old high school teacher who decided to vie for a delegate position in the teachers' cooperative society. She knew what she wanted; she planned her campaigns, marshaled supporters around her, and managed to win the position. From this experience, Eva believes women are capable of going for competitive positions and winning as indicated in her narrative:

> Even during Mwalimu Cooperative (Teachers' Cooperative) elections, I went for the post of the delegate, me personally I thought now that I want to be their delegate, I just ask people to help me, to support me, so I went for those my sports people, that's my immediate family here in Nairobi. So I went for the Chairman, Orero, he called the other members of the executive, delegated them duties, helped in organizing my campaigns… when the results came, I was the most popular; I had done my campaigns… I had done my own homework- had my networks… I have been a teacher for games in Nairobi for very many years, there is no school where am not known, and apart from games, like I used to be in drama, then I left drama, then I also do marking of exams, I also do supervision for exams, and I go for this seminars. Like now I have met so many people at KIE when am at that workshop.   Yeah. So, but me I believe if women go for those positions they will get, because you can now imagine the two ladies we had the highest votes and the men followed us behind.

Networking and having an efficient body of supporters helped Eva to win the elective position in Mwalimu cooperative. Apart from actively seeking leadership positions as was the case with Eva

119

and Murang'a, volunteering to serve in certain positions can also equip one with the necessary leadership skills, which may later translate into leadership positions. Jill described how volunteering for a position for a sport organization contributed to her leadership skills being noticed, molded and nurtured, culminating with her becoming an international umpire. She pointed out:

> Then the opportunity came, as a volunteer, to go and volunteer in Kenya women's sports Association … I went in there, they looked at what I was doing in college and Liz just told me you are natural leader here to stand in this gap which would be lacking somebody and making the fixtures and all that kind of thing… So I held that position for many years, as I go back there, where did it come from? The talent was also noted by the Kenya Secondary Schools Sports Association (KSSSA), I had a mentor who was training me... from the grass root level where I was being trained as an umpire. Actually I emerged to be, when I was just about… you know umpiring cannot stay for long gave me the role of a technical officer, which I still do play… role of umpiring came he [my mentor] saw me one day refereeing, he said I think this is a talent that can be molded, so they came they trained me… from the KSSSA, I rose to the level of the Kenya Colleges… I went to the national level, then to the international level.

Ascending to leadership especially in sports federations remains an uphill task for women. Very few women were represented in leadership positions in sports federations. Because most of the sports positions were through elections, and few women attended meetings, chances of being elected for positions remained low, meaning that a lot of women leaders in sports organizations were either picked to the women's representative positions, or co-opted or tapped for other leadership positions. For example, despite her not showing any interest in any leadership position for sport association, Wanyika was handpicked/ tapped to be the team manager for women as she explained:

> Yeah after that when I started working; I was busy covering [media] sports from various federations. I remember in 1995 I was wanted by the sports body to be the team manager

for the women. That was in 1995: actually I was honored but I thought, was I really ready

to manage a team sport? Because…so a lot is required… Yeah but being one of them I

felt that I think these are people that understand the game. So everything, even the

politics there, a bit of them I could understand; so I felt, let me try my chance, and I did

so.

Wanyika further explained that although she had not been interested in the position, she accepted

it because of being familiar with the operations within the organization; and she was confident

that she would manage. This case illustrates the issue of women not presenting themselves for

leadership and that some of them came to be in the federations through sheer opportunities

presenting themselves. Also, Billie narrated how she was also sought out while on other duties to

become the women's representative on the national sports body, as there were no women vying

for the elective position. She explained:

I was the first one …after first basketball, there were National Olympic Committee

elections, and of course one day I was going about with my business when I was

approached by organization to stand for an elective position and I was told; " there were

no women", just come: I said who will vote for me? Because the men are the ones who

vote others, who will vote for me?" he told me don't worry, that is how I came to the

national sport body.

Obviously, Billie's statement confirms the lack of interest by women as a reason for their

inability to access leadership positions- leaving sports federations to resort to hand-picking

whoever is available for leadership positions. In addition to lack of interest in seeking for

leadership positions, the lack of confidence and being doubtful of their ability to lead prevented

women from accessing leadership positions.   The findings from this study show that because of

their active involvement in sports, almost all of the participants had always been assigned some

leadership roles throughout their school life.

However, although a number of the women leaders had been leaders in school,

appointment to leadership positions in sports organizations seemed to intimidate some. For

example, although she had been a leader throughout her school life, the prospect of becoming a leader at the national level seemed intimidating, such that even when she was "tapped" for the position by one of the male leaders, Mumea Bora was doubtful that she was capable of leading. She elaborated:

> Mmm….initially, I did not even imagine that I wanted to be a leader. I just wanted to enjoy myself in that field. Just to know in my area of specialty. I just wanted to have it then you find people saying, we want you to be our leader…then you resist, ….you say, you say, no, no, no, I don't want to take any leadership roles. I just want to be an athlete, but then you find they keep on pushing every time it comes, you are being mentioned, and then I said, hey, there must be something this people seeing in me that I am not seeing in myself. Why not take a plunge. So I said, okay, fine, if I feel I can do it, like I was called to be the National Director in the Organization, I told the Chairman, you think I can? 'As we sat as a Board and thought you can. So I was told to call you'…if you have that faith in me, then I think I will try, and I am proud that whatever the organization is going through today, it's all my work. It was all my transformation; I am the one who insisted on having a full time Director.

Similarly, when approached to lead, Lany first resisted but was later persuaded by her sportsman spouse to give it a try. She pointed out:

> No I did not decide to be a leader by the way, it's the hockey fraternity, because before I took over there was [former chair], me .I used to play hockey. I was playing hockey like everybody else so the girls came and approached me once and they asked me to take over the chairmanship of sports association. I said, 'Me?' So you see, now that tells me that I didn't know I had those qualities, but it's good that the ladies who approached me thought, yes, she had what we are looking for. So I refused initially, so I consulted with my husband, because my husband was very much in sports as well, so when I got married, he was in another sports association as the Secretary, so he had been in sports

as well, we complement each other. When I refused they called him, so he said "Lany,

why don't you just give it a try" and I did and there was no going back.

These two cases illustrate the women's lack of confidence and self-doubt on their ability to lead

and their reliance on men to affirm their ability to lead. It is quite surprising that these leaders

were hesitating to take up leadership roles in sports federations yet they occupied leadership

positions at their work places. Perhaps the reluctance to take up leadership is related to the male

dominated leadership organizational structures within sports federations- where the minority may

feel intimidated by the sheer dominance of the majority.

Leadership Practices

The women's involvement in leadership entails engagement in various leadership

practices that include roles and responsibilities and decision-making.   Successful leadership

requires preparation and training which would equip leaders with skills to enhance their

performance. The dynamic nature of organizations requires constant professional development

of its employees to meet   organization's goals. In addition to equipping workers with the

necessary skills, the success of any organization depends on the leader's leadership style.

Training and professional development

In this study, majority of the participants received formal training, first, as professionals

in their chosen field, and later by taking courses to enhance their leadership skills. Only two of

the participants specified that they had not attended any sport leadership training and that most of

their leadership skills had been acquired through observation and experience.   Leadership

training courses equipped women leaders with skills for personal development.   Jill, a 43-year

old teacher of physical education, emphasized the importance of training for teachers because of

the important roles expected of them. She explained:

Yeah I think. I don't know   that's why am going back to the sport, the teachers play a

great role, more so physical education instructors, they are very, very, very important for

a student, because they are the ones who used to give me that confidence at a very tender

age. But you see when you are going to be a captain you are going to talk to other

students, and you are the one who is going to talk to the umpire, at a tender age I was able

to do all that. That builds a lot of confidence and it makes you get some roles here and

there, when you are called to do.

Murang'a, a 60-year old retired CEO and leader in sport organization, had experience and

diversified leadership training both in the corporate world and sport. Evidently, given her

background, Murang'a had a lot more to offer to the world of sports. In addition to attending

leadership courses at the local, national and international levels, Murang'a also organized and

conducted leadership-training programs in the country. Her response on the leadership training

and preparation courses attended was as follows:

> Oh, let me tell you, I have done a lot of leadership, for your information, I am a retired
>
> Deputy Chief Executive of Nairobi stock exchange.   So that tells you in the corporate
>
> world, I am a strategic person. I have done all the management courses, I have done all
>
> the administration courses, by the way, my graduation [Bachelors degree] is in Business
>
> Management, so this is not what I am doing…I have done leadership courses. I have
>
> done leadership for Sports itself, I have organized leadership seminars for Kenya, for
>
> Africa, for even the world and I have travelled even to where you are, Atlanta, basically
>
> for leadership of women courses. I think I have it and before I joined the Golf Club.

Most of the participants valued professional development and continued to attend numerous

leadership courses in diverse fields. For example, Rose, a 48 year old a high school teacher in

charge of the school sport program pointed out that she had attended many courses which also

included community based training courses as well as those within the church:

> I have attended quite a number of workshops and seminars… then I have also attended
>
> other workshops and every time, the province would host some clinics, I would attend…
>
> but I have also attended other workshops other than that community based development, I
>
> think of Netherlands sponsored Non-Governmental Organization (N.G.O)… I have also
>
> attended leadership conference in my church, am in the...generally leadership roles as a
>
> leader and also as a woman. You know in churches men lead, there is male domination.

124

As a woman, you are not supposed to go to the pulpit. So as women, we address those

issues and you know in the Catholic Church.

As a person with sport leadership experience of over 20 years, Billie regarded education and

training to be very important sources of knowledge. She pointed out she always strived to attend

as many courses as she could afford. She indicated: "I have done quite a number of them. I have

attended any course that has come around when am available… When I hear of there is a course

I don't refuse to go. And from those courses I have learnt a lot." Mumea Bora viewed effective

leadership as being enhanced through a continuous learning process that was necessary for all,

irrespective of a person's position in society. As a former national director of a sport

organization, she emphasized the importance of training for professional growth. She explained:

Basically I have done in the School Management. I've been an administrator in Kenya.

Secondly I am a qualified trained coach; I trained in Hungarian University of Physical

Education. I got my Diploma in, and…I think leadership is all both learned and acquired

and also in-borne. It has to come from you.

Although a majority of the participants indicated they had received numerous training courses in

sports, outside sports, as well as in those areas related to their specific profession, two

participants indicated that they had never received any form of leadership training. Lany felt

there were limited training opportunities offered when she was a sports leader. Her response to

my question on the kind of preparation and training towards her being a leader was; "Barely

nothing, you know you expect that they will be some sports symposia that we do this, do that, I

think that is lacking."

As the owner and manager of one of the most successful non-governmental sports

program in the country, it would be have been expected that Princi would have received

numerous leadership-training opportunities. However, she indicated she had never received any

formal type of leadership training geared towards sports. She explained that she had acquired

most of her leadership training informally, indirectly, through her sports experience, through

125

education, as well as from her teachers and parents, especially the mother. She narrated the following:

> Some of it is indirect. Some of it is direct in terms of the sport. You remember I talked about having got good training after it was, a lot of it was playing with those who were really good and playing as often as possible. Then when it came also to managing my organization, I transferred a lot of those skills from what I had seen my mother do, my education, and also being competitive in and out of class...came to I wanted always to be amongst the top in the class. Also I attribute most of it to my language teachers …we always had a very good language teachers who were very involved in our education, allowing us to speak for ourselves, I think it helped me also to learn to express myself, take charge when I can and that prepares you a lot because one of the things we don't realize is if you want to be successful, you must dominate. ..

When I asked her if she felt like she missed out on anything because of not having received any kind of formal leadership training, Princi replied:

> I don't think I have. I don't feel I missed anything, I think I …I don't want to use instinctively, but I think I learned from experience and then you…where when those things then became available, you already know so much. What is different may be the presentation; it may be different.

Having examined training and professional development experiences of women leaders, I will now discusses how the participants in the study conceptualized themselves, their roles, and responsibilities in their capacity as physical education teachers, sport administrators and as coaches.

Roles and Responsibilities

The fulfillment of roles and responsibilities depends on the institutional support and the cultural context within which the organization functions in terms of human resources, i.e. who do they really want and what purpose would they fulfill? Organizations hire people that they need to fulfill the organization's mission/purpose. Additionally, the organization's settings and

126

structures determine assignment of roles and responsibilities, which could have a profound effect on a person's ability to make or influence decisions in the organization. For example Jill, a high school teacher described herself as an administrator, a communicator, and a teacher, with each of these positions having   defined roles and responsibilities such as mentoring, counseling, and communication, as explained below:

> Right now, with all this I have done, yeah, I would say, I have also been trained in administration… I use sports to mentor these kids…sports have given me a career, and that career has taken me places… And through that am able to channel other charity work, which I have been doing using a game, in my capacity as an administrator to the needy. I am the head in the hockey section, am a communicator, what am I communicating? I am communicating sports …I was able to identify with the parents as a teacher, because as am talking to them I tend to indentify why the kid is not performing- I ask them is it sport, no, what does she do with her leisure time?

Sanyo, a university sports administrator described herself as a teacher, as a coach, and as a sports administrator. The multiplicity of roles required her to carry out responsibilities that were specific to each position, as captured in her response about her roles:

> I am all the three. I am all the three…I am a track and field athletics coach…lecturer because I train coaches. Yeah, I train coaches in athletics. I have been a sports administrator throughout from almost all the institutions I have been running the department. So doing the administrations…the other one a P.E. teacher (Physical Educator) Yeah, that one is me; I always tell people, I eat, sleep and dream sports. So I am all those three in one. One, the most important one is to, I have a consultancy, I have a consultancy institution…that kind of thing and I am into Anti-doping Education. I want to reach out especially, to the young ones. I do a lot of that at school.

Each of these participants clearly defined her leadership roles and the accompanying responsibilities within each organization. It is quite evident from these narratives that the

women leaders were engaged in multiple roles, which they seemed to fulfill as required. The findings in this study showed that women leaders had proved themselves as capable leaders.

Developing new programs for the sport organizations. Some of the assigned responsibilities for the women leaders included developing programs. For example, although she was not expecting it, Lany was appointed to the position of chairperson of Kenya women's [sport] program. She was mandated to develop the women's program in the sport. Pointing to the lack of any form of support, Lany's narrative explained her struggles and strategies that she used to develop a successful program. Her discussion on how this happened follows:

> Because they have told me you are the person in charge; You have to come with tournaments, you have to do this, so I stated just finding out what Tobias used to do because Tobias was there by then, so I just took it a day at a time and down the list of people, I thought I can approach who I have seen on T.V. sponsoring sports, so I just started knocking on doors, and I knocked on doors, so the first sponsorship I got. I am the one who initiated the idea and we never knew when there was a tournament would come. So I started the league and I also started a schools tournament, which was an annual event where we would have all schools invited look for a sponsor and get all schools invited. The first sponsorship I got Kshs. 25,000 to run a league by the time the *siasa (politics)* and everything, by the time I was leaving the last amount I was given was half a million(what?) Yes and I still have that man, a very good friend of mine, and he still asks me "Why don't we see you in hockey?" That is one thing that I think gave me a lot of mileage because I used to fight for the girls, I used to fight for our rights, and I said, "Why do you want us to amalgamate and become one?" Am running my show and am very comfortable with it but I think it's just because money started coming in (oh money started coming)   I had Barclays Bank, Airline, Cocoa Cola, name it, the big Corporate, so every year we would have like five tournaments so our calendar was full.

Similar to Lany, Billie was also mandated to start the women's soccer program in the country. At the time, Billie held her regular job with the airline [name], she was also the treasurer of

128

basketball and yet, she was assigned an extra role of starting the new program.   Through good

planning and organization, Billie was able to scout for players, organize tournaments, secured

sponsorships from corporate bodies, attended international competitions-posting exemplary

results, as narrated here:

> But I was alone because that time being a treasurer of basketball, starting women soccer;
> do you know the first three months we took a team to Ireland. Within one month I had a
> very good team. I got some women with me though we went scouting one month, we
> went everywhere scouting. We went to, do you know where best girls came from,
> Makongeni, yes, Makongeni, Kaloleni, and Shauri Moyo. Even the organizers of KFF
> did not believe. When we came back we took a team to American Airlines competition,
> which was in Texas. We came back... this was in 90s; it was like we had hit the roof.
> We registered as a women's organization. Because of that the constitution of KFF   had
> to change… they were scared of women because we were getting sponsors. You know
> they were not accounting for their teams. So when we went for sponsorship, if we [heard
> of] a sponsorship, we got [it]. They didn't get. When we came back from US it was like
> we had…. I can't believe my countrymen. We had sent a team to the U.S. and we did
> very well. We were number four.

  As one of the only two participants that were in fulltime employment as sports administrators,

Sanyo's greatest responsibility was to set up a number of commonwealth anti- doping body

agencies in a number of countries in Africa. Sanyo described how she successfully managed to

single-handedly pioneer and set up the agencies:

> When I had to set up single handed, you know, and run the Regional Anti-doping
> Organization under the commonwealth, it was a challenge because I was handling ten
> member countries of Eastern Africa, and I had to start from nowhere. Yeah, starting
> with, I was, I had a room you know in the stadium, in Kasarani, and then I had to develop
> everything, education material, you know, all the programs I was dealing with. You
> know setting up a totally New Structure...going to member countries to set up National

Anti-doping Agencies, to train the Doping Control Officer…Just on awareness on anti-doping and even education…So this is a job that I was doing single handed, and then, the other challenge was that I was answerable to three bosses; the Chairman of the Board who was the late…then the Director of WADA Africa Region and that is Rodney, then I had to answer now to my employer, the Commonwealth Secretary…in line with requirements of all these stakeholders. It was important that the Commonwealth had its way; actually the Commonwealth gave the job description.

This illustration by Sanyo is a proof of the women's ability to manage programs of the international magnitude, yet they remain invisible and underrepresented in sports leadership in the country.

Princi was also assigned the role of developing a junior sports program in the country. She narrated how she went about securing sponsorship and getting children across diverse social economic status to play the game [an elite sport]. The result was a vibrant program that saw the improved performance among the junior players in the country. Princi's testimonial is about the commitment, success and exemplary management of sports programs by women leaders in Kenya. Her detailed narration follows:

Someone came to me from the [sport organization]… when I went in, I just do not know why they felt I needed to go in. I was already doing something and was approached. Actually somebody came to [name of school] and asked me if I could, would be interested in developing a junior sport program, and for me, working with young people was my passion. So I went in and first thing I said was... if you really want to build players, you must expose players. And in the time that I got there, we moved from those two tournaments, not only were they sponsored fully and fully, I mean the trophies, and all the other needs - the idea behind that was to make … to create an open field, so the children who came from communities that were poor were able to come in when I reduce the entry fee. So that I decided that we reduce participation fees to 150 shillings from about 400 shillings, which allowed for more groups to come in so we had huge

130

tournaments, very huge attendance and we actually…I even used to host kids who would come outside Nairobi myself, so that they could turn up and play. I got to a point where I actually stopped people from sponsoring it, it went on very well and some of our big tournaments were, was like the [sponsor's name] Open championship…which, which disappeared immediately when I left the sport organization. Some of them just stopped immediately I left. The Kenya Junior Open championship was a success; there were many children that participated in the tournament. It was just unbelievable, and we used clubs that were not traditional...and the other thing that we did was to increase our linkage with international federation so that they would be a lot more tournaments coming to Kenya that outsiders would come in as opposed to us trying to go out, which would make it cheap, aa…some tournaments did come and then what then happened of course, which is, tends to be very typical of Kenya is money started coming… that was a fact , that we were hardly charging anything, the money was coming from sponsorships and we were saving on that so that the coffers for the [sport organization] increased out of junior development. I was outvoted out so that the money would then go to the general account. One of the things I always insisted on was, all money collected had to be banked. You write a budget [and] two you do not get paid because you are donating time.

  Although they have remained invisible, unrecognized and had even been "boxed out" of the programs that they had successfully promoted, the women leaders continued to show determination and commitment to developing sports in the country. In fact, all of these women leaders are still actively engaged in sports at different levels.

Initiating programs. Findings of this study show women leaders as being committed to promoting sports in their various capacities, as indicated in the narratives on how they initiated programs, pioneered in some areas, and that even when appointed to various leadership positions and assigned responsibilities, they had surpassed the expectations.   Evidently, women leaders

131

are committed to developing sports and their narratives clearly attest to the sacrifices made both at the individual and organizational levels.

Lany and Murang'a mentioned some of the sports programs they started for employees at their work places. Also, Billie started and sponsored the women's basketball league, while Princi ran a successful non- profit sport organization for youth. As a former sports person, Lany a 48-year old employee in the [L&H] industry, proposed and managed to convince the management at her workplace to start a sports program, where workers would be actively engaged. Although the program was started for their company alone, the idea became popular with other industry players, leading to the formation of a Sports Association composing of partners within that industry. She said:

So I have been in sports throughout… we went along with this one of the [industry name], I work for that [industry]. We are the ones who started it, we put it together, it's called [name] Sports Association, but also, I have to get you the year that we started, this was me and a few other people from different other places. So we are the pioneers, who started that and I have been in there until I quit the [L&H] industry, since the inception. Yeah… I was still involved in sports organization for the [L&H industry].

When I conceptualized the idea of sports in the organization, I approached the management and tried to convince them…so I told them, it's better to have these workers do you some sporting activities than go out and waste time. So I managed to get a team and I managed to sensitize the management to set up sports activities for the employees. So really, when somebody was going out for games, they were given time out because even I felt an active employee was even better, and that they fell sick less often because their bodies were physically fit. So it made a difference and also because you would mingle and socialize with other people so it also made them look at things differently and became better workers by the way. I tell you the idea that started at our company grew to include other companies and we would hold [sports] competitions. We were competing amongst L&H so even at work now it brought competition, even services improved.

Like Lany, upon being appointed as a CEO in the [stock group], Murang'a quickly introduced sports programs to the company employees. Similarly, she also promoted sport as an important way of workers to socialize with each other, and as a way of increasing employee productivity. She explained:

> You know [stock group], you have 58 companies [after being convinced to join the company], finally I found myself there, but I have got no regret and when I introduced sports in Nairobi Stocks Exchange, each department top competition, it was nice and successful.

Also, after being forced to leave the sports organization where she had successfully developed a junior program, Princi decided to concentrate on developing her own program, which is currently the most successful self sponsored non-governmental youth sports program in Kenya. Princi, a sport administrator, coach and director of a school and a former tennis player in her 40's, manages one of the most successful a non- profit sports program in the country. The program focuses predominantly on youth sports and the training of sports administrators. Princi explained:

> Eventually I got out-voted with that as well, and the pressure got so high that there was no value anymore in continuing. That time I was…I just decided: let me, let me just leave and focus on my program... I proved that it is possible and I've proved that you can actually make money. If you do things correctly, and above board and you are transparent.

Obviously, the women leaders did not just surrender or completely drop out of sports when forced to leave. On the contrary, the ability to start their own programs such as the one developed by Princi is a testament to the women's commitment to sport. Interestingly, as indicated by Princi, she continues to help others develop their own programs, as well as expand her program to incorporate other African regions:

> The more we are… that there are millions of Kenyans; I can tell you I have helped a lot of people there is a big program going on in Kisumu which I helped. I help anyone,

sometimes at my own cost it doesn't matter where as long as you invite me, the other thing that I really would love to see happen is for the [sport]Africa Cup to come up. [Sport] Africa Cup was something that was started as an idea by my own daughter actually. The idea was find a way for young people to get an equal opportunity, but the idea was get an opportunity for people to compete, they can travel and play...I ended up in Uganda because they are running something as well. So you can, you can, all you have to do is invite people follow the rules and you can run a tournament. So any child can get points that can help them get into scholarship. I would love to see it…continue to grow have something that really takes young people somewhere. What I want, I do not want it to be mine; in fact that's like for me…that was not the idea.

Fulfilling athletes' physical and psychological needs. For most of the women leaders, the commitment to sport and the need to see athletes succeed required a lot of sacrifice. Some of the roles and responsibilities of women as coaches, administrators and physical education teachers required them to identify skilled athletes, nurture and develop the necessary physical skills aimed at producing results. In their leadership roles, Lany, Jill and Eva were not just interested in the athletes producing results; rather they took into consideration the athletes' physical and psychological well being. As the chairperson of the women's sports organization, Lany would provide for meals and sometimes accommodation for her teams because a number of them were from poor families as she explained:

Because for me, even when I was training the girls for a major tournament, there is a time I bought mattresses put them at city park when we opened they were given each and I would cook meals for my house, my house girl, so that the girls trained throughout, so I supplied the meals, my house help would cook lunch, and I would pick, feed the girls because we want to be in the same place because some of them were from very poor families, the diet was not good, So we would feed them, in the afternoon the take a nap then they continued with the training. So it took a lot of my time and it was almost interfering with my family but it's only that they understood. I can now tell you my kids

134

hate [the sport] with a passion [because it took their mother away], I used to go to the field with my three children and the maid, they would be fed, because we used to play from Monday to Sunday with Tobias, whether you have children or not that's up to you. Jill also narrated how she went about getting to know her players at individual level and looking for educational scholarships and sponsorship for them. She believed that by providing for their basic needs, players would be in a better frame of mind to play. Jill's passion for sport and sensitivity to the needs of her athletes resulted in the formation of a charitable organization, as she explained:

I also…I use sports, as I use sports to mentor this kids, I always ask God, guide me, the right way, and [to] tell me who do you want me to guide…I mean who do you want me to help in my capacity as an administrator, what I am saying, I am now giving back to the society. That is what am doing, because sports has taken me so many places, sports has given me a …sports has given me …what I can say is that sports has given me a career, and that career has taken me places. So I am giving back so that these kids as they grow they know that they can get a job through sports, very important, earn a living through sports, both people from humble background and people who are able. That's now my song for today. I always say that sports can make a change, sports can bring a smile on your face, sports can put food on your table, and that's one reason as am talking to you it has done to me. And through that am able to channel other charity work, which I have been doing using a game, in my capacity as an administrator to the needy… I have one on one interview with different people, not necessary what they need, the youth of today have issues, and those issues now I use the sports to identify their needs, so I use that sport psychologically to be able to know a student who is not performing well in class, to be able to identify a girl who has problems at home. To be able to identify a girl who has depression. I have helped one girl, name withheld, who was almost committing suicide, using sports. Up to today she is with me, she calls me mummy.

135

As a teacher and coach of students from very poor social economic background, Eva was cognizant of her student-athlete's poor socio-economic situation and decided to host some of them at her own cost and also continuously sacrificed her own funds for school sports activities. She believed that the only way of maximizing her students' potential in academics and sports was through providing them with an environment where their basic needs were fulfilled. In her own words Eva stated:

> Like now [if you] come to my house, am living with six boys from this school, who are poor and they are footballers. Yeah. But that is a sacrifice. Sometimes the school has no money and the team has gotten so many injuries over the weekend as they were playing. On Monday the teacher in charge tells me we got an injury and you can see it's a bad injury, they need treatment and the school doesn't have money. So me I tell you take these three thousand shillings, *patia kila mtu* (give each one Ksh. 1000[one thousand shillings]…). Then you let them go to hospital.

These narratives by Eva, Jill and Lany attest to the sacrifices the women leaders have made, depicting the women leader's nurturing side, which they utilized to produce the best results in their programs. These narratives testify to the important roles and responsibilities that women leaders used to fulfill their various capacities. Most notable is the fact that they were often engaged in multiple activities, with engagement in sports being mostly on voluntary basis, yet when assigned responsibilities, they often surpassed the expectation, thus a testament of women's ability to lead.

Decision-making process. Responses to the question on the levels at which the participants engaged in decision-making process varied. Clearly, the responses showed that a person's place and position within the organization determined levels at which they engaged in decision-making process. Those with long established careers, and high-level positions in sports organizations seemed to influence decisions. For others, their leadership positions were perceived to be for "window-dressing" purposes only, as they were not allowed to contribute to decision-making process within their organizations. Lany, Mumea Bora, Murang'a and Eva

136

were among the respondents whose views were respected and taken into consideration at their various workplaces and also within the sport organizations. Lany, a pioneer of the women's sports association and former chairperson of women's [name] sport explained that as the chairperson of women's sport, she was involved in the decision making and her views were respected. However, things changed when she fell out with the [main organization's] leaders, thus reducing her involvement in decision-making process. She explained:

> Yes, I was the decision maker throughout but what would happen is that sometimes even when you have the final say, you get the input of everybody then you come to a consensus and you move on. But things were quite smooth, we were running a fat account and now the accounts the accounts … are gone, so when they wanted to amalgamate and I refused, I was locked out and could no longer contribute to the decision making process.

Mumea Bora, a retired school administrator with experience in leadership and an authority in her area of sport, was always involved in the decision-making process and she believed that knowledge of the subject matter was critical to the level at which one could be engaged in the decision making process, and she elaborated that:

> …Where I am and where I have been the decisions that have been passed, most of them have been accepted so far. Because first of all you have to prove yourself as an authority in the area and more, more often than not you are used as a reference, for reference, because you might be dealing with people that are knowledgeable in the area of sport. Unfortunately most sports administrators are not sportsmen, and they don't even understand the sports, which reduces their level of engagement in sport. So you are used as a reference point…you have to be ready, to be knowledgeable, so that they can be able to take in what you are saying.

According to Muranga, an educated and retired CEO of a cooperate body, and a leader with over 30 years of experience in the sports organization, education was critical to the level at which one would be engaged in decision making process. As a former CEO, Murang'a brought a lot of

137

experience to the boardroom and that her views were well respected to the extent that her opinion on all issues were always sought and well received. She explained:

Okay, being in the Board as a Board member, you are involved in all decision making regardless, and you are entitled to your opinion and you exercise your freedom of, you express yourself and I like it because I talk on behalf of women [How has it been received?]Well, well, very well and if I keep quiet they realize that, why are you quiet?' So even if I am quiet and I have nothing to say, they feel I should talk. So I am in the Strategic Planning of Athletics Kenya and I am also in the Athletes Awards also, I am also involved in the organizing committee...what do I do? I am also in the organizing committee. So you see, in there they call me when they need in my area. So, but the one I like is the Strategic, you know you plan for the Association; I am the Secretary.

As a school teacher and an executive member of [Main] secondary schools sports association, Eva operates in environments where her colleagues had similar academic credentials, and where everyone was allowed to participate in the discussion with the best opinion being taken. She said: "You know when it comes to decision making, it's normally a discussion. So you are free to air your views.   And if your views are the best, they are taken, we are there many of us we are discussing."

While a majority of the participants indicated active involvement in decision-making process, for others, their views were never sought. In fact, Rose perceived her position as a member of the sport subcommittee to be a "window- dressing" position, where meetings were never called and decisions were made elsewhere and only passed on to the committee to implement. She explained:

When issues arise at the sub-committee level, the sub-committee has got to be invited because this is your field as the sub-committee but then we are never given the opportunity. The Executive sits locks out completely as a sub-committee. Sometimes like now, we are headed to the nationals, Nairobi is hosting the entire soccer sub-

138

committee are supposed to be involved at the preparation both at the grass roots but now

at the national level we are locked out completely.

September also mentioned that as an ex-officio member, her engagement in the decision making process was limited, and that she could only give suggestions to the sports committee. This was quite surprising given her position, and years of experience as an athlete, a coach and now a sports coordinator in the [P] department. September described the levels at which she was engaged in the decision-making process:

No, I am like an ex-officio in all these activities and I can only also give my inputs but

when it came to the decision, the board makes a decision making of course. We have the

Chairman, there is the Secretary…they are the ones who make decisions …mine is to

help implement whatever they have decided.

For some women leaders, their levels of involvement in the decision-making process resulted from their having proved themselves to be formidable competitors in sports. For instance, because of her team's exemplary performance at the national and international sport championships, Ollie's views were respected and always sought after. She said:

I didn't know that from my background I would actually get the best out of them, and I

was one of them, so they just had to get the results. Every year you are taking the trophy,

taking the trophy, taking the trophy. They try to get other ways to frustrate you but you

are always winning, and because of this the NSSSA would always consult me when

making the program for handball. I would be included because I would bring the latest, I

would play a big role in the decision making process, they respected the fact that I could

be able to handle so much. My contributions were taken seriously at all levels it was not

easy though, not everyone was happy, but at some point I almost lost a match because

somebody was determined in beating [defeating]us then I went back and told him to end

it.

Leadership styles. There were diverse responses to the question on leadership styles of women leaders. Generally the findings of the study pointed towards various preferred leadership styles, which included collaborative, situational and democratic leadership styles. Lany pointed out that she preferred participatory/collaborative style of leadership, where everyone was involved; there was respect for the members, and duties were delegated, with each one being held accountable. Ultimately, Lany's goal was in empowering each and every person in the organization. Similar to Lany, Wanyika favored participatory style of leadership where there was respect for individual abilities and that duties were delegated according to a person's skills and abilities. Wanyika also described her style as being hands-on:

> I love people participating… that are how I move on, because if I have to do everything, I can't. I must be lifted up. I give chance to other people. I lead by example because first of all I have to show them. I am a hands-on person when it comes to leadership. Working as a leader, you look at the people who are working, not whose capabilities are higher than the rest. Don't ignore anybody because everybody has a role to play, I respect every body's role. There are things that you just know like this one is capable of doing this. Like in my area of operation as sport, I would rather send that person, but when a person comes, he is good at packaging and everything else, but he is not good at presentation, once it is packed I say please give this story to so and so to do the voicing in the story. So now if I had to decide that day, like sometimes we have this big stories I swap so and so can you let so and so read, because of the impact. So that's how I operate. I look at peoples' capabilities.

Billie preferred the collaborative and/or shared styles, where the emphasis was human relationship development in which everyone was considered as an equal player; respect for one another was promoted, and the reward system was used as a tool of motivating workers. Her style endeared her to the workers, enabling them to confide in her. Likewise, Mumea Bora's leadership style was collaborative, where there was respect of people's abilities, and she believed

140

in harnessing the best out of people to enhance personal development. However, although her style seemed fair, Mumea Bora was emphatic that the goals of the institution were a priority:

> My leadership style is… I am, I don't know how to call it, but I believe in networking, collaborating, listening to somebody, not being judgmental and not taking you from what people take you. I want to look at you from my own perspective, work with you and I am not going to say because Janet, I have been told you are that, that is what you are. I don't manage like that. I work with you, I get what is good in you and I believe in tapping the talents from other people, whatever skill that you have that is something good about you. I take it… I don't use it to fight you. That strength I capitalize I don't have to use it as a fight against you, that's the way I operate and I encourage those who are down there to come up, I don't castigate. You're this; you're that. Because I know we are given different abilities to operate, so I have to give you that leeway and see how I can nurture you to come up…but I also believe in results. I am very, very result oriented because once I put my foot, that this is what I want, it must come, it doesn't matter which way I will go. I must reach to its fruitful conclusion. Yes, the goals that I have set must be achieved; the results must be there. So I don't have to push you too hard about what you can do, being a special needs teacher, because that's my area of specialty. I believe each one of us has got our strength and weakness and we can never be the same. It's only the rate at which that we are learning and accomplishing the…That is different. So if I push you too hard, I might break you. So I must see how you do go and how far can you go, you can't go beyond your limits.

As a school-teacher, Eva stated that her style was innovative and democratic- where she allowed some degree of independence to those under her charge. However, she pointed out that her work-place environment sort of skewed her towards a style of leadership where she had to constantly consult with the school principal and colleagues:

> ..Innovative, democratic, you don't just make a decision and implement it before you consult… before I consult with the Principal. I think we need to do things this way

141

because I have got teachers who are under me in sports, ok, and I also give them the…
once I have given you football, that is your team, I will not follow you where you are
going to play and start monitoring you to see what you are doing. You should be
independent and you should know how to make decisions but it is good that you to
consult me.

Although she preferred styles that resonated with those of Billie, Mumea Bora and Lany, which
embraced democracy, collaboration, and human relationship, Murang'a stated that the leadership
style was determined by the people and context and that she approached each situation
differently. For example, when she was with the athletes, her leadership style would be different
from the one used when she was in the executive board meetings. She also pointed out the need
to be cognizant of different cultures when engaging in leadership, hence the need for leaders to
adopt their leadership style accordingly.

The situational type of leadership was also supported by 58 year old September, a
military officer who confirmed that while her military work environment called for more
authoritarian style of leadership, as a sports coach, she considered participation in sport to be a
voluntary activity, which called for a more collaborative and democratic styles of leadership:

We have mixed qualities being ... In a disciplined force like this one makes you go
autocratic. Yes, but since now you see sports is voluntary, you have to be democratic.
You have to accommodate views. You have to accommodate participation ... There are
times that you got to get tough on your decision (yeah) there is a time when you have to
be flexible and listen to others and accommodate their view.

Similar to September, although she considered her style as being predominantly democratic,
Ollie stated that the environment or existing situations dictated the type of style to apply:

Of course I am very democratic. I give them [student athletes] freedom. And then
democracy can… I don't prescribe to them what to do… in fact in terms of even coming
up with a program because we know what our results [program expectations] should be,
and people work, they have a lot of freedom. The get democratic but then there are

situations that I have to be autocratic in terms of maybe use of funds and all that. Just as to be one way democratic. In fact, in terms of the selection of the team you know who goes, who plays, and who is going to Sweden. As much as I know what we should take out there of those because I know the standards of game… there are times I had to make some decisions… I had a GK who was good but she was not working so well with the rest of the team…so when we were selecting the team, the team...I replaced her with GK number two…that girl played better than the goalkeeper number one. She played so well, now she is in the armed forces. She had always been goal-keeper number 2… but I had to make that decision...

Although she provided leeway for her student athletes, Ollie's narrative shows the need for leaders to be cognizant of their context and make decisions accordingly- applying the situational style of leadership. Although Sanyo favored participatory and consultation, where she incorporated everyone's ideas, she pointed out she strictly adhered to the principle of stringent time management, and work had to be completed within specified deadlines. She explained:

When we sit and I give them our vision, our mission, then I want to hear what…then I get their opinion, get their opinion, then after that, having picked that I tell them the way I think it should be…use what they have and then I summarize it and give it the direction. Because usually, by the time I am bringing it out, I have already thought about it and I look at options but you bring them in, in a way you will incorporate what they have but you also don't want them to drag you. When you have a project, you want the project to move, that is my red blood…want that project to move and if I think it's not going to move then I keep it up myself and I get it going, I ignore, I get it going, it is, it is ours but once I have finished, then I tell them this is what I wanted us to do. Now you can look at it and want to read whatever I did, because I always feel that am …I am stickler for deadlines and sometimes I feel you are, you are dragging me and I am not moving the way I want to. So I will give you the opportunity but if you don't do it, I will do it myself. Your weakness but it makes me move things, and especially in sports, in sports,

143

you really have to move if…it goes ehh. You give other people an opportunity to…they

lay you aside anyway, just set you aside, so the best thing is to move and be on your toes,

be always ahead if possible, they say, yeah, we are doing this and sports, what are you

doing? This is what we have.

<center>**Challenges and Strategies**</center>

The responses to the question on challenges that women in sport leadership faced yielded

a number of responses that have been categorized into three areas: Individual, relational, and

organizational challenges.

Individual Challenges

Gender role socialization, as well as gender-stereotyped environments were blamed for

the perpetuation of beliefs that women are not suited for leadership. Among the challenges

mentioned in this study were: Lack of confidence, family-work conflict, and involvement in

multiple roles.

Lack of confidence. A majority of the participants mentioned that lack of confidence

inhibited women from going for leadership positions and that whenever women decided to vie

for leadership positions, they would often go for lesser positions. This is illustrated in the

following quotations from the participants.

Women don't go out for those [superior] positions. That is one weakness for women.

They don't go for those positions, and those ones who are bold enough to go for those

positions, they go for lesser positions. Like now, a woman would not go out and say I

want to be the Chairperson of Kenya Volleyball Federation or Kenya Football

Federation, they will not. They will say these men they are sitting on us. EVA

Eva further explained that by going for lesser positions, women ended up competing for the same

positions, thus reducing their leadership opportunities and leaving more lucrative positions for

men. She indicated that:

I mean, women will go for a position of women representative, that one, because then

they will have no issue with men,   or a member of the Executive or Assistant Secretary

<center>144</center>

or Vice Chair. You know, or Assistant Treasurer or something like that, they will not go

for the top position.

Ollie's narrative shows that self-doubt tended to limit women in their choice of leadership

positions, opting for lesser positions. Ollie said:

At that point I never thought I would go for that position, because when they were asking

for suggestions-how do you want this team, I decided to go for the vice- chair the second

place. Maybe at the point you are still doubting your capabilities, can I do this?... so I

was able to do it and then now when I see it, I've been doing it but still have that doubt

at the back of your mind – can I manage Rift Valley, Rift Valley is one of the largest

provinces in the country. But now having come to where I am, I can go places… I am

able to take on bigger responsibilities.

Failure to present themselves for leadership positions implied that women were making

themselves invisible. Mumea Bora emphasized the need for women leaders to be visible by

presenting themselves to voters for elective positions. She explained:

 How will somebody elect you if they don't go for the position … you…they must know

you so you must make yourself known, visible and you have to work to proove that if

they give you that position, you are going to be functional; but we, women, like to lie low

and then we are our own enemies, that's another thing.

Despite the intensified advocacy for increased coverage of women sports by media, findings of

this study show women as contributing to their own invisibility in sports leadership. Wanyika's

narrative on her experiences as a sport journalist illustrated how women leaders tended to be

"media shy". She pointed out that women leaders were reluctant to be interviewed by the media

and that when invited for interviews; they would send their male assistants to represent them.

This type of self- created invisibility denied women leaders a chance to publicly articulate their

agenda; instead, they inadvertently promoted the men. Wanyika narrated the following:

You invite women leaders to come for an interview and they shy off and they will

suggest that you get a man to come and do the interview. I say, "Why not?" I want you

because you are the chairman or the secretary, "I don't want your assistant" Why? Because they will play around with you, they will disappear, and then before you hear it now the man calls you and saying "I hear you want so and so, she wants me to come for an interview." So you know that lack of confidence and drive; it doesn't expose them, the men get more exposed than the women, yeah exactly, the men are more visible, we are not visible because we shy away, and I don't believe why we shy away and yet you are serving that position. If you are the chairman of the federation, you are the chairman. I don't need your secretary or your vice chair, I want you to tell me your agenda in that federation. Give me your blue print, when you are telling me an assistant, your assistant won't be able, because you were elected in that position. So that's one thing that makes me really disappointed.

As one of the country's high-ranking female sport leaders, Billie's statement about her determination to keep a low profile and unwillingness to interview with the media confirmed Wanyika's testament about the reluctance of women leaders to use the media to promote their interests. For example, Billie explained:

One day they [media] approached me to put my story in the newspaper, I said I don't want , I said no   because …actually in my life I don't like publicity hence, a little publicity I think is more than enough. I like to be on the ground.

Family-work conflicts. Previous studies show family- work conflicts to be one of the major issues that woman leaders have to deal with on a daily basis. These conflicts mainly occurred because of lack of support by spouse, extended absences from home, and maternity leave/ motherhood.   The career woman-wife-mother always strives to create a balance between her work and family. Like any other worker, women are committed to their work and are determined to succeed in all their undertakings. For most women, this has proved to be quite challenging as indicated by participants in this study. As a newly deployed high school teacher, Rose, a 49 year old mother and wife was enthusiastic about getting her programs started in the

school, and commitment to work and the desire for excellent sports results almost cost her marriage. She recalled:

> I was coaching athletics and I went ahead and I introduced all the games that could be introduced… basketball, volleyball, netball and… much later handball and I was able to handle them effectively and I remember my marriage was almost breaking. Because I gave very little attention to my marriage and family …I was practically out every weekend … and you know how demanding it can be… so practically all evenings, I arrived late…then practically, all weekend, I was out and it was very challenging with the family and having children.

 A number of women that have managed to stay in sport often attribute it to the support they get from their spouses. The absence of support from one's spouse could impede one's engagement in sport. Eva, a high school physical education teacher, explained that her spouse never supported her participating in sport and even threatened her with divorce. She said:

> My spouse was always against that [participating in sport], that I leave him children to go away, he was always against. In fact there was a time I went to Mombasa for sports and he left the children on their own. I don't know what he thought; maybe he thought by doing that it would stop me from going for sports. All along he has been very negative.

September pointed out that lengthy absence could be challenging for women that participate in sport, especially in cases where the spouse did not understand, and that often, the society interpreted it as lack of care for the family. Teresa also pointed out that frequent and lengthy absences from home were bound to create problems within the family. She said:

> The challenges I have encountered; I started teaching while I was in a family, having my own family. The challenges the most challenge being an escort [accompanying athletes to sports events], being away from home many times, from home-my family.

In order to continue engaging in sports, some of participants in this study would have their children accompany them to all the sporting meets, serving as a way of maintaining the balance between caring for the family, and engaging in sport. While this strategy ensured they

147

participated in the upbringing of their children, in their narratives, Billie and Lany expressed how their children became averse to the sports that they considered to be taking their mothers away from them:

> Even I don't think my children have a passion for it, but with them, they think sport has robbed them of a mother because I am hardly there. I have just come from Greece. BILLIE

> So it took a lot of my time and it was almost interfering with my family but it's only that they understood. I can now tell you my kids hate hockey with a passion, [because it took away their mum], I used to go to the field with my three children and the maid, they would be fed, because we used to play from Monday to Sunday with Tobias, whether you have children or not that's up to you. LANY

The family-sports-work dilemma often resulted in women having to make choices based on their family values; and often based on the traditional gender roles, where child rearing and caring roles belonged to the women, particularly in the post-colonial state of affairs in Kenya. Usually, the natural decision by women would be to drop out of sports as explained by Murang'a:

> It is not very easy because if your husband does not understand, you will decide two things, either to continue working in sports or continue sacrificing the family or marriage…you know it. So it is not easy, easy, there are women who would like to be in leadership of sports. They also love to be with their families so majority will drop out in the process.

Organizations often base their promotion on experience, as well as on the duration or length of service at the workplace. Career breaks that result from maternity leave have been found to negatively affect women's progress into leadership as noted by Wanyika "…especially when you [have] given birth, when you are home on maternity, so many things pass you, your movement, progress [career] is curtailed a bit"

Multiple roles. Most of the women leaders interviewed in this study indicated they had to handle multiple roles of career-women, mother, wife and volunteers in sports organizations. Involvement in multiple roles was an issue that required a delicate balance between family, career, as well as with volunteer work. In some cases, though they claimed to manage all the roles quite well, I could discern feelings of guilt about the lengthy absences from their children. Eva said:

> When my children were still young, they would come and not find me in the house. You go out of Nairobi, you leave the children with the house girl and you know others we are very cautious, you are never settled where you are. You have left your children with the house girl you are never settled...

The responsibilities required of women leaders in their multiple roles presented women with the dilemma of choice. For example, although she loved sports and was determined to see her teams excel, the emphasis on academic performance by the school management forced Rose to make choices between her job and sports. She explained:

> Women have so many other roles. One, you are a mother, you are having ailing children maybe complications and probably you are in school at that time. So you find it difficult to comprise your studies sometimes it's actually your workmates or employer like most Saturdays, there is tuition going on and some force you into doing tuition, into staying in school even if you had liked sports, it was either sports or your job, yeah, your job. So it's either you lose your job and go ahead with sports or you retain your job and you get going and most of the times [you have to choose] because it's our job.

As indicated by Rose, when presented with a choice between sports and a job, a lot of people are likely to choose the job over sports. Since sport is both a voluntary and expensive activity, lack of finances prevents women that may be willing to volunteer their time and money from taking up leadership or voluntary positions in sport. This, according to Murang'a, results in underrepresentation of women in leadership positions in sports. Murang'a said:

To me… if people are not well up [lack financial stability] in Kenya, even if you might

be having leadership skills and because sport is voluntary, You tend to spend a lot of

money of your own so you are not well up. You tend to say: "Hey, is it sports or my

family?"

Corroborating Murang'a's statement on lack of finances as an impediment to those women that

could be willing to volunteer for leadership positions, Billie further emphasized that   sports

leadership required one to have a passion and will to serve. She pointed out that:

 Like at the National Olympic Committee of Kenya (NOCK) I don't have any women, I

struggle for them to come they don't have that passion I tell you, because there is no

money in it. This is voluntary and when you have a job, a paying job, and you have to do

voluntary job...it might not work, but [also]the passion has to be there…if it is not then

you cannot serve [as a volunteer].

Both Billie and Murang'a had well established business and good financial basis, which allowed

them time and ability to volunteer in sports. From their perspective, it was impossible for most

women leaders to afford both time and money, thus the unwillingness to present themselves for

leadership positions in sports.

Relational Challenges

Relational challenges are those that result from interaction with other people in different

environments as influenced by the society expectations, as well as by perceptions of others.

Themes discovered in this theme include: discriminatory allocation of roles; isolation; women as

their own enemies, male ego and gender stereotypes; and unsafe working environment and

cultural beliefs and traditional practices.

Discriminatory allocation of leadership positions. There was a feeling among

participants that leadership positions allocated favored men. Co-opting women into leadership

positions was seen as an exercise that marginalized women and denied them opportunities to be

involved in decision making. The following quotation from Mumea Bora explains the situation:

When you are co-opted, "you don't have any voting power. You don't even seat in the

Executive, so what am I in that, it is just window dressing. I don't want to be window

dressed, I want to also make policies, move in that organization by making decisions."

There was also preferential allocation of roles- favoring men. Sanyo noted that "When… if it

comes to leadership positions. Oh, my God! They want it to be men picking first, then the

women can be given."

Failure to present themselves for leadership, clustering in the same positions during

elections- positions that men were also interested in, subsequently raised competition levels for

the position, resulting in very few women ever getting to be elected into leadership. Eva stated:

But you see the men also want those Assistant, Assistant, Assistant, so the women now

find themselves getting very few positions. And then where there must be a woman, now

the people, the men who have been elected, they have really fought for those positions

now they say lets co-opt a woman. Yes, so that they look like, "we look like we are

what...we are gender-sensitive, so that we are not accused of sidelining women."

Additionally, although co-opting of women is intended to create gender balance within

organizations, a co-opted member lacked the power to participate in the decision making

process.

Isolating women. The preferential allocation of leadership roles and positions is one of

the techniques used to isolate women from leadership positions. A number of other isolation

techniques included time and the location of meetings; being forced out; undermining and

slandering, as well as lack of transparent elections. The following accounts from six women

leaders demonstrate the unconventional methods used to lock out women from leadership

positions:

You are not there; they meet at midnight. They make sure they meet at midnight. When

the women are not able to meet with them, if you find some of us going for those

meetings at midnight, we have defied all odds to go for those meetings. When you are

there at midnight they say ah, this one who can come here at midnight, they will give

151

[allocate] the position they want, they will create the position for you, they will not give you the position you want. EVA

The meetings held during odd hours and in unconventional places were meant to discourage women leaders from vying for positions of leadership, enhancing the "old boy's network" and denying women information. Billie elaborates:

That time men are sitting in a bar, discussing what next step to take and they expect women to be with them, and it's not possible, that type of social gathering, the women cannot…manage to meet at that time… but women they are not social the way they get. Also men are too domineering, they are too, and you must show them that you can do better than them.

In some instances, although the women leaders posted exemplary performances in various sports, they were often denied a chance to accompany teams on trips. In most cases, women were only appointed to accompany teams because of the organizations' rules requiring female chaperon to accompany female athletes. Also, the need to control money and honorarium and greed were seen as the motivation for men wanting to isolate women. Rose explained:

And you can even imagine as a girls' school, you expect when your team does well even in athletics, you are supposed to be there with them. You can maybe send about twelve girls to the nationals and you are not there, somebody else goes there [accompanies the team]. So those are some of the challenges we get in the province and the chances you are as officials are very few and maybe this is because of the monetary aspect and so when you go, you're given time... I've discovered that there is some honorarium and even as team manager and all those areas. So they would lock out women. Majority of women would be locked out; they would pick one chaperone when they went to Uganda. Only women who went to Uganda, went by virtue of the rule that it it's a girls' team, a woman must accompany the team. So they found themselves, all the officials who were officiating were men.

Lack of transparency and corruption discouraged women from vying for leadership positions. Rose gave a vivid illustration of the process of corruption during elections. She explained as follows:

> But I must also say that during such meetings there is a lot of corruption. There is a of bribing prior to the election date so you are taken out, you are given *nyama choma* (roast meat) you are given hand outs, compromised before the, the elections so when you come in, there is always a lineup, a lineup that has already been given and in this line up women are either in the sub committees or they are there in the Executive members. So because you have eaten[accepted a bribe] somebody's money and drunk somebody's beer, you end up voting for that line that they want and maybe that is why women have not been able to lead.

It is quite obvious that women found it impossible to operate under such corruptible environments and within dysfunctional organizations, patronized by long-serving members keen on protecting status quo.

Undermining and slandering. Findings from this study showed a number of women leaders succeeding beyond expectations in their assigned roles. Yet, instead of being commended and rewarded for their efforts, women were consistently discredited. Princi, Mumea Bora, Wanyika and Lany described the methods used to sabotage their efforts and set them up for failure. For example:

> We were hardly charging anything, the money was coming from sponsorships and we were saving on that so that the coffers for [the sport] increased out of junior development. I was voted out so that the money would then go to the general account. One of the things I always insisted on was, all money collected had to be banked and that you write a budget, [and] two you do not get paid because you are donating time. You must be a volunteer. Otherwise what then happens was you come, you start to think that...you must be paid for everything and it starts with simple things and then it becomes very

complicated. So I, I refused. Eventually I got voted out with that as well and the pressure

got so high that there was no value anymore in continuing. PRINCI

Mumea Bora narrated how her colleagues sabotaged her activities and programs with the

intention of making her fail. For Mumea Bora, it was a case of one woman against men, and that

she was not granted any hearing by the IOC when she was accused of being ineffective resulting

in her losing the position. She narrated:

> What is left was for teachers [to] go on strike, [there were] no more games, [that is] what
>
> they wanted, [So that you fail?]Yeah, there is sabotage. Your report, what it is going to
>
> say games/sports, were not completed and at that time when games are not completed...
>
> and there was only one game left to determine a winner and you were supposed to be
>
> selecting a team for the national events. I left …there and the only reason was you are
>
> being too nosy…others are… sign this thing, if I sign am I…how is it[money] being
>
> spent? Then because of your position, there are a lot of trips out of the country where
>
> you are going for meetings they don't even give you money. When you are going you
>
> are using your own money, you are not paid there, but because of those trips, I was
>
> fought as a National Director, when I had worked and more so when the salary for the
>
> National Director had come, they never allowed me to get it, they decided to replace me.
>
> The report that went there [to IOC] was I had spent the money, that is a report they sent
>
> to the International Olympic Committee surprisingly, even IOC, also believed them.

Although women have proved themselves as being capable of leading- with a significant number

holding leadership position on merit, there are those that are still doubtful of women as capable

of acquiring leadership positions on pure merit as evidenced by Wanyika's statement that: "The

slandering comes with the claims that a woman in sports has been moving around with the

people in position to give her the appointment."

Narrating her personal experiences, Lany described the extent to which men would go in trying

to disqualify her from leadership and force her to cede the women's organization to be under the

umbrella sports body, which was managed by men. She pointed out:

154

They wanted the women's association to amalgamate under the main sports body… I said "I don't do things like that"… so I just refused and in fact the late [named person] really, really went round and tried to malign my name, but am a very proud woman, and not interested, do what you want to do. So it's not been easy. Look at; even, just look at the sports bodies that we have here.

Women as their own enemies. All the participants unanimously stated that women were their own enemies. This was manifested in the lack of support for each other, being compromised to vote for men, fighting each other and being pitied against each other, as indicated by the following statements from six participants: Eva noted that women were easily compromised to vote for men during elections because they were reluctant to vote for fellow women. She said "The women also, I don't know what it is that amm, they don't like their own, they would not vote for their own."

Wanyika explained that instead of supporting each other, women would fight each other, with some showing preferring to elect male leaders, hence males dominated leadership positions. Similar to Wanyika, Mumea Bora noted that whenever women fought each other for the same position, men would take advantage and use women to fight each other – leaving the men to secure leadership positions:

If I, as Mumea Bora is being elected in that position, am elected, then it means you are going to go behind me and say, you know what, she is this and that and that and that. And you are going to be used to fight me rather than getting into another post. So when elections come, you also just want my position. So we all heap on that very post and we leave men to continue moving on. Why don't you get into another position and vie with that man so that I can vote for you?

Sanyo blamed lack of support of fellow women to feelings of insecurity as well as being afraid of challenges, as shown below:

We are our own challenges and enemies. Sometimes, when a lady gets something, they are the women, start fighting and in most case those women who will fight their fellow

155

women, are those that are not adequately exposed. Those who feel insecure, either they are venturing into an area that is not theirs or they know the only way to get it is to be getting a favor… and also they have to now put aside anybody who's a challenge to them. So the men use them to fight the ladies that they feel are a challenge to them. So we become out own enemies, yeah. But the day we will realize that we work together as women consolidated with help one another, it will be so, so good!

Speaking from personal experience as the chair of [the women sport], Lany's struggles to keep the association under the leadership of women and her subsequent departure from leadership was blamed on the ability of men to use other women and girls to dislodge her:

…Because they had the muscle power in terms of money, I … they called a meeting, and said Lany if you refuse to join us then just leave this, I said I can't leave it. So they put the girls. They called for a meeting and they were bribed made to sign yes, they don't want Kenya Ladies Hockey Association… Yes, that is just how it went, there was nothing, because I tried to go to the ministry of sports, but the girls signed, and they have no policies in place.

Instead of providing support and resisting male invasion of the women sport, Lany further explained how a fellow woman was chosen to replace her. She stated that:

And you see we are our own worst enemies. So the vice chairman's seat that I was asking them to give me   is what she wanted since she could dance to their tunes, they gave it to her. Yeah. She is not being of any value to anybody. You see we are our own worst enemies.

The participants were concerned that the infighting denied women leadership positions and it resulted in the collapse of the women sports as described by Billie:

[In order] to bring us down… we had to go for election, see now you are being elected by KFF offices, so now they got this lady… and you know she was from Seychelles. She was not even a Kenyan...Yes she won because you know she had the KFF backing, with us we didn't have. We said: it's ok; let's see how far she can run. That is how football in

Kenya has died. Women football in Kenya died, it has not survived.   After three

months… you start something with a passion; you know where you are starting and

where you are going...then this.

Although all of the women interviewed indicated women were their own enemies, the following

extended interview with Eva on her experience when vying for leadership within the teachers'

cooperative organization could be a pointer to the changing trends, where women realize the

power that is inherent within them when they unite to support their own. Eva narrated:

Eva: In Nairobi, but you know women we are enemies of ourselves. Like now today, if I tell

you that we vote for [name] as President of Kenya. Will you agree with me? You will

have very many reasons why you don't want to vote for her. Isn't it? Very many reasons,

yet she is a woman like us. We are supposed to support her to become the President of

this country. And she has come out outright, you know she is bold enough to come out

and say   I want that position. And me I like such women, go out for such positions, and

say I want this position and let the people vote for you. But you see the women we are the

persons who start discouraging even our husbands, *usimpigie huyo kura* (don't vote for

her). That is one thing also. Women we are enemies of ourselves, but I think the trend is

now changing. I saw when we went for our Mwalimu election (and the kind of support

you got) the women really supported and even the men joined them to support the two

women. We were the only two women who were vying.

Janet: Among how many men?

Eva: Nine candidates. We were two ladies and seven men.

Janet: But you got the votes, both of you?

Eva: But we got the highest votes, the two of us got the highest votes and we were looking for

four delegates, so we took the one with the highest, 2nd highest,3rd highest, 4th highest

a then the rest *wakabaki* (remained).

Janet: You need to encourage them.

Eva: And even if you look at our Nairobi committee we are more. We are ten; out of the ten, six are women, four are men. So we are at least in Nairobi, we are breaking the jinx. But other provinces, *bado wako nyuma* (have been left behind), because I saw when we had our All Delegates Meeting, all delegates from other branches coming, you look at the list, I wish I had carried the list   so that you go with it as evidence. You see Nairobi we have got six women, four men, the other branches, there are even branches where there is no lady.

Male ego and gender stereotypes. Most of the challenges that women leaders faced in sport pointed to the male ego and gender stereotypes. In her response on the challenges experienced in leadership, Rose blamed male chauvinism; "No it is the chauvinism, male chauvinism, a man feeling I am the man, I am the one who is supposed to be there." Also, as a leader of one of the Professional sport organization in Africa, Princi was constantly challenged and questioned by men:

 Africa is dominated by men, [and] so when you are running programs you are constantly being challenged by men; they are always having this question of who are you anyway, you demonstrate stuff, they watch you play and say you can't be that good that they look at your body structure and think, I am stronger than you, I am bigger than you, I am faster than you; there is always the question mark. So that is always a challenge the male ego. You meet it even as, as the head pro...here that question mark. I've met it in rugby, we had a performance partners for the Kenya Rugby and I started off this fitness and training program for the national team…and the challenges that I had even then, was they… they then went to a different place because of the woman being in charge of the program here..

Male domination was also seen as a problem and one participant expressed that men were "too domineering [and that for women] you must show them that you can do better than them"
In addition to being fought from all angles, men were reported as taking credit for women's ideas, which made women appear invisible and incapable of contributing to the decision making process. September narrated that:

Mainly, when it comes to decision-making that as a woman, you cannot make a decision it is the men who make a decision… when you are among men, women are never heard. Your decision or your suggestion is always a second thought… always gives men a first thought [priority], a woman the second and even if they are going to buy your idea, they will make sure they twist it to be their own. (Laughter) Yeah. They will twist it to be their own, they will not come and say, 'OK September has come up with that idea and we are taking it'. No, it will always come that they just say the committee; the committee have decided.

Whenever women presented themselves for leadership positions, there were so many forces against them. Discouraging women from presenting themselves for leadership positions was also seen as a tactic used by men to ensure male domination as explained by Wanyika:

…Personally I believe, I mean it is a real challenge in this country, and they will try to discourage you, like when you are going for a position, somebody really … they will always tell you can you step down. So when a woman has set herself to do something, they will even try to convince you before you even start, [show interest] if they are interested.

The male ego manifested in the decision making processes where all the decisions and fixtures for women soccer subcommittee were done by the men subcommittee, which enhanced the domineering syndrome and further marginalized women leaders. Rose elaborated:

Now two years competitions have come to an end, we only had one meeting. Even in the meeting, we were not able to address issues that were affecting the past soccer per se. We just came in to address the issues of third round. When we played third round and who are the teams that have qualified? We don't make the fixtures together, the boys make the fixture and they give the girls soccer and we go ahead and play the fixtures.

Cultural beliefs and traditional practices. Although the African traditional women were empowered in their own way, western practices brought by colonialism promoted the subordination of women. In this regard, leadership positions were assigned to men, and women

159

were seen as being incapable of offering leadership. The beliefs that defined the women's place as being "private", which were accepted as a way of life were successfully used to deny women the chance to lead. Clearly, the post-colonial influences in Africa have had their impact on social, political, religious practices as well as sports. For instance, women leaders were hardly chosen as the team managers of the national team as it was considered as culturally inappropriate as explained by Murang'a:

> It's the same; it's hard to, to make them really appoint a Team Manager as a woman. I have to really make a lot of noise. And you know why, ahaa…they say there is still that culture, we carried, that athletes are going to a battle and when men are going for a battle, they have to have a general. And the general must be a man! That is where the myth is. So mostly we get women appointed Managers to smaller competitions. But not the major competitions, simply because of that and I understand. Because even they believe; we are going for a battle and we have to have a general. It's their culture. You know in our culture, even yours, women don't lead. So if that is carried still, they feel, they feel they should have a man. They don't have an assistant team manager, a woman, but they want a man as a leader, because, when they are going to competitions, it's not a competition, it's a battle. It's a battle-field, and I respect their, their way.

Lany explained how the cultural conditioning on the type of sport (male-female) dictated the allocation of leadership positions:

> You see now, you have initiated this idea but as much as you, sportswomen are there but when you are talking of men and sports and you are talking of football and they had not taken women football seriously, so sincerely they think a man must lead and since you were being voted in, this was through voting and we are coming up with this we set it up, and here it is. We want the Chairman; we want the Vice. Both Chairman and vice were men.

The perception of sex as a taboo subject adversely affects women and girls in sports. Cases of sexual harassment, as well as sexual abuse went unreported and that when athletes resisted

160

sexual advances, they were dismissed from sport as earlier elucidated by Mumea Bora on the sexual harassment experiences of one of Kenya's top female athlete. The women leaders felt that this was a situation that could have been avoided if there were women leaders and protection policies in that federation.

The western /European cultural practices that defined women's place as being domestic prevented them from engaging in certain activities such as sport, work or even vying for leadership positions. For Princi, a scientist in her 40's, cultural expectations of a married woman, which were western oriented, challenged her marriage at the initial stages:

> The beginning of my marriage, it was a problem. I married a husband who wanted a wife. First he admires you for playing; he comes to watch you play on the court. When he marries you, he wants you at home. Extremely, he was, he was very traditional about that, which to me was very surprising. My mother had to intervene…my daughter is not one of those… just expect that she's not going to be home when you expect her to be home, you sort yourself out. It was difficult at first…

Mumea Bora also mentioned gender–role expectations and the place of a woman in society as challenges for women in sport. In addition to the cultural definition of the place of women, slander and negative perceptions of women negatively affected women in sport. Furthermore, Mumea Bora noted that all these seemed to overshadow the achievements and progress made by women:

> Yeah, then I am supposed to be the woman at home, feed my children, there is a certain time, I am supposed to be back home. So if I am out and until very late, you'll have the men say, *'Huyu mwanamke anafanya nini nje saahizi, anapikia watoto wake saa ngapi na bwanake?* (Why does this woman come home late, when does she cook for her children and spouse? Or some will start *aaa….huyo mume alioa mwanamke yupi huyu?* (What kind of woman did this man marry?) And she is ever drinking with men in bars. Malice so you …you are inhibited on where to be and when to be, with whom are you associating with, whom are you seeing, it must be your…your movements are inhibited,

somehow …mmmm we also…we have talked of the weaker sex. So they believe that there are some sports that women cannot do that only men can do, like the hammer throw, like that…there are things women cannot do but now women are doing them. We can now do them. Actually we cannot totally say that Kenya we are not growing as women. There is a lot of recognition, but our credentials are never accepted. A woman is never seen as somebody who can come and even lead a team. There are some teams like when you are going for Olympics and you say it's a woman who is supposed to be Chef-de-mission. You are told she'll not manage.

Organizational Challenges

Generally, the organizational structures under which women operate in on a daily basis contribute to the under-representation of women in sport leadership. Although some institutions have support structures in place, a lot of other organizations still uphold policies that may inadvertently discourage women from taking up leadership positions.   In this study, the major organizational challenges included; male domination, organization's culture, lack of laws and policies, the merger of men-women sports, resistance to change, lack of recognition and promotion, unsafe environments and lack of social support and funding

Male domination. Male domination in sport organizations was seen as being a major challenge to women leaders in sport. Generally, the study showed that few women were elected to leadership positions in sports organizations, and there were perceptions that leadership positions belonged to men, and that female athletes and women leaders were likely to become vulnerable under male managers as the following quotations indicate:

We have got Executives from other Provinces where there are no ladies or maybe one lady. Like Central, they only have one lady in their Executive and Kenya Secondary Schools Sports Association; there are only two ladies in the National body now. It has only two ladies. EVA

But you see I am sure you have attended our meetings here in secondary schools, what happens? Who is the chairperson? Who are the secretaries; who were even in the games, hockey, basketball, swimming; they are all men. THERESA

Sports leadership remained male dominated at all levels of governance because very few women attended election meetings at the zonal, district and provincial levels. Rose and Ollie explained:

Yes we do and we compete. Like during A.G.M, we nominate, we present ourselves we are nominated, then we are voted for … but…we are always out-numbered. The men come to the meeting more than the women. ROSE

Interestingly, for a while I would be the only female there. We didn't have people going to sports. Because we had very few people of that level, somebody who you can even exchange ideas with, and you are calling for a zonal meeting for the coaches and you are the only female. Even within my institution, when I now try to think, out of around ten sports being taken in that school; there was only me and the other lady. The other lady had a[sports] background, she and I were actively involved in sport. At zonal level I would find I am the only one. Moving on to the districts, you would find maybe two of you [women] out of around maybe thirty men, then when the team is going for [progressed to] the provincial games you might find you are the only one again among men. We were very few. OLLIE

September noted that operating in a male dominated environment could be challenging as a result of which women would drop out of leadership positions. She explained:

It is a bit challenging, because in our society, working as a sports co-coordinator, and when the men are the majority is a bit challenging. If you are not careful, you might give up. You might give up if you are not strong enough yeah, you might give up...there are those who will appreciate you for what you are doing; there are those who feel that you know you are occupying a place where they are the ones who are supposed to be. So you

163

have to face all those challenges and those who are just, who'll just do things to

undermine you! Just to annoy you and see how you are going to react.

Since the organizations were male dominated, female athletes lacked female role models or a

person that they could confide in. In fact, the lack of a female leader on one of the youth sports

trips outside the country was blamed for the problems that arose at the sports village – resulting

in the Kenyan team to prematurely withdraw from the tournament. Jill explained:

For example, in the under 21, we didn't put in a lady team manager, the physiotherapist

was a man. So this thing affected the girls. That's why there was a problem there, the

under 21, there was no female managers. How do you put a man? Our children

misbehaved. How do you put a man as a team manager, does not   should be able, should

be a person that is young. There small *totos* (children), we need to nurture them the

mother has trusted you that you are the one who is going to take care of this child. When

you fail then it means you have failed in your leadership.

Merger of men and women sports. The history of women in sports shows how women

sports excelled when they were managed as separate entities from those of men. In Kenya,

participants narrated how women managed effectively some sports such as women's hockey and

football [soccer]. However, despite the exemplary management and performance by the

women's bodies, both Kenya Football Federation and the Kenya Hockey Union decided to

merge women sports with those of men. Although the mergers were intended to strengthen the

sports bodies, they adversely affected women sports. For example, in the 1990's Kenya Ladies

Hockey Association (KLHA) was one of best-managed women's program in the country, where

women-only activities were hosted and they attracted a lot of corporate sponsorship. However,

the merger with the Kenya Hockey Union destroyed what had once been a successful program.

Subsequently, under the forced mergers, women were denied strategic leadership positions.

Participants described their experiences and strategies used by men to retain power and to keep

hold of women sport. Lany discussed:

…Like the last time they had… they decided they that they want us to become one [merge], I asked that the constitution be changed first [before the merger]because it was not going to favor us[women]. The operating constitution was an old one carried on from the colonial times… and it's an old constitution, you should read that constitution then you know the rot we are in. So I think they had [needed] to change and they refused… They didn't give me any position, that is where the problem came in, I said if you want us to merge I have to be the vice chair…that's where we hit a snug, they said just come in as a member I said over my dead body [refused], I had been a Chairperson, "unless am so desperate. I am not coming in, I want to be the vice, so let him step down…." because they had the muscle power in terms of money, I… they called a meeting, and said "Lany if you refuse to join us then just leave this", I said I can't leave it. So they put the girls. They called for a meeting and they were bribed made to sign yes, they don't want Kenya Ladies Hockey Association.

Billie, one of the founders of the women's soccer association described how the women's team was excelling at international level, and they were also getting a lot of sponsorships. However, instead of supporting the women's sport teams, the organization's umbrella body decided to change the rules to have the women's football as a department of KFF, which effectively denied women football the autonomy that they had previously enjoyed. Billie indicated:

We registered as a women's organization. Because of that, the constitution of the federation had to change… they were scared of women, because we were getting sponsors. You know they were not accounting for their teams. So when we went for sponsorship, if we need a sponsor, we got. They didn't get. When we came back from US ... They wanted women to form a department that would be a department of KFF, which I refused. I said I cannot work under men, because all they want to do is to suppress us... they had to revise their constitution to accommodate the women side. So they made a department, a committee of women. Even now that is what is running today.

These mergers were also seen to disenfranchise the women of their former power where they had control of their affairs and had created space to develop women leaders. Jill described the consequences of the mergers and how men took control of the women's sports, which have subsequently inhibited women's career progress in sports. She narrated:

> And am saying this very openly we were building women leaders in the [sport association], and the chairperson used to fight a lot with the men, it was not easy, I would have gone very far, if it was not for the men interfering using women's tickets to go and referee. Most of the women up to today do not want to take up umpiring because they say they will be used locally but they will not be used at international level, they would rather even in the old age, that is why we don't have so many women this international players are still playing. When you talk to them they tell you we don't want to go like Marie, we don't want to go like, and we don't want to go like Jill, the reason being that she was good, but they didn't want to take her to the level that she wanted.

Also, explaining the dismal performance of Kenya women's team in the recent times, Jill accused the parent body of not doing much for the women sport. She explained:

> It's because they were exposed, right now the exposure is very minimal, the Kenya Hockey Union has not done much for women, or merging with the schools to know what happening there, for example, we would have the secondary school games going on, the women's association used to be represented, 24/7, what I mean by that is throughout the year. Because the tournaments are there which they are running and most of them were actually based on, we used to invite many schools, and they know there is a game called hockey at a higher level.

If women attempted to resist, the organization's constitution and rules would be changed, as was the case involving the Kenya Football. Additionally, the women felt that the rules were often changed to protect those that felt threatened. Jill elaborated:

> Let's start from the top… how many lady coaches do we have in Kenya, I am a qualified coach they are always put on the coaching committees but you see as the bodies keep

166

changing the officials, they feel that this one is going to challenge me let put her aside.

You have been trained you have given results, they know your capabilities, they know

you are also a mother and a role model, so when you sit there you are going to talk to the

girls not only on that but as a mother.

Constitution, policy and resistance to change. The absence of laws and policies that

addressed the concerns of women in organizations ensured that women remained in subordinate

positions to men. The participants noted that corruption and the need to maintain status quo and

unwillingness to change the constitution of the organizations, as well as resistance to

incorporation of new ideas was a challenge for most of them. For example, lack of a transition

system or a clear structure that allows women to move from competitive athletics to take up

leadership positions resulted in the underrepresentation of women in leadership. Jill's account

described the dilemma faced by women aspiring for leadership and how the world body

association had to intervene for Kenyan women umpires, allowing them to officiate at an

international tournament. She stated:

Most of the women up to today do not want to take up umpiring because they say they

will be used locally but they will not be used at international level. They would rather

continue playing in old age, [rather than take up other leadership roles], that is why we

don't have so many women in leadership as most of female players are still playing.

When you talk to them they tell you we don't want to go like Marie, we don't want to go

like, and we don't want to go like Jill, the reason being that she was good, but they didn't

want to take her to the level that she wanted (ceiling). Reason they wanted the men to be

there at that particular time till….till the … the body, the World Hockey federation said

now we only want women - and am talking about Kenya, we only want lady umpire, if

you want a man this time you are going to pay for this ticket. That is how women started

entering slowly. That is why before me there was one who did one or two matches ...that

is Garry, she went and umpired once but she was never guided.

Lack of opportunities, mentoring and guidance of female athletes and women leaders in sports was also seen as a challenge. Women were denied opportunities regardless of the existing policies that advocate for equal representation in sport. It was also noted that even when women leaders received training in coaching and umpiring, the lack of mentorship, opportunities to coach and officiate matches denied them the chance to progress in the sports careers. Sanyo explained the situation:

> …But the challenges are that a woman many times, they are not given the opportunities. They feel, men feel it's such a big favor, if one is taken, they feel they have done you a big favor, they have given you two chances that is too much, it doesn't have to be that way.

Princi also described her frustration and resistance that women encountered when they tried to bring order or change to an organization that used unconventional means to maintain the status quo:

> … There were so many things that were going wrong at the time, I wanted changes I felt that, to take away am...and people would begin to think that am taking...it wasn't a good move ahead...also the, also I didn't want to be there, also because nothing was ever going to improve... For you to be the Chairman, the main committee of [sport organization]… you had to be somebody who was protecting your own child… people getting to the council [one became a council member so as] to protect their children, which forced them into the national team. It doesn't matter whether they are performing well or not. But that's an association that does not have a constitution that is worth talking about. The hockey constitution was first formed in 1924, Kenya got independence in 1963 and they stuck to it and in 1999 they attempted to review it [but], it was very poorly done.

The unchanging constitutions within sports organizations were also seen as obstacles to those women aspiring for leadership. Lany discussed:

> And then you see they have also made the old constitution you must look at that constitution just ask somebody to give you. What they did, all the old Indians were made

life members, you see like for me now am not serving; they know what I have done, for ladies hockey, which should be given a honorary member. They won't give to any African, all Asians, so that when the time for voting comes honorary members are allowed to vote, that is what the constitution says, so you cannot win, you cannot win. So you can't win, unless the constitution is changed…That is why we are having all these problems. People are not ready to change and if you are also not willing to make them change, then I think the women's hockey is just wasting their time. All of them [the minister and sports federations]have not done much for women sport...I don't know, the best way to look for it, I think, they should just remove it to a man with a portfolio who has been in sports and everything and knows exactly what we are talking about. These ones we are having there are… just disassociated from the government completely, we can even be having people supporting us   and   giving us money and giving us so many things.

It was also noted that those that had been in leadership for a long time were not willing to leave and that even though their ideas were not in tandem with the changing times and dynamics within sports, they were determined to maintain the status-quo, and were resistant to any changes such as the inclusion of more women in sports leadership positions. Lany stated:

And it's, just been in sports all this, and have been…looks like most people are hanging in there, they don't want to leave. Look at Athletics Kenya, we still have those old *babus* (old men) there and they are not ready to leave you see… we should have like a [specified] term for service.

This resistance to new ideas and determination to maintain status quo ensured that women remain in subordinate positions. However, women were forced to become more aggressive in fighting for their rights. Sanyo narrated:

Yes, they take the credit, then you say now if you want this to continue, we need this, we need this, we need this. Every moment you have to be aggressive to get what you want. You are always fighting, you know, fighting with words. You are always stepping on

169

people's toes to get anything that you want; it doesn't have to be that way. When it comes to leadership positions, Oh, my God! They want it to be men picking first, then the women can be given and that is one Kenya I never accept…At times I had to step on toes. To get what I want to run sports. Because many people especially in the universities, it is worse there. We expect the universities to be exposed and to know the importance of sports, but there. When it comes to that, they are the ones who are, I am sorry to use the word, they are ignorant or they purport to be ignorant about it. Aa…the, the other day, one very senior person was saying, but we can also run sports it is just, is just jumping in the field there and running, chasing nothing.

Unsafe working conditions. In the context of sport, unsafe conditions include the use of threats, sexual harassment and the lack of appropriate policies to safeguard the interests of girls and women or other participants in sport. These conditions discourage women from involvement in sports, resulting in them dropping out of sports participation. The narratives by Rose, Mumea Bora, and Princi showed women being threatened for demanding accountability from men; being threatened by men that were afraid of women's success, sexual harassment, and the lack of policies to protect girls and women. Rose, a high school teacher and member of the [Sport name] subcommittee, was threatened with a dismissal from her job for demanding accountability of finances. Clearly, such threats force women into submission as Rose explained:

…The Secretary would collect the money, would pay the field, would do so many other things but would not account for the money, at one point, we had collected about Ksh.42, 000 and at the end of the day, we were given Ksh.500 and when I wanted to know where the Ksh.42, 000, I was told, ooh, it was paid. .. And up to date, they've not been able to show us the budget…Yes am assertive and it has earned me a lot of trouble with the Executive. At one point, I was even threatened that I would be… sacked or interdicted. At one point, I went to investigate and I remember the Secretary objecting to trying to enforce what I thought was the role according …so when the Secretary got to learn about it, he was very mad [upset]. That is how aggressive I've been in that field, and I always

170

do it alone, because my lady teachers [colleagues] who are part of the sports always get

compromised at one point or the other. Fear [is] instilled in them and then they let men do

whatever they want and probably that is why sporting   in Nairobi has really gone down.

Women are not supposed to be heard, they're supposed to be there to be seen. There is

that gender balance issue.

Mumea Bora was also isolated for demanding accountability from her colleagues and she

described her struggles in her leadership position. She said:

When it came to training, you would train one or two provinces, and then the money

would be finished. I would then ask for the whereabouts of the money that had been

allocated to train all the eight provinces… That is what you ask now and now you

become very bad. So they go meet and decide: "We don't want her". That is, the men

and even with some women. And they use another woman to shout. So you come to the

games, you start asking, okay? If the money for championships is not there you are

telling me the money is finished, yet we had said championships, national championship

is this much.   Where is the money that was given for use?

Princi's situation was more serious as she was working in an environment where her

competitors were afraid of her success and threatened to physically harm her, which made her

resort to having body-guards to protect her. She explained:

…In [names neighborhood], which is a very difficult environment, I walk with

bodyguards at all, but they know they are not very far away and the type of people who

protect me are people…who were there when [a prominent politician]was in the

neighborhood, but I have saved them from so many things through the years, that when

you reach the level they have different names for different people at different levels and

if you reach...level, it means they will protect you no matter what (take risks) yes they

are ready to that and is not about money. Yes, to get to that point where you are ready to

do whatever it takes…so its, its, it then has stopped them, me from being hit by the mafia

171

from the slums…at the end of the day, there's a way that right thinking Kenya who, who, who understand what it takes one to be a woman in sport.

While sexual harassment is a problem that is prevalent in many work places, the cultural beliefs that regard sex as a "taboo subject" adversely affected female athletes. Since the athletes lack female role models or leaders that they can speak with, there were limited channels through which they could broach the "taboo subject". This subject raised a lot of concerns among the participants in this study. Mumea Bora explained:

> Some come out and say, some don't say [discuss sex]. People still believe that it's a taboo to talk about sex. But it's good to come out so that this coach is not made to spoil more people. We have lost girls to HIV/AIDS. Nana was just refused by the administration, male administration, which she could not yield to. She's now playing professionally. She is still very, very in top form; age does matter, what is 37 years. She was in top form; she's now playing for her club.

With fewer women being elected into leadership positions and men left to manage women sports, girls and female athletes were exposed to sexual abuse and sexual harassment, as witnessed by Billie on one of her trips with female athletes. She pointed out:

> You know men [will] first of all… they start by dividing positions for themselves,   team manager, I don't know I don't know coach, and they leave women. I can tell you one, the Kenyan Volleyball women team on a recent assignment outside country, there were no women, and they were all men, the manager, without woman looking after those girls. I decided to accompany the team and I still saw bad things [sexual harassment] and I came back angry.

Collaborating Billie's statement, Princi also noted that the male dominated sports organizations, where there were no protection policies for children and women, where women leaders were locked out of leadership positions, presented a hostile environment, which left female athletes vulnerable to abuse from male coaches and male team managers. Princi explained:

172

There is no Child Protection Policy, there have been very many cases through, through the years where children have been abused including sexually. Yeah, they have but National teams, there are cases that are really bad, and some cases it is the person [International Federation] person who is in charge at the time, who actually takes the national coach and has him arrested. And those things don't filter back into the country because they get hush, hush, then these children stop playing the game and nobody ever follows up. The guy who is now…tour is now taken the championship to Egypt for example, has, has, is known, is a known molester and this is something that has happened in the past. The international federation has reported it… Yes and he was, he was, he is been protected and is still protected. And you look at these situations and ask yourself how many more times should a child suffer. A child died in his hands in one of the years.

Whereas girls and women have been given opportunities and they are competing in sports at almost the same level with boys and men in most sports, gender differences became more pronounced during sports tours, with girls experiencing more challenges than boys. Princi's description of her experience as a young aspiring professional [sport] player, and as a woman leader working with girls highlighted the problems that made the world of sports a difficult environment for girls and women. She explained:

Just imagine going to a country in America or in Europe and you want to play and you only have limited funding, if you are a boy, what a lot of the boys do would find, all you need was a sleeping bag and you wait for people to move out of the toilets, bathroom and a sleep and people understand and that is how a lot of players still do to this day. They hustle; they move from one circuit to another, they just hustle like that. For a girl you can't do the same, you have to find a family to host you. Sometimes you run out of money, then you have to start looking and it is very tough, you don't want. People don't really understand the process and you have double trouble because one is you are, you are a woman so all of us girls had a problem and you find that even to this day a lot of girls will travel together in order to provide safety for each other but, the second thing is that

173

you are black (ok) and it has its issues whether we like it or not you cannot, you are not going to get what you require within Africa, if you go abroad you go to Europe or in America, there is still this color bias and especially related to tennis as a sport. And that time, more than ever, so you would be, so people would wonder what the hell you were doing in that sport in the first place. How did you even learn and even to this day, people still ask you, shouldn't you be running? Because that's all they think Kenyans are all about, where did you learn tennis? So it is always an issue.

Limited resources. This is a problem that was identified as common to all federations as well as educational institutions. Without appropriate and adequate funding for programs, leaders resorted to sacrificing their time and money. Findings of this study showed that leaders had to improvise and also develop social support networks so as to maintain their programs. Limited human and material resources such as facilities, lack of funding, lack support from the management, and poverty in schools were found to be common. The following quotations from women leaders highlight this problem. September stated:

> The challenges that we experience here first of all are the facilities. Secondly it is the finances, the finances are very limited, and the government sometimes when we go outside the country. We have made proposals even up to the Ministry, this budget… but nothing is forthcoming.

Eva, a PE teacher in a school with students from a predominantly poor background pointed to the lack of facilities and funds. She explained:

> There are challenges to that, there is a reason to that, you see we don't have our own fields and sometimes the primary school people, the relationship is there and he even pays for the cutting of the grass of the field, the Principal, our principal, but when we want to do something like inter-house soccer, you go the first day the following day you will not go back there, the primary school Principal says you are interfering with their program, you know in the inter-house soccer we have to play in the morning go for lunch.

Rose, also a PE teacher, identified with the problem faced by Eva, as operating in an institution where funding of sports programs was scarce and the sacrifices she had to make. She said:

I go to their family like most of our catchment they come from poor families...you get from your pocket to support sometimes the teams. So, I have had to chip in from my own pocket, many times to take teams out. For one reason or the other, because of the love of the game…you go [dip] into your pocket and take your team for competitions.

While lack of funding in schools was attributed to the poverty, the lack of funding in sports organizations such as the one Rose served in was a deliberate denial of funds- making it difficult to successfully organize events. She narrated:

…Initially what used to happen is that they would use your budget. .. You would be given money for all for the budget. This time around whatever we have used during the preliminaries whether they are present or not present. So I found that because you are the people on the ground, you are organizing on the ground but… They come [and] you are not able to offer them anything. Ok, not even in terms of a drink even water sometimes to go to places like State House, there are no toilets have to hire besides that you are not able to offer any water. You find that people stop bringing their teams…

In cases where the women sports were fully sponsored, other obstacles were deliberately placed in their way. For instance, Lany described her struggles caused by the lack of support from the parent body, which occurred by denying the women team access to train at the national stadium. Lany pointed out:

You see lack of preparation just came in as well, because once I got this money, they closed for me the city park stadium, they refused to allow the girls to train, I had to go clear city primary school, go to the city council, got a grader, because the grass was this high, I had to prepare the ground, got the City Council to pour murram in the field with the money I have been getting from sponsors, and that is how we did it.

While Ollie had successfully managed a team that won the national titles multiple times, the change of management at her school brought in a new principal that did not support sports,

leading to the demise of a very successful program and Ollie's subsequent departure from the school. She explained:

> [The year] 2001 was the last time that my team won the national handball championship title and I could attribute this to change of administration. The principal that had wanted me to stay around and teach physical education left on promotion and when there was no support from administration, I had to leave.

These excerpts show that the success of women leaders in sport results from the sacrifices and commitments that they make. Clearly, the obstacles tend to outweigh the support that they received. Also, it appears that obstacles that women encountered in sports leadership were more of relational and organizational nature rather than individual based. Given the many challenges that women in sports leadership face, the ability to continue serving under such circumstances depend on the strategies that women leaders devised to overcome the challenges.

Strategies for Overcoming the Challenges

Among the strategies identified as being employed by participants in this study were: resistance to discriminatory practice, communication and advocacy, empowering women, networking, mentoring and training, use of media as well as laws and policies.

Resistance to Discriminatory Practices

The onset of the women's feminist movement was driven by the need to change some of the practices that undervalued women. Some of the strategies that women used were the outright resistance to those practices through breaking the set norms or "going against the grain". For instance, Eva's decision to defy her spouse's threats, and deciding to go on with her sport could be considered as radical. The following extended interview explains Eva's struggles and support systems that enabled her to continue engaging in sport:

Eva: He threatened that he is going to marry another wife; I said: "Go ahead; I have not refused you to do that". I just became very calm, I said if you want to do it just do it, my life will just continue and my life has continued… You know me I said I will go for my life, what I want [I told] him if he is ready he could stay, if he didn't want, he could do

whatever he wanted. I was not going to give in because I have to keep my marriage, and that is the greatest challenge that women have. You cannot follow your career because your husband has come in your way.

Janet: So in your absence, and your spouse's unwillingness to help, how did you manage?

Eva: Like my sister, I would take the children to her place or I would ask my cousin to come and stay with my children when I was away. They… still do … In fact last year we went to South Africa with [name]. My children they are big now. They are old enough, and you know they can take with them money; they will use [it wisely]…my children can cook, they cook for the women, they serve them… [They are independent and can do a lot of things on their own]

Obviously, Eva's husband did not understand the sacrifice that Eva was ready to make in order to continue being in sports. Apart from defiance, Eva used the social support networks to help take care of the children while she was away and also trained her children to be responsible so that they could manage in her absence.

In another show of resistance to discriminatory practices, Eva confessed to attending meetings that were held at unconventional times and places. These meetings were convened by men sport leaders and they were intended to isolate women from the decision making process. Eva argued that attending such meetings was the only way in which women could keep abreast with latest information in sports and also get to be elected to leadership positions.

Becoming the Voice of Social Change

The narratives by women leaders indicated that in spite of the many challenges faced in their positions, they were determined to fight on and also contribute to the development of sports by becoming the voice of social change. The following quotations attest to the commitment of women to sport. Although she was ousted from a position where she once thought she could influence change, Princi vowed to keep fighting:

I am going to focus and if I don't like something, I'll fight about it and I'll let everybody know what is going on, and I would be insulted. I would be like, what is happening now,

177

but you know what, you get to a point where you say if I truly care about the sport and now I am at a point where everybody watches what I do then I should try to create change.

Murang'a believed that women leaders had a great role to play within their organizations and they would also use their voice to urge the minister to ensure that appropriate policies were implemented by sports organizations:

So you see, Federations, those women who are in Federations, we shall do our work in Federations but if the Ministry itself is doing nothing, there will be no Affirmative Action for women to take up positions in different areas of sports. If they can appoint committees and they are not thinking about women…The Minister is supposed to do that because it's his work. I have told you we will do it in our Federations. He will hear, he will see, if he does not do it even the work, which I have done in the Federation, will be watered down.

Balancing Family-Work

Since most of the challenges affecting women in sport are related to the family-work conflicts, creating a balance between family-work has been the most effective strategy that worked for women in sport. Participants utilized various strategies such as bringing the spouse on board, negotiation, communication, and taking care of the family. As a single parent of a teenage boy, Ollie stated that she had to remember her parental responsibilities and devised a way of ensuring that it balanced out with her work:

…Balancing, balancing between [work- family]… the end of the time you have to remember that you are a mother knowing [that] your child needs you out there, he is on the school basketball (BB) team, his principal is his BB coach, even me my principal was my swimming coach. So I don't miss any meetings for parents, when he is around on holidays, basically to know what I do, I come with him to my place of work. He is there; he can be able to take part in the activities, because I am also a student you have to balance your time between attending classes, parenting and doing your work.

178

While a number of the participants indicated that they received a lot of support from the family and spouse, others had to devise various negotiation strategies to gain spousal support. For instance, Sanyo decided to bring her spouse on board through getting him to accompany her to all sports meets. She stated, "So when taking my students out for any sports trip, I would go with him… because we would leave early in the morning, come back late in the night … I wanted to send a point to him… I wanted him to be part and parcel of my work. If I had a sports day, he was my time keeper."

Communication and education were also seen as being critical to changing people's attitudes. For example, although Eva never received support from her spouse, she recognized the changing attitudes among men citing that "because men are also becoming educated and [more] enlightened… and so most husbands will even give you a push [support]. They will tell you go for it, *nitaku* (I will) support. They will even give you permission to go for the meetings." This kind of attitude portends positive changes for women in sports. Also the need to openly communicate plans and expectations with the spouse before marriage helped. For example, at the onset of her relationship and subsequent marriage, Murang'a clearly articulated the important role of sport in her life, declaring that nothing was ever going to separate her from the love of sport. She said "I told my husband before I got married, I love you but one thing, I don't want us ever, and ever to fight for, is my involvement in sports."

Empowering Women

Lack of knowledge and lack of power are some of the reasons cited for persistent underrepresentation of women in leadership positions. A number of participants indicated that in order to change the power dynamics in sport leadership, there was need to empower women. This could be achieved through thinking big, knowing their rights and claiming them, and being assertive. For instance, Sanyo encouraged women to think big and be in a position to aggressively and confidently seek for opportunities:

First we have to start by empowering them, now. We have challenges...and then we must

make them understand the opportunities that…and then at the same time, to stress to the

women, that team work, for example, you are here, I am here, you take Murang'a here, let's pick all those women …hey, ladies, using this… we have the problem… we have with women is they dangle the carrots. They want that bait carrot in the dangle, half of it. So long as they get what they want even if it is temporary, but let us not just look, just beyond our nose we should be seeing far away and once we see far away and they work together and move out. I may be fading away, but those girls are still there. I know that Doris, for instance, is there, a very good volleyballer (Volleyball player), can I help prepare her to be a coach, you see, it is us who can pull our other women up and prepare them, so that we have a whole group on board with, with talent, with capacities, and with everything.

Empowering women also entailed getting women to be in the right places, through assigning them roles and responsibilities within the organization, and placing them in right positions where they could influence change:

But since women are there, we want the women to manage the teams. We want the women to be the technicians, I mean they must be seen to be there, so that this woman who is playing here, sees those who played before, having risen to that level. She will aspire and know that sports are not only a leisure activity; but a profession itself, so an occupation you can do. We have to advocate for women. There are situations you find that women are in the camp, the team manager is a man, the technical bench is all men, and there is no chaperone with the girls. If it's a chaperone, it's another woman with connections with somebody somewhere, with the Chairman, and so she is put there. The girls don't know her, and so they cannot confide with her. We need somebody who is going to relate with the girls can relate and the girls can come out and clearly tell, what is my problem and we know what is unique to us as women. And it reaches a point when these girls can't confide in the man, to say am having my periods, for heaven's sake, to a man. You are selected in that team, because you are a good player, you have qualified. You have reached the timing which is required in 800m, so no man, no coach, should

180

come and tell you I am the one who is doing accreditation and whatever. You are there by

right. MUMEA BORA

Confidence building is considered as one of the ways of developing women leaders. This allows

them to be more assertive when performing their duties in the area that is perceived as male

dominated and teemed with obstacles. This message was resounded by one of the participants:

I have been quite successful but you know why? I have had to be very aggressive to get

what I want. Very assertive to get what I want. ..At times I had to step on toes. To get

what I want to run sports. Because many people especially in the universities, it is worse

there. SANYO

Networking and Social Support

One of the challenges that women leaders face has been the lack of social networks that

can propel them to leadership positions. Findings of the study show that most of the women

were cognizant of this and were keen on fixing the problem. For example Eva described how

she was able to effectively use her networks and social support groups to win an elective position

in the teachers' cooperative society. During the election, those women that presented themselves

for the position scored better than the men. The most surprising aspect was that Eva received

overwhelming support from both men and women. Eva's narrative attests to what women can do

when they support each other and it would help women to knowing the importance of creating

social support networks.

Although she was expected to handle multiple roles as a physical education teacher,

coach and sport administrator, the ability to manage these roles sometimes required one to get

help from colleagues. For instance, Teresa explained how the support from her colleague

enabled her to manage. She explained:

I handled hockey; I handled all PE lessons. Mr. Kamau was not a PE teacher, he was just

a volunteer but incidentally he was very good in coaching in BB, so I was in charge of

the two classes. Sometimes I used to mix them and tell them what to do and they liked it.

…Very very challenging. Sometimes when it was, it was you know 40 min, you decided

okay basketball, others I used to take the physical education itself, the aerobics, others

they had to be on their own, because just alone…So I was able to train the girls but the

work is so involving because you remember the training was lunchtime, in the evening

and sometimes in the morning.

Role Modeling and Mentoring

Women who hold positions of influence are seen as role models by their protégé. As a

role model, one has to build trust and confidence with the various stakeholders including

athletes, parents, and other organizations, as well as other leaders. Successful mentoring would

ensure that young women were prepared for leadership positions. The following statements by

participants underscore the importance of role modeling and mentoring:

> The same people emulating you, the parents know who you are, because the child cannot
>
> be released by the parent if they don't know who you are, and if you are a nobody, then it
>
> becomes difficult. That's why now where I was able to identify with all the schools as a
>
> teacher, I was able to identify with the parents as a teacher, because as am talking to them
>
> I tend to identify why the kid is not performing. I ask them is it sport, no, what she does
>
> with her leisure time. JILL

As a role model and mentor, Jill had to develop relationships with parents, guardians and the

students/athlete's. Because she had proved herself as an effective assistant secretary, Eva had

gained trust of her boss, and she was trusted to make decisions on behalf of the secretary. She

explained:

> At least our secretary does not believe in that, he believes in performance. So him, he
>
> knows, when he is out of the country, he has an able assistant secretary who will do the
>
> work when he is not there? He also has other positions like Kenya Volleyball Federation,
>
> so when he goes out to the teams and we have a meeting, and we are supposed to call for
>
> the meeting, I will call for the meeting and I will write the minutes because am the one
>
> who always writes the minutes whether he is there or not.

As a former teacher and handball coach, Ollie's exemplary performance in her role as a secretary general saw her term extended to 10 years. She pointed out that:

They were elective posts, where there were elections, and you tell them your agenda, what you have for them, and they reviewed my zonal secretary I was supposed to do 5 years, I … ended up doing ten years because at the end of the [term as secretary, I became] vice–chair, I also did it [served] for ten years. …

Most of the participants pointed to the need and importance of the role of mentoring in the development of young women for leadership positions. They believed that handing over leadership helped develop the sport, and that it was the only way that could ensure a constant supply of leaders at the top. As illustrated in a previous quotation, Jill noted that there was need for female role models and mentors for the female athletes that would take care of female athletes in sports. She believed that as mentors, women sport leaders were like mothers to the athletes, because they would protect them. Murang'a emphasized the need to develop women leaders from diverse areas as the only way that would keep women sports alive. She explained:

We have to redefine, we have to redefine our purpose and priorities…then encourage them [girls and young women] in those respective areas. If we don't then we are killing the sport….if its netball, let's define and identify those who are there. Give them skills and ways in those areas. Then they come up. When they pick, they come to the peak, apex, then that is when we say, we can pick her, she can be an all rounder, like [other women in sport leadership before].

As a person who organized annual mentoring programs for school-girls, Princi noted that older women were also demanding for mentoring programs and they viewed mentoring programs as an avenue for developing women leaders. She elaborated:

Leadership… we have to train girls to be leaders in high school. Women to, to mentor....but I don't blame them because they didn't have mentors themselves. When I run this program...and I've gotten to a point where you are trying to work with about 400

girls up, and they insist on being part of the process. They are now learning about it as married women, those were things we used to be taught traditionally...

While developing women leaders was important, Lany emphasized the need for the older women, or those that had served as leaders in sports for many years to let go. This was the only sure way of giving young women a chance to lead. She explained:

Yea by women leaders…but the women leaders are hanging on to this power like… and you see after I got a guest of honor, I was…nobody bothered about me, it was Lany *anakuja* (is she coming?) after they have used you, I think we can still get it somewhere. But then we need to learn to handover the baton; for me sports any time (Lany).

Identify people who you can invite here because, we don't know it all. And we are privileged to attend and yet everybody needs to attend.   So it's like you pick, you pick and there is room for more to attend, so I don't know why we limit ourselves, we've been limiting ourselves. We have to share the knowledge, there is no limit to knowledge   we learn until we go down to the grave lets have this sports people you know even the media giving some coverage getting somebody to be talking about sports and giving the inside news or what is expected of them. There is no program like that on TV. So how do you expect anybody so we need to get everybody to be involved?

It was clear from the preceding findings that the constant supply of women leaders to the top was inhibited by many factors such as the reluctance by older leaders to hand over leadership to the young and the hopelessness experienced by those that had received leadership training through being denied opportunities to put their skills into practice. Advancing women leaders would require removal of such obstacles.

Creating Visibility through the Use of Media

Being in the limelight helps one to be known and it also allows one to clearly articulate their agenda to the masses. Drawing from her experience in managing a successful women's sport organization, Lany stressed the importance of media coverage in enhancing the position of women in sport. She emphasized:

If we also want to be seen like football, rugby was nowhere, look at where it is now. It is

the pride of our nation [because of media coverage]. Like us even if we want other sports

to be like [sport name that she managed], I made sure that every weekend there was a

news item about what is happening about the women's sport, who is playing who what is

playing what, and that way when I went to knock doors, they said oh yeah, we saw the

girls play …the other day that's why am telling you I have got boxes of media reports

about the women's league and tournaments.

As a person currently in charge of the youth development program in the country, Ollie believes

that the success of her program depends on spreading the news about it, as well as clearly stating

the program's agenda. Ollie described her plans to use the media to articulate the programs

objectives and her personal agenda as a leader. She narrated:

I am looking at the media… if you do not let it out there and inform people about it,

nobody will know. You have to go out to the media and let it out. For my program, I am

signing a memorandum of understanding (MOU) with safaricom for full page coverage in

the media about what we do… because if I do not do it, nobody will know what we do.

We have to put it on the table for people to be informed.

Summary

This study examined the experiences of women in sport leadership with emerging themes

focusing on: socialization into sports, roles and responsibilities, challenges, and the strategies

developed to overcome these challenges. Findings revealed participants to be socialized into

sport by their family, school and teachers. This was through provisions of material support,

encouragement, as well as moral support. All of the participants had been involved in multiple

sports while in school. They had represented their schools and clubs at various sports

championships- the provincial, national and international championships.   The journey to

becoming leaders in sport started when the participants were first appointed to be leaders either

in school or at home. The decision to transition into leadership in sports federations was either

185

consciously made, as in the case on Murang'a who had approached the sports federation chairman to state her interest in serving, or being co-opted or tapped for leadership positions.

As leaders in sport organizations, the women were engaged in various leadership roles and responsibilities. Most of the participants had attended numerous leadership courses to enhance their leadership skills. It is worth noting that the women leaders were highly educated and from diverse professional backgrounds. Developing programs and initiating programs were some of the responsibilities that women leaders performed. Women leaders preferred collaborative, situational and democratic styles of leadership. However, the participants noted that the situation or context could determine one's leadership style. The levels at which the participants engaged in decision making processes in the organizations depended on their experience, knowledge and even one's position within the organization, whereby those with more experience had a greater say in the decision making process.

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

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Research studies on women in sports leadership increased over the last two decades; however research on African women is scarce. So far, most of the research studies that provide insights into the varied experiences of women in sports leadership are grounded in Western discourses, For example, McAllister's (2006) study on female school principals revealed that they applied skills acquired from being competitive athletes into their leadership practices. Norman's (2010) study on women coaches in United Kingdom found women to be undermined and trivialized, and lesser qualified men were assigned superior roles, leaving out highly qualified female coaches.

The IOC / ISLR study by Henry et al. (2004) on the status and experiences of women in NOC found women to be still underrepresented in NOC leadership position around the world. Conclusions drawn from this study showed that the IOC targets of increasing women leaders had yet to be achieved due to structural issues in sports federations, which include the following: (a) Women were inhibited from taking leadership positions due to family-work conflict, (b) women were assigned low level responsibilities, and (c) most federations introduced women's committees but these committees had little impact on the decisions made in sports federations. Despite these challenges, women leaders acknowledged IOC efforts to increase the number of women in sports. This has seen many women leaders benefit from training opportunities sponsored by the IOC.

Although the context is different, most of the findings in the current study support previous research studies. The purpose of the study was to examine experiences of Kenyan women in sports leadership from various sports organizations in Kenya. The findings from the study were clustered under four main categories namely; socialization into sports; leadership opportunities; leadership practices; challenges; and coping strategies.

187

Factors influencing career choice in sport

This study found family, school, and teachers to influence women's participation in sport and choices of career in sport. This finding corroborates previous research as explained in Dixon, Warner, and Bruening's (2008) study, which indicates that when parents participate in sports, they tend to influence their children's involvement in sport as well. Thus social and material supports tended to be enabling factors that helped in the children's development of sport skills. The involvement of socializing agents in influencing women's participation and choice of careers aligns with social reproduction theory (Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan, & Ballenger, 2007).

Generally, schools are considered as centers for academic excellence, as well as hubs for holistic development of the pupils, where individual and diverse skilled persons can be identified, nurtured, and allowed to flourish. In this study, schools provided for varied opportunities, with teachers serving as role models, resulting in women having positive experiences, hence their choices to continue engaging in sport activities into their adult lives. Bandura's social learning theory states that a person's choices and actions in life are determined by experiences that in turn shape one's world view, character and social interactions (Ismail & Rasdi, 2008; Pheko, 2009). Socialization exposes one to situations, and environments that allow for social interactions, as well as provide learning opportunities. In their study, Dixon et al. (2008), found role modeling, availing opportunities, and having a positive experience to be mechanisms of socialization into sports. The sports experiences that the teachers, coaches and parents provided may have influenced the women to think positively about sport thereby helping them to integrate into the sporting cultures that were previously male exclusive.

This study confirms previous research findings that show the parents and school as profoundly influencing women to participate in sport (Henry et al., 2004; Martel, 2007; McAllister, 2006). Surprisingly, although parental influence profoundly impacts children's engagement levels in sports at the pre-secondary education levels, for some participants, lack of parental support had no impact whatsoever. This may be explained by the sports structure in

Kenya where schools provide for all sporting opportunities. Thus parental influence could be more at the initial stages- proximal influence, with schools and teachers having more influence during the later stages such as at high school levels.

Previous research shows participation of women in sports to be hindered by the patriarchy and gender allocation of roles, where women's roles were considered to belong to the private or domestic sphere (Couturier & Chepko, 2001; Greendorfer, 2001). Victorian culture and the colonial heritage in Kenya promoted education and sport as male preserves, which could have prevented women from engaging in sport, and could explain the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions in sport. Colonial education was designed to prepare men for leadership positions leaving women out. Chepyator-Thomson (2005) noted that: "In the contemporary societies of Africa, women's involvement in sports is depended upon their entry into school institutions… (p. 244). It was therefore not surprising that fathers played a prominent role in the socialization of the women into sports, with mothers having very minor roles. These results are similar to Dixon et al.'s (2008) study on parental influence on women's career choices, where fathers served as coaches and mothers as transporters of their children to sports' activities.

Nevertheless, although mothers played a minor role in the socialization of their daughters into sport, they seemed eager to provide their daughters with opportunities that they [mothers] were denied when growing up. In fact, a mother to one participant was seen as defying cultural norms when she encouraged her daughter to participate in sports. In a culture that discouraged women from involvement in sport, the involvement of fathers in socializing their daughters into sport was considered an anomaly- a clear defiance of expected post-colonial norms, but the opportunities and encouragement provided by fathers were a bonus for the women leaders. However, by deviating from cultures that isolated women and girls and encouraging their daughters to engage in sports, the parents were basically normalizing the sports experience (Dixon et al., 2008). Thus, women were socialized into accepting sport as a normal activity.

189

Leadership opportunities

        Several characteristics emerged that seemed to have influenced women's appointment to leadership positions. These included: mastery of skills, competitiveness, role modeling, interaction with others, confidence, proof of capability, visibility, social networks and support groups.   Although emerging leadership theories diverged from using these traits as the sole determinant of a leader, these characteristics remain as ideal, and they could be what most people/ organizations would look for in a leader. Participants in this study seemed to have acquired confidence, communication, organization, team-work, competitiveness, and social skills through participation in sport, which confirms Mullen's (2009) study that identified experience, strong work ethic and getting along with others as desirable qualities in a leader. Also, McAllister's (2006) study revealed school principals to have acquired competitiveness, team-work and time management skills from their involvement in competitive athletes, which the women used to apply to their leadership practices. Several participants indicated that they acquired leadership skills from competitive athletics. The women's participation in competitive sports not only helped to prepare them for leadership roles and responsibilities, but it also equipped them with the necessary skills for becoming effective leaders. As former athletes, women leaders served as good role models for athletes as their experiences resonated with those of athletes, and they could easily relate to the athletes' experiences. Additionally, it was through experience and education that women leaders became actively involved in leadership activities, and this contributed to their decision making process in sports organizations.

        Sport leadership is mainly voluntary and one becomes a leader through elections, appointments, as well as through interviews, nominations and selections (Henry & Robinson, 2010; Henry et al., 2004). In this study, women indicated that they were either tapped or co-opted into leadership positions, which resonates with previous research studies (Chabaya et al., 2009; Mullen, 2009; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). Only two women indicated that they acquired their leadership positions through a competitive election process. Research studies show underrepresentation of women in leadership to result from patriarchy and failure of women to

present themselves for elective positions, forcing organizations to co-opt or appoint whoever was available into positions of leadership (Henry & Robinson, 2010; Henry et al., 2004). This may suggest lack of interest in leadership (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010), which adversely affects women sports. In this study, co-opted women leaders hardly participated in the decision-making processes. While the co-option of women leaders was considered a way for federations to diversify its board membership, it was unlikely that such leaders would have any impact on policy issues. Moreover, as Sartore and Cunningham (2007) suggested, gendered stereotypes are deeply embedded within organizations to the extent that decisions are made on behalf of women as if they were not there, subsequently limiting their chances of displaying leadership qualities (Coleman, 2001; Shakeshaft et al., 2007).

One surprising finding of the study was that although all of the women participated in varied activities and served as leaders while in school, some of them seemed to doubt their ability to lead; they were hesitant to take up leadership at the sports federation levels when approached. This finding supports previous studies that indicated some women leaders to have been forced to apply for leadership positions (Coleman, 1996; Eddy & Cox, 2008; Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009). In addition, the participants seemed to depend on men's approval and affirmation before they could take up the position as was the case with Lany and MumeaBora. By relying on the affirmation of males, women leaders were not only conforming to male standards, but were inadvertently showing a lack of confidence to lead (Chabaya et al., 2009; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). Although this could be a consequence of gender-role socialization, these self-limiting behaviors reinforced gendered stereotypes about women's ability to lead (Agezo, 2010).

Kenya is a nation that was previously colonized, and thus the colonial heritage, practices, and influence are evident in the social, religious, political, and sports institutions. These practices seemed to have normalized patriarchy in the society (Osumbah, 2011; Sartore & Cunningham, 2007), hence male dominated sport organizations (Couturier & Chepko, 2001; Norman, 2010; Sage, 1998).   Throughout this study, patriarchy and its associated practices manifested in

191

institutional structures and lives of the participants. Fathers influenced the socialization of women into sports through working to provide their daughters with access to sports venues, opportunities to participate, material and human resources, and motivational strategies. As they progressed in their careers, the male figure continued to be present in mentoring the women leaders such as Jill, an international umpire who confessed to having been mentored by men. Murang'a's rise to the position of CEO was influenced by a male manager of a company, who noticed her work ethic and recommended her to apply for the CEO position. Sanyo spoke of her father as a mentor who always encouraged her to follow her dreams and not to let her gender limit her. Billie's leadership skills were first nurtured at the family level, where her father assigned her the responsibility of supervising farm workers. Like Jill and Murang'a, a man tapped Billie for a leadership position in sports federation. Lany's ascendancy to leadership, as a chair of the women's sport resulted from her being tapped for leadership by a male leader. Although men's presence was domineering, their increased involvement in the lives of women in sport seemed to have provided a positive influence. In fact researchers propose that the implementation of gender equality policies can only be achieved if men are involved (Henry & Robinson, 2010).

Leadership practices

The history of women in sport leadership shows women leaders to take up multiple roles. For example, female physical educators held tripartite roles of teacher, coach and administrator (Park, 2010; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010; Swanson & Spears, 1995). Similarly, in this study, women leaders took multiple roles, which they performed beyond expectations. This indicates women's commitment to work and proof of their ability to lead, revealing their interest in developing sports and engaging in the decision-making processes. While decision-making is one of the expected leadership responsibilities, very few women in this study participated in decision-making processes. Similar to previous studies (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010); the women's involvement in the decision-making process was determined by a person's position in the organization, years of experience, and organizational contexts. Moreover, a woman's ability

192

to be involved in the decision-making process was only sustained when she was in good terms with other members of the board. Often the women's strict adherence to rules, stringent management of funds, as well as the demand for accountability, resulted in a number of them being locked out or voted out of leadership. Pfister and Radtke (2006) found that a number of women dropped out of sports when they discovered that they were unable to make the needed changes within sports federations. For most women, dropping out meant the end of their involvement in sports, and an end to their sport careers. Branson's (2007) work on women in corporate organizations found that when women leaders fell out of leadership positions, they never made it back to the top, yet men would often spring back to similar or better leadership positions.

Despite the fact that five participants were forced out leadership positions in this study, they continued to engage in sport at different levels outside the federations. For instance, when politics in the sports federation became unbearable, Princi decided to drop out and focus on developing a youth sport program, a non- profit organization. Likewise, when Lany was forced out of the leadership position of the ladies sports association because of the merger, she decided to focus on her career, and planned to start a youth sport organization. Perhaps Lany and Princi's resilience and decision to keep engaging in sports provided good modeling opportunities for other women to emulate. Branson (2007) proposed private enterprise as an alternative way for women to attain leadership position, because this would allow women to develop family friendly policies for their employees.

Education is a critical element in the recruitment of employees in various organizations. Educational achievements allow women to enter positions of leaderships in sports organizations. Similar to previous studies (Branson, 2007; Coleman, 2007; Henry et al., 2004; Inglis et al., 2000), participants in this study were highly educated individuals. Because of the dynamic nature of organizations, and the need to keep up with the changes in organizations, effective leadership requires one to constantly upgrade their knowledge and ways of doing things so that they can remain relevant within the organization, hence training and preparation for leadership roles are

193

considered critical for one to become an effective leader (Lafreniere & Longman, 2008). In line with this perspective, several participants stated that they were pursuing further education and that they also attended numerous training courses.   The narratives of these women demonstrated their parents' concern for academic excellence, with a majority of the parents emphasizing a balance between academics and sports. While numerous studies examined the relationships between sports and academic achievements, results remain inconclusive due to the presence or absence of other intervening factors. Regardless of the findings, this study showed women to have successfully combined education and sports. Perhaps the excellent performance of the women leaders in sport and education was spurred by the parents' emphasis on maintaining a balance between sport and academics. As former athletes, the ability to successfully merge athletic careers and education made them role models. This encouraged girls and women's aspirations for leadership positions in sport.

In spite of the high academic qualifications, lack of opportunities to practice what they learned hindered women's advancement to leadership positions resulting in increased invisibility (Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009). However, in this study women seemed determined to stay competitive in sport leadership positions through personal and professional development, which involved attending various training courses and going for further education. These findings echo previous studies showing leadership training as a way of advancing women in leadership (Henry et al., 2004; Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009). Furthermore, as shown in Henry et al.'s (2004) study, women leaders in NOC organizations' desired to have more training opportunities as a way of enhancing their leadership practice.

As indicated before, women in sports leadership are highly educated individuals. However, lack of education is an impediment to women's access to leadership positions (Northouse, 2010; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). For example, Murang'a attributed gender imbalances in sports federation leadership to lack of qualified women to take up positions of leadership. This was a very interesting observation given that most of the women leaders in Kenya's sport federations were either handpicked or volunteered for leadership positions, and it

194

also calls for interrogation about the nomination criteria and process used to fill leadership positions – was it a lack of education or the issue of women not presenting themselves for elective positions?

Among the factors considered to be critical to the success of any organization is the leader's style of leadership. Leaders are the shapers or determinants of the direction of the organization. Ways of leading and whether there are any differences in the leadership styles of men and women is an ongoing conversation with dissenting views. Recent studies show styles of leadership as being contextual, with both men and women navigating between both androgenic and the feminine styles (Coleman, 2003). A number of studies on the leadership style of men and women have identified certain leadership styles as being gender specific (Agezo, 2010; Mullen, 2009). In this study, collaborative, participative and democratic leadership approaches seemed to resonate with most of the participants. While most organizations previously preferred the agentic / male leadership styles, the emergence of women leaders has injected a different perspective to leadership. In this study, women leaders used diversified but similar leadership styles that made them successful as evidenced by their achievements. These results are consistent with previous research that demonstrated women leaders to use interpersonal, empowering, collaborative, democratic and participative styles of leadership (Doherty & Manfredi, 20t10; Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009; Mullen, 2009), which are generally accepted in modern-day organizations (Lafreniere & Longman, 2008). Participants in the study stated that their styles were determined by the situation, thus sustaining Bass and Fielder's (1978) situational theory, where the style is determined by the context.

Although this study did not address gender differences between men and women's leadership styles, previous research found that despite the biological differences between men and women, there have been some notable similarities in the leadership styles of men and women (Coleman, 2003). However, research also indicates the patriarchal nature of organizational structures and cultures tend to value the male leadership styles, and may force women to adapt male styles of leadership (Oplatka, 2001). It was quite surprising that despite sport being a male

195

dominated area, none of the participants indicated adopting the masculine style of leadership. Instead, each participant seemed to adopt a specific style that was suitable to the type of work and specific organization. Most surprising was the fact that regardless of the leadership style, it was difficult to dissociate women from their nurturing side which emerged from the way they handled their charges, taking into consideration the athlete's physical, psychological and social welfare. Generally, the women in this study aligned themselves with transformational style of leadership, which focused on empowering, relationship building, inspiring and motivating workers, communicating and power sharing (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2003).

Challenges and strategies for overcoming them

Since sports organizations are viewed to possess hierarchal, patriarchal and hegemonic organizational structures, where gender differences are maintained (Brown & Evans, 2004), women are bound to encounter various individual, relational as well as organizational challenges. The greatest hindrance to women accessing leadership is the lack of confidence (Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). The feminine modesty theory best explains the ways in which women shy from creating their own visibility, which result in less women taking up leadership positions. For example, although she initiated a sports program at her workplace, Lany did not claim to own it, but instead she regarded it as an idea that was mooted with collaboration from others in the industry. She said:

We are the ones who started it, we put it together, it's an association of sports in hotels but also … this was me, and a few others from different other hotels. So we are the pioneers, who started that and I have been in there until I quit the hotel industry, since the inception.

Besides the feminine modesty theory, Sartore and Cunningham (2007) attribute underrepresentation of women in leadership to socialization and acceptance of social inequities as normal (Chabaya et al., 2009). The decision to keep a low profile or to remain invisible was not benefiting the women's agenda when it comes to equal access to sports. For instance, while media is known for its social functions, education, and influencing athletes popularity, as well as

196

attracting public interest in sports (Sage, 1998), women in the study failed to take advantage of this. Despite the inordinate amounts of time and research spent on advocating for increased media coverage of women sport (Cooky, Wachs, Messner, & Dworkin, 2010), participants reported that women leaders in sports tended to avoid the media. For example, it is ironical that while Billie, the most experienced woman in sport administration in Kenya, and winner of the African IOC 2007 women's award indicated that she preferred to keep a low profile; yet, she expressed disappointment when the government failed to recognize her achievements. Inadequate media coverage makes women in sports invisible (Tamir & Galily, 2010), thus, the decision to avoid the media did not help to advance women to leadership positions, and the lack of recognition of female leaders further marginalized women in sport leadership (Martel, 2007).

Marriage-motherhood-careers are often perceived as detrimental to the advancement of women into leadership or career development (Evetts, 1988; Robertson, 2010). Findings of this study support studies that show women as being overburdened with multiple roles (Branson, 2007; Eddy & Cox, 2008), which results in family- work conflicts. In fact Branson (2007) noted that a minority group of women took on more roles and responsibilities, and often they felt overstretched and exploited (Asher, 2010). For a number of women leaders in this study, multiple responsibilities threatened their marriages and family lives (Martel, 2007). However, the numbers of women that have successfully combined marriage, motherhood and career (Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Inglis et al., 2000; Robertson, 2010) have tremendously increased. Similarly, participants in this study were able to negotiate sporting careers and family. Robertson's (2010) research on female coaches in Canada focused on the struggles women leaders have, which led to development of family friendly policies in sports. Generally, despite the challenges, participants were seen as being committed, determined to stay, and also contributed to the decision-making process in their organizations.

Power, gender and masculinity issues emerged throughout the study, and they manifested in the gender allocation of positions and domination of power positions. Generally, men have been found to possess a sense of entitlement in matters of leadership, to the extent that highly

197

qualified women have been left without jobs because men dominate all of the highest leadership positions (Norman, 2010; Pfister & Radtke, 2009). In this study, participants indicated that men not only dictated positions to allocate to women, but constantly questioned women's leadership, participation in sports, attendance at meetings and decision-making processes. Under classification of power strategy (Webb & Macdonald, 2007), gender role expectations were emphasized, where one group of society is relegated to subordinate positions (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; Schell & Rodriquez, 2000) as inferred to by several participants in this study. Exclusion power techniques (Webb & Macdonald, 2007) such as withholding information, lack of transparent elections and holding meetings in bars and at unconventional hours were common. These findings are consistent with those in Martel's (2007) study, where meetings were held at unconventional hours and location so as to isolate women.

Interestingly, because men were determined to hold onto power, they were intolerant to women's demand for transparent operations within organizations. While the women desired organizations that prioritized accountability and efficient management, men seemed to be more interested in acquiring power. According to Therberge (1990), men and women perceive power differently. While men view leadership as position for acquiring power, women consider leadership as an avenue for mentoring and empowering others. Thus the conflict in interests often led men to use their muscle power to dislodge women from positions of power.

Resistance to change and determination to maintain status quo impeded the advancement of women into leadership positions. One of the most significant finding in this study was the lack of a system that could enable women to advance into sports federations' leadership, resulting from older members being reluctant to relinquish power. Surprisingly, it wasn't just the men holding onto power, but those women that had achieved high status seemed determined to keep other women out. Martel's (2007) study revealed that women leaders that had attained the top positions were reluctant to let go because they wanted to protect their turf. Branson (2007) refers to this as *the queen bee syndrome* " [which] occurs when the first women to reach a certain job classification or management level tries to exclude other women from the same level, status of

198

job classification" (P. 67). In this study, all participants viewed women as their own enemies and that instead of supporting each other; the women seemed to be agents of their own discrimination. It has been observed that if the infighting among women persists, then the chances of women attaining equal representation in leadership would diminish. Northouse (2010) advised that women to develop the social capital and use it to marshal support each other and acquire power.

Seemingly, subordination of women was further augmented by cultural beliefs that were accepted as normal practices, which defined gender positions (Sperandio, 2010), with those of women being subordinated (Eddy & Cox, 2008). Clearly, findings show that the empowerment of women seemed to stir a contradiction between culture and modern laws and policies. Although the world bodies propagate for equal opportunities, some of the cultural and imported post-colonial beliefs seem difficult to change. For example, the beliefs that equated male athletes going for competitions to warriors going to battle were used to deny women the team manager position as it was considered culturally inappropriate for women to lead men to war. These kinds of beliefs augment Sartore and Cunningham's (2007) notion that cultural socialization can result in people accepting unequal treatment as normal, with no attempt to do anything to change it.

Basically, culture is critical in the construction and maintenance of gender roles and positions, and in this regard, it cannot be ignored. For example Julien, Zinni, and Wright (2008) study on the Aboriginal female leadership showed that women leaders respected and accepted their cultural practices, infusing the cultural values and beliefs within their leadership practices, hence conflicting with modern feminism. Other researchers highlight the importance of culture and propose leaders to be cognizant of cultural practices within their organizations (Ayman & Korabik, 2010; House et al; 2004), with scholars like Pheko (2009) and Sperandio (2010) acknowledging the importance of, and respect for, cultural beliefs, but proposed a change in cultural attitudes that are more accepting of women as equals.

199

According to Pfister and Radtke (2009) organizational subtexts inhibit women from accessing leadership positions. Among the barriers identified in this study were requirements that certain positions be reserved for specific persons irrespective of their qualifications. Also, the failure to adhere to the stated rule of representation or changing rules to suit certain people helped created "cartels" that were used to effectively lock women out of leadership. When policies and laws are flouted, women leaders become the losers.   In this study, institutional mergers disenfranchised women in sports leadership. This is consistent with research that illustrated the consequences on the lives of women sport in the United States following the passage of Title IX (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008; Park, 2010).

Homophobia and sexual harassment are some of the dominating strategies that men use on women in sport. Researchers such as Fasting (2004) Fejgin and Hanegby (2001) discussed sexual harassment in sport, which resulted in a proposal to implement policies at the national and international levels (Krauchen & Ranson, 1999). In fact, the IOC adopted a consensus statement on Sexual harassment in 2007(www.olympic.org/Documents/Reports/EN/en_report_1125.pdf). While sexual harassment is considered an issue that affects women in all of the socio-political and economic environments, only two participants made reference to sexual harassment within sport federations in Kenya. The main concern in this study was about cultural beliefs that regarded any discussion of sex as a "taboo subject", thus making it difficult for sexual harassment and abuse cases to be addressed. This problem was further aggravated by the lack of women leaders and role models within sport organizations, which left female athletes vulnerable (Gunduz, Sunay, & Koz, 2007). Under the hegemonic dominance principles, men regard the entry of women into sports and leadership positions as a threat to the social order, hence the use of sexual harassment as a way of preserving male domination, a deed unheard of in indigenous sporting institutions.

In addition to sexual harassment, participants worked in hostile environments. For instance, one participant was threatened with physical harm, and another one was threatened with interdiction from her place of work.   Other concerns safety issues of female athletes such as

travel, lack of proper accommodation, and lack of finances, which often made it difficult for women and girls to participate in sport. Previous research shows sexual harassment, assignment of high-risk jobs, and hostile environment as a deterrent for women in sport (Branson, 2007; Gurthrie & Kauer, 2009; Messner, Duncan, & Jensen, 2007; Pfister & Radtke, 2006; Pfister & Radtke, 2006). World bodies such as IOC as well as some national sports federations have implemented policies to address these problems, so as to create a safe environment for girls and women. However, there seemed to be lack of protection policies in the Kenyan sports context.

Literature also shows that career progress for women tends to be slower than that of men (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). Findings showed women leaders to stagnate in positions with limited opportunities for growth thus discouraging those aspiring for leadership positions. For example instead of retiring from competitive sports to become coaches or team officials, female athletes chose to continue playing for their teams, citing stagnation and lack of opportunities in those roles as a hindrance. Lack of career progress for women in coaching and officiating had a negative spillover effect on athlete development as well leadership development (Bodey, 2007). Consequently, the lack of grooming of younger players is blamed for the dismal performance of Kenyan women's teams at the international levels. This observation calls for further interrogation on the training and professional development of leaders within the Kenyan sports federations. Previous research shows that limited career opportunities and stagnation are due to the structural factors within sport organizations (Colemana & Campbell-Stephens, 2010).

Women in sports leadership devised various coping strategies to overcome challenges that they encountered in the workplaces and sports arenas. In this study, resistance, advocacy, balancing family and work, empowering, role modeling and mentoring, networking and social support, and creating visibility were the strategies that women leaders used to overcome such challenges. Inglis et al's (2000) study on women sports administrators identified networking, education and improving ones' skills as strategies that helped them to cope with the challenges successfully. It was also clear that resistance, defiance of cultural practices that undermine women and assertiveness helped the women to stay in sport. By being assertive, women sports

201

leaders seemed to be advancing the work began by Kenyan female athletes in the 1970's, who defied the cultural stereotypes through running for change to curve out a place for inclusion of women in sports (Chepyator-Thomson, 2005). Furthermore, women in Africa used activism and they also actively fought for independence, and resisted colonialism and its values (Freedman, 2002). A number of researchers (Chabaya et al., 2009; Freedman, 2002; Mennesson, 2009; Pheko, 2009) have suggested education and socialization as ways of eliminating cultural stereotypes so as to advance women into leadership positions.

Laws and policies are critical to the development of women leaders. The advancement of women into leadership positions is attributed to the implementation of laws and policies such as the EOA and the Affirmative Action policies in the 1930's and 1960's respectively. Although a lot of organizations are yet to adopt or fully implement these laws and policies, participants observed that knowing the laws and applying them accordingly would help women in advancing into leadership positions. Despite the fact the majority of participants in this study stated that they were not aware of the Brighton statutes, most were conscious of the affirmative action policy, which was adopted in the promulgated 2010 Kenya Constitution, making the women to be optimistic that it would impact the sports policy on women sport. In addition, women leaders promised to advocate for the implementation of these policies, through relevant government structures and laws. Previous studies show policy as being responsible for the gains made by women in education and other social–economic as well as sports participation. The following statement by one of the participants underscores women's objectives on leadership:

> We want to stand for competitive elective posts, I hate being given quota system [token status'] women [should be] seen as equal partners that rightfully deserve the leadership positions - not a favor, freeing self from dependence on men to determine career path… taking advantage of the gender allocation rule of 30% first and then we… and going in for more competitive election to make 50%.

In summary, developing women leaders is a broad based, long-term and effective approach to empowerment of women. Concerted efforts are needed to eliminate existing barriers

at the individual, relational and organizational levels. Most important is acknowledging the important role that both men and women can play towards achieving the goal of advancing and promoting the welfare of women. Strategies to successfully advance women into leadership positions include professional training, education (Lafreniere & Longman, 2008), development of structural changes (Asher, 2010; Doherty & Manfredi, 2010), creating visibility (Ismail & Rasdi, 2008), and changing social cultural attitudes and development of family-friendly policies (Dominici et al., 2009).

Implications and Conclusions

Since there is scarcity of research that focuses on African women in sport leadership, this study adds to the existing literature on women sports and also provides a new cultural perspective on understanding studies on leadership. It is also important to point out that the understanding of experiences of African women in sport leadership requires an understanding of the historical as well as the social- political contexts. While diverse feminisms have been used to advocate for equal opportunities for women, it is important to understand that each of the feminists takes into consideration the context of the phenomenon. For example, one of the most understated cultural conflicts between African and Western cultures is that unlike in the West where women that were bound by Victorian cultures were subordinate to men, the African traditional society operated a structure where women were empowered, held equal responsibilities and actively participated in the decision making process (Chepyator-Thomson, 2005; Freedman, 2002). This implies that the purposes and objectives for the women's rights would differ in that, while African women's efforts are in regaining their lost power, the European women are seeking power and equality that they had never experienced before.

One conclusion made from this study is that lack of policies is the major impediment to women's empowerment, thus it is imperative that governments and their agencies implement empowerment policies and ensure that all stakeholders adopt them. These laws should include

those that deal with access to opportunities and protection policies, as well as those that help create a safe sports environment for girls and women.   Research studies indicated that women in leadership were highly educated individuals. This suggested that very high standards are required of those aspiring for leadership positions. Therefore it is imperative to have women leaders encouraged to attend professional development courses, as well as advance their education because this will enable them to remain relevant and contribute to the decision-making process within sports organizations.

This study also showed that schools and parents are critical in providing sports and socializing women into leadership.   In view of this, schools need to emphasize the importance of physical activities and sports by providing opportunities as well as involving parents to provide social and material support. In addition, physical education teachers and community leaders can be used to start developing women leaders at the grassroots levels by engaging them in sport activities. In this regard, it would be important for PE teachers to work with the women's sports body- TAKWIS, to reach out to the women at the grassroots levels. TAKWIS should expand its activities, advertise more and have representatives throughout the country to help promote women sports. The success displayed by women leaders indicated a unique perspective that women bring to organization which combines collaborative, nurturing, and strictness, and fundraising abilities, which resulted in efficiently managed programs. Federations need to tap into women's potential and special skills to help improve their programs.

Suggestions for Future Research

1. This research focused on the experiences of women in leadership that were 40 years and above. Future research should consider focusing on perspectives of younger women leaders that are below 40 years.

2. The study predominantly focused on women that were based in Nairobi. It would be important to get perspectives of women sports leaders in the rural areas.

3. Since sport organizations are male dominated, it would be important to examine the perspectives of men in sports federations on women leaders/ leadership.

4. Given that Christian missionary societies promoted colonial education including sport; it would be interesting to examine religion and its influences on sports participation in Kenya.

REFERENCES

Abdela, L. (2000). From palm tree to parliament: Training women for political leadership and public life. In C. Sweetman (Ed.), *Women and Leadership* (pp. 16-23) Oxford, UK: Oxfam GB.

Achola, P. P., & Njororai, W. W. S. (1999). Gender disparities in participation in sports in Africa: The case of Kenya. In L. O. Amusa, A. L. Toriola & I. U. Onyewadume (Eds.), *Physical education and sports in Africa* (pp. 319-330). Ibadan, Nigeria: IAP International publications limited.

Acosta, R. V., & Carpenter, L. J. (2008). *Women in intercollegiate sport: A longitudinal, national study, thirty one year update 1977-2008.*

Agezo, C. K. (2010). Female leadership and school effectiveness in junior high schools in Ghana. *Journal of Educational Administration, 48*(6), 689-703. doi: 10.1108/09578231011079557

Aina, O. (1998). African women at the grassroots: the silent partners of women's movements. In O. Nnaemeka (Ed). *Sisterhood, Feminisms and Power: From Africa to the Diaspora* (pp. 65-88).A Trenton, NJ: Africa World Press, Inc.

Allen, J. V. (1972). "Sitting on a man": Colonialism and the lost political institutions of Igbo women. *Canadian Journal of African Studies, 6*(2), 165-181.

Asher, N. (2010). How does the postcolonial, feminist academic lead? A perspective from the US south. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 13*(1), 63-76. doi: 10.1080/13603120903242915

Ayman, R., & Korabik, K. (2010). Leadership: Why gender and culture matter. *American Psychologist, 65*(3), 157-170.

Bale, J., & Sang, J. (1996). *Kenyan Running: Movement Culture, Geography and Global Change*. London: Frank Cass.

Bass, B. M. (1997). Concepts of leadership. In R. P. Vechio (Ed.), *Leadership: Understanding the dynamics of power and influence in organization* (pp. 3-23). Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.

Bodey, K. (2007). Organizational justice: A case of female sport managers in Morocco. *Impulelo: The Interdisciplinary Electronic Journal of African Sports, 2*

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Branson, D. M. (2007). *No Seat at the Table: How Corporate Governance and Law Keep Women out of the Board Room.* New York: New York University Press.

Brinia, V. (2011). Male educational leadership in Greek primary schools. *International Journal of Educational Management, 25*(2), 164-185. doi: 10.1108/09513541111107588

Bruening, J.E & Dixon, M.A. (2008). Situating work negotiations within a life course perspective: insights on gendered experiences of NCAA Division 1 head coaching mothers. *Sex roles*, 58(1-2), 10-23.

Brown, D., & Evans, J. (2004). Reproducing gender? Intergenerational links and male PE teacher as a cultural conduit in teaching physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 23*, 48-70.

Bryman, A. (2001). *Social Research Methods.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Budworth, M., & Mann, S. L. (2010). Becoming a leader: The challenge of modesty for women. *Journal of Management Development, 29*(2), 177-186. doi: 10.1108/02621711011019314

Burke, M., & Hallinan, C. (2006). Women's leadership in junior girls' basketball in Victoria: Foucault, feminism and disciplining women coaches. *Sport in Society, 9*(1), 19-31.

Burnett, C. (2002). Women, poverty and sport: A South African scenario. *Women in Sport and Physical Activity Journal, 11*(1), 23-48.

Burns, K. L. (1987). *Reconstructing leadership experiences: Toward a feminist theory of leadership (athletics).* (PhD, The University of Iowa)., 250. (8729446)

Caldwel-Colbert, A. T., & Albino, J. E. N. (2007). Women as academic leaders: Living the experience from the perspectives. In J. L. Chin, B. Lott, J. K. Rice & J. Sanchez- Hucles (Eds.), *Women and Leadership: Transforming Visions and Diverse Voices* (pp. 69-87). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Carlson, J. A. (2008). If I had only known: Challenges experienced by women new to the professoriate. *Advancing Women in Leadership, 28*, 2-2.

Chabaya, O., Rembe, S., & Wadesango, N. (2009). The persistence of gender inequality in Zimbabwe: Factors that impede the advancement of women into leadership positions in primary schools. *South African Journal of Education, 29*(2), 235-251.

Chandler, D. J. (2008). The impact of social modeling, cultural values, and support systems on the leadership development of emerging global women leaders. *Advancing Women in Leadership, 28*, 7-7.

Chepyator-Thomson, J. R. (2005). African women run for change: Challenges and achievements in sport. In J. R. Chepyator-Thomson (Ed.), *African women and globalization: Dawn of the 21st century.* (pp. 239-257). Trenton, NJ: Africa World Press Inc.

Chin, L. J. (2007). Preview: Women leadership transforming visions and diverse voices. In J. L. Chin, B. Lott, J. K. Rice & J. Sanchez-Hucles (Eds.), *Women and Leadership: Transforming Visions and Diverse Voices.* (pp. 1-17). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Chowdhury, F. D. (2009). Theorizing patriarchy: The Bangladesh context. *Asian Journal of Social Science, 37*(4), 599-622. doi: 10.1163/156853109X460200

Clayton, B., & Humberstone, B. (2007). 'Gender and race - what's that to do with football studies?' contested 'knowledges' in sport and leisure curricula in higher education. *Gender & Education, 19*(4), 513-533. DOI: 10.1080/09540250701442682

Cohen, G. L. (2001). The media industry: Representations, images and issues. In G. L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in Sport: Issues and Controversies.* (2nd ed., pp. 231-254). Exonhill MD.: AAHPERD Publications.

Coleman, M. (1996). Barriers to career progress for women in education: The perceptions of female head teachers. *Educational Research, 38*(3), 317.

Coleman, M. (2001). Achievement against the odds: The female secondary head teachers in England and Wales. *School Leadership & Management, 21*(1), 75-100. doi: 10.1080/13632430120033054

Coleman, M. (2003). Gender & leadership style: The self-perceptions of secondary head teachers. *Management in Education (Education Publishing Worldwide Ltd), 17*(1), 29-33.

Coleman, M. (2007). Gender and educational leadership in England: A comparison of secondary head teachers' views over time. *School Leadership & Management, 27*(4), 383-399. doi: 10.1080/13632430701562991

Colemana, M., & Campbell-Stephens, R. (2010). Perceptions of career progress: The experience of black and minority ethnic school leaders. *School Leadership & Management, 30*(1), 35-49. doi: 10.1080/13632430903509741

Cooky, C., Wachs, F. L., Messner, M., & Dworkin, S. L. (2010). It's not about the game: Don Imus, race, class, gender and sexuality. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 27*, 139-159.

Collins, J., & Singh, V. (2006). Exploring gendered leadership. In D. McTavish, & K. Miller (Eds.), *Women in Leadership and Management* (pp. 11-31). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Couturier, L., & Chepko, S. (2001). Separate world, separate lives, separate sporting models. In G. L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in Sport: Issues and Controversies* (2nd ed., pp. 57-78). Exonhill, MD.: AAHPERD publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among the Five Approaches.* (2nd ed.). Thousand-Oaks, CA: Sage publications.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspectives in the Research Process.* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cunningham, W. G., & Cordeiro, P. A. (2003). *Education Leadership: A Problem Based Approach.* (2nd ed.). Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

Dixon, M. A., Warner, S. M., & Bruening, J. E. (2008). More than just letting them play: Parental influence on women's lifetime sport involvement. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 25*(4), 538-559.

Doherty, L., & Manfredi, S. (2010). Improving women's representation in senior positions in universities. *Employee Relations, 32*(2), 138-155. doi: 10.1108101425451011010096

Dominici, F., Fried, L. P., & Zeger, S. L. (2009). SO FEW women leaders. *Academe, 95*(4), 25-27.

Duerden, M. D., & Witt, P. A. (2010). The impact of socialization on youth program outcomes: A

social development model perspective. *Leisure Sciences, 32*(4), 299-317.

doi:10.1080/01490400.2010.488189

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders.

Psychological Review, 109(3), 573.

Eddy, P. L., & Cox, E. M. (2008). Gendered leadership: An organizational perspective. *New

Directions for Community Colleges, 2008*(142), 69-79.

Eguaoje, B. (2007). *Bridging the gender gap in sport leadership: An evaluation of female soccer

coaches* (Doctoral Dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database

(UMI No.3275071)

Eisenstein, Z. (1999). Constructing a theory of capitalist patriarchy and socialist feminism.

Critical Sociology (Brill Academic Publishers), 25(2), 196-217. DOI:

10.1163/156916399746211

Evetts, J. (1988). Managing childcare and work responsibilities: The strategies of married women

primary and infant head teachers. *Sociological Review, 36*(3), 503-531. doi:10.1111/1467-

954X.ep5473839

Falola, T. (1995). Gender, business and space control: Yoruba market women and power. In B.

House-Midamba, & F. K. Ekechi (Eds.), *African market women and economic power: The

role of women in African economic development.* (pp. 23-40). Westport, Connecticut London:

Greenwood Press.

Fasting, K. (2004). Preventing sexual harassment in sport: A need for transforming coaching

education*? The 6^{Th} European Conference on Women and Sports.* Paris, France.

Fejgin, N., & Hanegby, R. (2001). Gender and cultural bias in perceptions of sexual harassment in sports. *International Review for Sociology of Sports, 36*(4), 459-478.

Fiedler, F. E. (1993). The leadership situation and the black box in contingency theories. In M. M. Chemers, & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions.* (pp. 1-28). San Diego.: Academic Press.

Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (2005). The interview from neutral stance to political involvement. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed., pp. 695-728). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Freedman, E. B. (2002). *No Turning Back: The History of Feminism and the Future of Women*. New York: Ballantine Books.

Giorgi, A. (1997). The theory, practice, and evaluation of the phenomenological method as a qualitative research. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology, 28*(2; 2), 235.

Glasersfeld, E. (1995). *A radical constructivism: A way of knowing and learning*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Glesne, C. (1999). *Becoming a Qualitative Researcher: An Introduction.* (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.

Greendorfer, S. L. (2001). Gender role stereotypes and early childhood socialization. In G. L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in sport: Issues and Controversies* (2nd ed., pp. 3-23). Exonhill MD.: AAHPERD Publications.

Griffin, P. (2001). Heterosexism, homophobia and lesbians in sports. In G. L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in sports: Issues and Controversies.* (2nd ed., pp. 279-290). Exonhill MD.: AAHPERD Publications.

Gunbayani, I. (2005). Women and men teachers' approaches to leadership styles. *Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal, 33*(7), 685-698.

Gunduz, N., Sunay, H., & Koz, M. (2007). Incidences of sexual harassment in turkey on elite sport women. *The Sport Journal, 10*(2)

Guthrie, S. R., & Kauer, K. (2009). The ongoing saga of homophobia in women sport. In S. R. Guthrie, T. M. Magayar, A. F. Malisewski & A. Wrynn (Eds.), *Women, Sport and Physical Activity: Challenges and Triumphs.* (2nd ed., pp. 161-174). IA.: Kedall/ Hunt Publishing.

Hargreaves, J. (1994). *Sporting Females: Critical Issues in the History and Sociology of Women Sports.* London: Routledge.

Hargreaves, J. (2001). The Olympic Games and the Olympic movement: Toward global understanding and acceptance. In G. L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in sport: Issues and Controversies* (2nd ed., pp. 255-278). Exonhill, MD: AAHPERD Publications.

Hargreaves, J. (2007). Olympic women: A struggle for recognition. In J. O'Reilley, & S. K. Cahn (Eds.), *Women and Sports In United States: A Documentary Reader.* (pp. 209-234). Boston: Northeastern University Press.

Hattery, A. J. (2010). Feminist theory and the study of sport: An illustration from Title IX. In E. Smith (Ed.), *The Sociology of Sport and Social Theory.* (pp. 97-113). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Haverkamp, B. E., & Young, R. A. (2007). Paradigms, purpose, and the role of literature: Formulating a rationale for qualitative investigations. *The Counseling Psychologist, 25*(2), 265-294.

Henry, I. P., & Robinson, L. (2010). *Gender equality and leadership in Olympic bodies.* International Olympic Committee and Centre for Olympic Studies & Research, Loughborough University.

Henry, I., W. Radzi., E. Rich., C. Shelton., E. Theodoraki., & A. White. (2004). *Women, leadership and the Olympic movement.* Loughborough: Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy, Loughborough University and the International Olympic Committee.

Hertneky, R. P. (2010). The role of balance in women's leadership self-identity. *Advancing Women in Leadership, 30*(14), 1-12.

Higgs, J. (2001). Charting standpoints in qualitative research. In H. Byrne-Armstrong, J. Higgs & D. Horsfall (Eds.), *Critical Moments in Qualitative Research* (pp. 44-67). Oxford: Butterworth- Heinemann.

Hoffman, J. L. (2006). *Inside the huddle: Title IX and women's leadership in intercollegiate athletics* (Doctoral Dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database (UMI No. 3230765)

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, Leadership and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hoyt, C. L. (2010). Women and leadership. In P. G. Northouse (Ed.), *Leadership Theory and Practice* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Inglis, S., Danylchuk, K. E., & Pastore, D. L. (2000). Multiple realities of women's work experiences in coaching and athletic management. *Women in Sport and Physical Activity Journal, 9*(2), 1-26.

Ismail, M., & Rasdi, R. M. (2008). Leadership in an academic career: Uncovering the experience of women professors. *International Studies in Educational Administration (Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration & Management (CCEAM), 36*(3), 87-103.

Julien, M., Zinni, D., & Wright, B. (2008). Keeper of the drums: Female aboriginal leadership and the salience of gender. *Advancing Women in Leadership, 28*, 3-3.

Kay, T., & Jeans, R. (2008). Women, sport and gender inequity. In B. Houlihan (Ed.), *Sport and society: A student Introduction.* (pp. 130-154). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Klenke, K. (2008). *Qualitative Research in the Study of Leadership.* United Kingdom: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Krane, V., Choi, Y. L., Baird, S. M., Aimar, C. M., & Kauer, K. J. (2007). Living the paradox: Female athletes negotiate femininity and masculinity. In J. O'Reilley, & S. K. Cahn (Eds.), *Women and Sports in United States: A Documentary Reader* (pp. 81-100). Boston: Northeastern University Press.

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interview* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.

La Croix, R. (2007). *"You've come part of the way, baby": The status of women and women's sports in intercollegiate athletics 28 years after Title IX* (Doctoral Dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3301568).

Lafreniere, S. L., & Longman, K. A. (2008). Gendered realities and women's leadership development: Participant voices from faith-based higher education. *Christian Higher Education, 7*(5), 388-404. doi: 10.1080/15363750802171081

Lebean, M. E. (2001). High school physical education and sport: Are we making progress? In G. L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in Sport. Issues and Controversies* (2nd ed., pp. 155-176). Exonhill MD: AAHPERD Publications.

Le Compte, M. D. (2000). Analyzing qualitative data. *Theory in Practice, 39*(3), 146-154.

Levitt, D. H. (2010). Women and leadership: A developmental paradox? *Adultspan: Theory Research & Practice, 9*(2), 66-75.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1986). But is it rigorous? Trustworthiness and authenticity in naturalistic evaluation. In D. D. Williams (Ed.), *New Directions for Program Evaluation* (pp. 30). SanFrancisco: Jossey-Bass.

Longwe, S. H. (2000). Towards realistic strategies for women's political empowerment in Africa. In C. Sweetman (Ed.), *Women and leadership* (pp. 24-30). Oxford: Oxfam GB.

Magdola, P., & Weems, l. (2002). Doing harm: An unintended consequence of qualitative inquiry. *Journal of College Student Development, 43*(4), 490-507.

Martel, J. (2007). *"It's a long road to the top": The career paths and leadership experiences of women in Canadian sport administration* (Master's Thesis, University of British Columbia). Retrieved from

http://www.oregonpdf.org/printcript.cfm?path=../pdf%5C&src=PE4835Martel(19-2).pdf

Mathison, S. (1988). Why triangulate? *Educational Researcher, 17*(2), 13-17.

Mattila, R. (2010). Women and sport bridging participation and leadership. *International Sports Management Conference: Bridging Research and Practice,* Lausanne.

Maürtin-Cairncross, A. (2009). A still-chilly climate: Experiences of women in leadership positions in South African higher education. *On Campus with Women, 38*(1), 10-10.

Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative Research Design: An Interactive Approach.* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.

McAllister, S. L. (2006). *Women administrators' perceptions of the contribution of competitive sport experiences to their career paths and leadership practices* (Doctoral Dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertation and Theses database. (UMI No.3233941)

McCartney, J. (2007). *The underrepresentation of women in athletics leadership: A qualitative study of NCAA division II women coaches and administrators* (Doctoral Dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3268632).

McCallister, S. G., Blinde, E. M., & Phillips, J. M. (2003). Prospects for change in a new millennium: Gender beliefs of young girls in sport and physical activity. *Women in Sport and Physical Activity Journal, 12*(2), 83-109.

Mennesson, C. (2009). Being a man in dance: Socialization modes and gender identities. *Sport in Society, 12*(2), 174-195. doi: 10.1080/17430430802590979

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Merriam, S. B. (2002). Assessing and evaluating qualitative research. In B. Merriam, & Associates. (Eds.), *Qualitative Research in Practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Messner, M., & Duncan, M.C. & Jensen, K. (2007). Separating the men from the girls: The gendered language of televised sports. In J. O'Reilley, & S. K. Cahn (Eds.), *Women and Sports in United States: A Documentary Reader* (pp. 265-281). Boston: Northeastern University Press.

Morrow, S. L. (2007). Qualitative research in counseling psychology: Conceptual foundations. *The Counseling Psychologist, 35*(2), 209-235.

Mullen, C. A. (2009). Challenges and breakthroughs of female department chairs across disciplines in higher education. *Advancing Women in Leadership, 29*(9), 1-1.

Nkomo, S. M., & Ngambi, H. (2009). African women in leadership: Current knowledge and a framework for future studies. *International Journal of African Renaissance Studies, 4*(1), 49-68.

Noh, Y. (2010). A study analyzing the career path of librarians. *Journal of Academic Librarianship, 36*(4), 329-346.

Nohria, N., & Khurana, R. (2010). Advancing leadership theory and practice. In N. Nohria, & R. Khurana (Eds.), *Handbook of leadership and practice.* (pp. 3-25). Boston: Harvard Business Press.

Norman, L. (2010). Feeling second best: Elite women coaches' experiences. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 27*(1), 89-104.

Northouse, P. G. (2007). *Leadership Theory and Practice* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership Theory and Practice* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Nyanjom, O. (2008). *Foul play: The crisis of football management in Kenya.* Retrieved from http://www.africog.org/reports/The%20crisis%20of%20football%20management%20in%20Kenya.

Nzwili, F. (2006). *Kenya's fast women are also off-track champions.* Retrieved from http://www.womensenews.org/article.cfm/dyn/aid/2935/

Omwami, E., M. (2011). Relative-change theory: Examining the impact of patriarchy, paternalism, and poverty on the education of women in Kenya. *Gender and Education, 23*(1), 15-28.

Oplatka, I. (2001). 'I changed my management style': The cross-gender transition of women head teachers in mid-career. *School Leadership & Management, 21*(2), 219-233. doi:10.1080/13632430120054781

Ogutu, E. (2010) Affirmative action yet to be achieved despite efforts. Retrieved from

    http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/news/InsidePage.php?id=2000005145&cid=4&

Palmer, F. R., & Masters, T. M. (2010). Māori feminism and sport leadership: Exploring Māori

    women's experiences. *Sport Management Review, 13*(4), 331-344. doi:

    10.1016/j.smr.2010.06.001

Park, R. J. (2010). 'Women as leaders: What women have attained in and through the field of

    physical education'. *International Journal of the History of Sport, 27*(7), 1250-1276. doi:

    10.1080/09523361003696205

Patton, M. (2002). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA:

    Sage.

Pelonis, P., & Gialamas, S. (2010). An international perspective of academic leadership.

    International Schools Journal, 30(1), 72-85.

Peshkin, A. (1988). In search of subjectivity- one's own. *Educational Researcher, 1*7(7), 17-37.

Pfister, G., & Radtke, S. (2006). Dropping out: Why male and female leaders in German sports

    federations break off their careers. *Sport Management Review, 9*, 111-139.

Pfister, G., & Radtke, S. (2009). Sport, women, and leadership: Results of a project on executives

    in German sports organizations. *European Journal of Sport Science, 9*(4), 229-243.

Phendla, T. (2008). The paradox of Luselo-Lufhanga metaphors: African women defining

    leadership for social justice. *International Studies in Educational Administration*

    (Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration & Management (CCEAM)), 36(1),

    22-40.

Pheko, M. (2009). Strategies to ensure that no Motswana female leader "starts from behind" by giving young Batswana girls a head start at primary schools. *International Journal of Learning, 16*(6), 569-582.

Poulsen, A. L. (2004). Female physical education teachers in Copenhagen, 1900-1940: A collective biography. *International Journal of the History of Sport, 21*(1), 16-33.

Preissle, J. (2008). Analytic induction. In L. M. Given (Ed.), *The SAGE Encyclopaedia of Qualitative Research Methods* (pp. 15-16). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Raija, M. (2010). *Women and sport bridging participation and leadership.* Retrieved from International Working Group on Women and Sport website: http://www.iwg-gti.org/

Reissman, C. K. (2008). *Narrative Methods for Human Sciences.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rintala, J., & Bischoff, J. A. (1997). Persistent resistance: Leadership positions for women in Olympic sport governing bodies. *OLYMPIKA: The International Journal of Olympic Studies, 6*, 1-24.

Robertson, S. (2010). Perils and pleasures of coaching in motherhood. In S. Robertson (Ed.), *Taking the Lead: Strategies and Solutions from Female Coaches.* (pp. 3-35). Edmonton: The University of Alberta Press.

Rosenberge, K. M., & Daly, H. B. (1993). *Foundations of Behavioral Science: A Basic Question Approach.* Philadelphia: Harcourt Brace College.

Rossman, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (1998). *Learning in the Field. An Introduction to Qualitative Research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Roulston, K. (2001). Data analysis and 'theorizing as ideology'. *Qualitative Research, 1*(3), 279-302.

Sabo, D., & Messner, M. (2001). Whose body is it? Women's sports and sexual politics. In G. L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in Sport: Issues and Controversies.* (2nd ed., pp. 23-35). Exonhill MD.: AAHPERD Publications.

Sadler, P. (1997). *Leadership.* London: Cooper & Lybrand.

Sage, G. H. (Ed.). (1998). *Power and Ideology in American Sport: A Critical perspective*. (2nd ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Saldana, J. (2009). *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Sanchez-Hucles, J., & Davis, D. D. (2010). Women and women of color in leadership. *American Psychologist, 6*5(3), 171-181. doi: 10.1037/a0017459

Sartore, M. L., & Cunningham, G. B. (2007). Under-representation of women in leadership positions. *Journal of Sport Management, 2*1(4), 606.

Schell, L. A., & Rodriquez, S. (2000). Our sporting sisters: How male hegemony stratifies women in sport. *Women in Sport and Physical Activity Journal,* 9, 15-34.

Segura, D. A. (2007). Working at motherhood: Chicana and Mexicana immigrant mothers and employment. In V. Taylor, N. Whitter & L. J. Rupp (Eds.), *Feminist Frontiers* (7th ed., pp. 271-285). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Seidman, I. (2006). *Interviewing as a Qualitative Research: A Guide to Researchers in Education and Social Sciences.* (3rd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.

Shakeshaft, C., Brown, G., Irby, B. J., Grogan, M., & Ballenger, J. (2007). Increasing gender equity in educational leadership. In S.S. Klein, B. Richardson, D.A. Grayson, L.H. Fox, C. Kramarae, D.S. Pollard, & C.A. Dwyer. *Handbook for Achieving Gender Equity through Education* (2nd ed., pp. 103-129).

Shelton, C. M. P. (2001). International challenges for women in sport: The quite revolution. In G.

    L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in Sport: Issues and Controversie*s (2nd ed., pp. 421-439). Exonhill

    MD.: AAHPERD Publications.

Sperandio, J. (2010). Modeling cultural context for aspiring women educational leaders*. Journal*

    *of Educational Administration, 4*8(6), 716-726. doi: 10.1108/09578231011079575

Sperandio, J., & Kagoda, A. M. (2010). Women teachers' aspirations to school leadership in

    Uganda*. International Journal of Educational Management, 2*4(1), 22-33. doi:

    10.1108/09513541011013024

Staurowsky, E. J. (1990). Women coaching male athletes. In M. A. Messner, & D. F. Sabo (Eds.),

    *Sport, Men, and the Gender Order: Critical Feminist Perspective*s (pp. 163-170). Champaign,

    IL: Human Kinetics.

Surdakasa, N. (1987).The 'status of women' in indigenous African societies. In R. Terborg - Penn ;

    S. Harley & A.B. Rushing (Eds). *Women in Africa and the African Diaspora* (pp. 25-41).

    Washington: Howard University Press.

Suzuki, L. A., Ahluwalia, M. K., Arora, A. K., & Mattis, J. S. (2007). The pond you fish

    determines the fish you catch: Exploring strategies for qualitative data collection. *The*

    *Counseling Psychologist, 3*5(2), 295-327.

Swanson, R. A., & Spears, B. (1995). *History of Sports and Physical Education in the United*

    States. (4th ed.). Madison: Brown & Benchmark.

Tamale, S. (2000). 'Point of order, Mr. Speaker': African women claiming their space in

    parliament. In C. Sweetman (Ed.), *Women and Leadershi*p (pp. 8-15). Oxford, UK: Oxfam

    GB.

Tamir, I., & Galily, Y. (2010). Women's sports coverage in Israel: Perception versus reality. *International Journal of Sport Communication, 3*(1), 92-112.

Theberge, N. (1990). Gender, work, and power: The case of women in coaching. *Canadian Journal of Sociology, 15*(1), 59-75.

Therberge, N., & Birell, S. (2007). Structural constraints facing women in sport. In J. O'Reilley, & S. K. Cahn (Eds.), *Women and Sports in United States: A Documentary Reade*r (pp. 167-176). Boston: Northeastern University Press.

Thomas, D. R. (2006). A general approach for analyzing qualitative evaluation data. *American Journal of Evaluation, 27*(2), 237-246.

Triandis, H. C. (1993). The contingency model in cross cultural perspective. In M. M. Chemers, & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Direction*s (pp. 167-188). San Diego: Academic Press.

Triola, T. (2008). *Under representation of female Athletic Directors at the secondary level: Thirty five years later* (Doctoral Dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No.3313322)

Vanderbroeck, P. (2010). The traps that keep women from reaching the top and how to avoid them. *Journal of Management Development, 2*9(9), 764-770. doi: 10.1108/02621711011072478

Vella, S. A., Oades, L. G., & Crowe, T. P. (2010). Review: The application of coach leadership models to coaching practice: Current state and future directions. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 5*(3), 425-434.

Webb, L. A., & Macdonald, D. (2007). Techniques of power in physical education and the underrepresentation of women in leadership. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 26*(279), 297.

White, A., & Scoretz, D. (2002). *From Windhoek to Montreal: Women and sport progress report 1998-2002* by the International Women Group on Women and Sport (IWG). Retrieved from www.mujerydeporte.org/documentos/docs/womenandsportmontreal.pdf

White, C. M. (1981). Opportunities for women in sport. *FIEP Bulletin, 51*, 14-21.

Whitely, W., Dougherty, T. W., & Dreher, G. F. (1991). Relationship of career mentoring and socioeconomic origin to managers' and professionals' early career progress. *The Academy of Management Journal, 34*(2), pp. 331-351.

Women's Sports Foundation. (2004). *UK strategy framework for women and sports: Progress made towards objectives and targets in 2004 and analysis of the current situation.*

WSF. (2007). *Women's sports and physical activity facts and statistics.* Retrieved from Women's Sport Foundation website:

http://www.womenssportsfoundation.org/binarydata/WSF_ARTICLE/pdf_fil

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Describe your path of leadership

    a.   How did you start?

    b.   When did you actually decide you want to be a leader

    c.   What critical moments occurred to make you want to be a leader?

2. What factors influenced your choice of a career in sports leadership?

    a.   How was your family involved?

    b.   What was the role of the school in influencing your choice?

3. What are your roles and responsibilities in the organization?

    a.   What positions do you occupy in the organization/ institution?

    b.   What are your assigned duties?

    c.   To what extent are you involved in the decision making process?

4. Who do you emulate while in leadership position?

5. What do you consider to be your leadership style?

    a.   How do you get people do what they need to do?

6. What challenges do you encounter as a sports leader?

7. How do you overcome these challenges?

8. What are your future aspirations or goals as a woman in sports leadership?

APPENDIX B: **PARTICIPANT PROFILE FORM**

1. Your name(Pseudonym):_____

    Current position: _____

    Work or home address: _____

    Phone: _____   Fax: _____

    Email: _____

2. Educational attainment

	Year awarded	Major Field	College/ University

Bachelors _____

Masters _____

Doctorate_____

Professional_____

Other_____

3. List any job positions you held prior to your current positions

Title /Rank   Name of Organization/Institution   Dates from-to

   _____

   _____

   _____

4. What sport(s) did you play in school? Please list and label the levels that apply

Sport   School level   Competitive level

E.g. Netball   Primary/Secondary   District/Provincial/National/International

   _____

   _____

5. List any special awards including captain, MVP, and others that you have received in your athletic career

_____

_____

6. If you have previously been coach, PE teacher or held any sports administrative position, list them

Title   Name of Institution /Organization   Role   Dates from-to

_____

7. List the professional, volunteer, and women's organizations in which you have served or are serving (e.g., corporate or institutional boards, community agencies etc.).

Title   Name of Institution/ Organization   Role   Dates from-to

_____

8. Marital Status (circle all that apply)   Indicate Years

        Single never married…………………….1_____

        Married ………………………………. 2_____

        Separated/Divorced………………………3_____

        Widowed …………………………………4 _____

9. Children

        Boys, ages _____

        Girls , ages _____

10. Highest level of education completed by your present spouse/partner (circle one)

        Less than high school…………………………………………………1

        High school graduate……………………………………………….2

College graduate………………………………………………………………3

University graduate…………………………………………………………4

Some graduate school………………………………………………………5

Graduate or professional degree……………………………………………6

Other ………………………………………………………………………..

11. Highest level of education completed by your parents (circle one for each)

	Mother	Father
Less than high school……………………1		1
High school graduate…………………….2		2
College graduate…………………………3		3
University graduate………………………4		4
Some graduate school…………………….5		5
Graduate or professional degree………….6		6
Other …………………………………….7		7

12. Father occupation (specify):_____

13. Mother occupation (specify):_____

14. Number of siblings: Brother(s)_____ Sister(s)_____

15. What are your current interests/ hobbies/ leisure or recreational activities?

Thank you for your time. Please contact me if you have any questions.

Janet M'mbaha email: jmusimbi@uga.edu or

Dr. J. Chepyator- Thomson   email: jchepyat@uga.edu

APPENDIX C: INVITATION LETTER TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY

Dear Participant,

You have been identified as one of Kenyan women leaders in sports. I am writing to request your participation in my dissertation research. Hence the purpose of this email is to request you to be participant in the study on women in sport leadership in Kenya, which I intend to conduct in June-July 2011.

My dissertation study focuses on the experiences of women in leadership, their career paths and progress, as well as the role of women in decision making positions, particularly their challenges, triumphs and aspirations. As one of the women leaders in Kenyan sports, your input in this research would be greatly appreciated. This study will not only serve as the starting point in the documentation of the important contributions that Kenyan women have made in sports, but also serve as a legacy, and as an inspiration to other women who wish to assume positions of leadership in Kenya. In addition the findings from this study will have some implications on the policy on women in leadership in Kenya.

Please let me know your willingness to participate in study by emailing me your preferred mailing address and phone number. I promise that all information shared will be treated as confidential.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Janet Musimbi M'mbaha

Department of Kinesiology

The University of Georgia

APPENDIX D: CONSENT LETTER

Dear participant,

I am seeking your permission to participate on a research study titled "Experiences of Women in Sports Leadership in Kenya". I am a PhD candidate from Kinesiology Department at the University of Georgia, U.S.A, and conducting the study under the direction of faculty advisor Dr. Rose Chepyator-Thomson.

Your participation in the study is voluntary which means that you are allowed to refuse to participate or withdraw at any time during the study, without providing any reason and without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled and that any identifiable information that you will have provided will be erased from research records.

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts associated with the subject of my study; however, the nature of the research requires me to gather personal information related to your life and career, which at times may include sensitive are instances. If at any time you become uncomfortable with the discussion, you have the right to choose not to answer the question, and we will move on to another point.

Using individual face to face interviews, the study will examine career paths and progress; leadership practices; challenges and coping strategies; and prospects of women in sports leadership in Kenya. I hope that your participation in the study will inspire other women aspiring for leadership positions in sports, and that the study will influence policy on women in leadership in Kenya.

Interviews will be conducted at a time and place that will be convenient to both the interviewer and interviewee. The interview will be a one-time 60 to 90 minutes interview. However, I may ask for subsequent interviews if need arises. I will audio record the entire

interview and will occasionally take some notes. To ensure confidentiality of the shared

individually-identifiable information, pseudonyms will be used, and all data will be kept in a

secure place and I will be the only person with access to it. If you have any questions about the

research, I can be reached by telephone at 7064105377 or email at jmusimbi@uga.edu

By signing this form, you agree that you understand the study procedures

described above and that   your questions have been answered to your satisfaction, and

you agree to voluntarily to participate in this study. You have been given a copy of this

form to keep.

_____   _____   _____

Name of Researcher   Signature   Date

_____   _____   _____

Name of Participant   Signature   Date

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should

be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia,

612 Boyd Graduate studies research center, Athens, Georgia, 30602-7411; Telephone

(706)542-3199; E-mail address IRB@uga.edu

APPENDIX E: GRAY'S GENDERED PARADIGMS (1993)

Feminine	Masculine
• Nurturing	• Defensive
• Caring	• Highly Regulated
• Creative	• Conformist
• Intuitive	• Normative
• Aware of Individual Differences	• Competitive
• Non- Competitive	• Evaluative
• Tolerant	• Discipline
• Subjective	• Objective
• Formal	• Formal

Note: Cited in Coleman (2003, p. 30).