

**The Brighton Declaration on  
Women and Sport:  
A Management Audit of Process Quality**

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Promoter, Professor Doctor A. E. Goslin  
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## **DEDICATION**

This doctoral thesis is dedicated to my family members, particularly my father, Aloysius Louis Kluka, and my mother, Lillian Malkovsky Kluka, who provided me with a love for lifelong learning and a passion to travel. Tatínek a maminka, děkuji Vám pro všechno co vy jste pro mě udělali.

This is also dedicated to the thousands of students I have had the privilege of working with. Their individual and collective effects on my professional and personal paradigms have added phenomenal value to my life.

## Declarations

I, Darlene A. Kluka, herewith declare that the language of this research report has been American English edited in the APA style by Professor Dr. Carole Tabor, Louisiana Tech University, Ruston, USA, retired and former Department Chair, English and Professor Dr. Phyllis A. Love, Director, Kinesiology and Sport Studies, Grambling State University, Grambling, Louisiana, USA.

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Darlene A. Kluka

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Date

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my own original work and has not been previously used in full or in part at any other university for degree purposes.

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Darlene A. Kluka

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Date

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## SUMMARY

**Candidate:** Darlene Ann Kluka (Ph. D.)  
**Degree:** D. Phil (Human Movement Science)  
**Title of Thesis:** The Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport: A Management Audit of Process Quality  
**Promoter:** Prof Dr A.E. Goslin (University of Pretoria)  
**Co-Promoter:** Prof Dr B. J.M. Steyn (University of Pretoria)

The development of gender mainstreaming programs and proactive work aimed at addressing the historical imbalances of women in all sectors of society have become the staple of most international meetings with a concern for human rights. From a sport perspective, a number of organizations are keeping this critical issue alive at global, regional, international and national levels through policy documents, declarations and calls for action since 1948 to 2008 with the Dead Sea call for action. The Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport signed in 1994 by 250 signatories is universally regarded as the ground-breaking work on Women and Sport. Yet, despite years of campaigning and numerous policy documents, legislation and world conferences on women and sport, a marked gender imbalance in sport still persists. Little or no qualitative evidence could be found of clear process strategies to be followed by signatories of the Brighton Declaration on how to translate strategic intent into quality management processes to attain the envisioned result of the Declaration. Successful implementation of the principles of the Brighton Declaration depends on quality internal organizational processes and standards. The research question for the study was hence formulated as:

*“Do signatories of the Brighton Declaration have appropriate management processes and standards in place to translate the principles of the Declaration into sustainable practice?”* The study was approached from a qualitative perspective as the perceptions of signatories relative to the quality of management processes have been evaluated. A questionnaire (Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient  $\alpha=0.978$ ) based on ISO 9001-2000 management standards was used as a research instrument and administered to 246 currently existing signatories of the Brighton Declaration. A response rate of 51% (n=125) was attained.

Several international and regional organizations emerged as role players in women and sport. The United Nations provided leadership through conventions on human rights, Millennium Development Goals and declaring 2005 as International Year of Sport and Physical Education. The International Olympic Committee took initiative through quadrennial world conferences on women and sport since 1994. From the seminal “Women, Sport and the Challenge of Change” conference in Brighton, England in 1994, flowed three culminating results: the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport, the International Working Group on Women and Sport and the International Strategy on Women and Sport. The Brighton Declaration signed by 250 signatories, enlarged and coordinated the global debate on women and sport as the first declaration to provide a worldwide ethical frame of reference and paradigm shift in social change for the construct of women in sport and women and sport.

The issue of women and sport continuously remains on the agenda of global social change. The convening power of sport makes it a compelling tool for social change provided its potential is harnessed through sustainable management and processes. Social change necessitates an understanding of social change theories, stages of change management, the role of change agents as well as change management models. The major challenge facing women and sport groups is to translate strategic intent into measurable and replicable business process standards. Designing and institutionalizing processes and standards can be the mechanism to realize strategic intent and progress signatories through the stages of change management. Dawson’s (1994) processual model is used as a theoretical framework to conceptualize process management and to build a case for mapping business processes, managing quality of the processes, and continuously auditing processes through replicable standards. ISO 9001-2000 standards were selected as the instrument to audit quality management processes of signatories.

Overall results obtained from the research questionnaire indicated an alarming ignorance of the Brighton Declaration as a benchmark of efforts to improve the position of women in sport and second an absence of management processes and standards to guide the process within signatories of the declaration.

Only 2.8% of respondents indicated a process management system. Signatories have not institutionalized gender mainstreaming in a sport context. Results confirmed unequivocally H1 set for the study: the quality of management processes followed by signatories of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport (1994) to achieve the principles of the stated declaration is unsatisfactory.

It was concluded that, in essence, the Brighton Declaration is an initiative to affect social change in the context of sport. Efforts to achieve the desired social change have to be managed and benchmarked according to change management models and processes to retain credibility and attain replicable and repeatable results. The ISO 9001-2000 is deemed a reliable instrument and framework to guide management process design, mapping, documenting, implementing, supporting, monitoring and controlling management processes. The alarming lack of management processes resulted in a significant gap between strategic intent and reality and suggests that the notion of gender mainstreaming feeds on emotion rather than replicable management processes. The Brighton Declaration as a seminal document will not impact substantially on achieving gender mainstreaming in sport as signatories have not succeeded in creating a critical mass necessary to tip the scale. Results also indicated that signatories are locked into the introductory stages of change management because of the lack of organized change. Low levels of competent leadership responsible for managing the change process results in loss of corporate memory regarding the Brighton Declaration.

The study is concluded with recommendations and managerial guidelines focusing on building a critical mass, revisiting the significance of the seminal Brighton Declaration. A universal declaration on women and sport is recommended to serve as the nexus for global efforts to improve the position of women in sport. Signatories should adopt a managerial approach to the implementation of the Brighton Declaration rather than a social philanthropic awareness approach to move forward.

Implications for further study center around investigating possible performance management systems in order to refine or supplement the recommended ISO 9001-2000

standards for quality management processes, longitudinally audit quality management processes at international and regional levels, and probing the possibility of formulating a universal declaration on women and sport to accelerate critical mass building in the context of women and sport.

**Key Words:** Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport, women and sport, social change, quality of process management, management of change, gender mainstreaming in sport, declarations on women and sport, global and regional policies on women and sport, monitoring the management process, managerial guidelines for effective implementation

## OPSOMMING

**Kandidaat:** Darlene Ann Kluka (Ph. D.)  
**Graad:** D. Phil (Human Movement Science)  
**Titel:** “The Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport: A Management Audit of Process Quality”  
**Promoter:** Prof Dr A.E. Goslin (Universiteit van Pretoria)  
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Die ontwikkeling van gendergelykheidsprogramme en –aksies gerig op die verbetering van historiese wanbalanse in die posisie van die vrou in die samelewing, vorm ‘n sentrale fokuspunt op talle internasionale platforms gemoeid met menseregte. Internasionale, kontinentale sowel as nasionale organisasies fokus op die posisie van die vrou in sport deur middel van beleidsdokumente, verklarings en oproepe tot aksie wat strek oor ‘n tydperk vanaf 1948 tot 2008 met die “*Dead Sea call for action*”. Die Brighton Deklarasie oor Vroue en Sport word allerweë beskou as die baanbrekerwerk ten opsigte van vroue in sport. Nieteenstaande veertien jaar van projekte, wêreldkongresse en beleidsdokumente, is daar steeds ‘n waarneembare wanbalans ten opsigte van die posisie van vroue in sport. Weinige substantiewe kwalitatiewe bewyse van duidelike strategieë vir die omskakeling van strategiese voornemens na aksies vir die implementering van die beginsels van die Brightondeklarasie is gevind. Suksesvolle implementering van die Brightondeklarasie berus op kwaliteit en gepaste interne organisasiebestuursprosesse en standaarde. Die onderliggende navorsingsvraag vir hierdie studie is dus geformuleer as “*Het ondertekenaars van die Brighton Deklarasie gepaste en kwaliteit bestuursprosesse en-standaarde in plek om die beginsels van die Brighton Deklarasie in volhoubare aksies om te skakel?*” Die studie is vanuit ‘n kwalitatiewe perspektief benader aangesien die ondertekenaars se persepsies ten opsigte van die kwaliteit van bestuursprosesse gemeet is.

‘n Vraelys gebaseer op ISO 9001-2000 bestuursprosesstandaarde (Cronbach’s Alpha Kwofisiënt  $\infty = 0.978$ ) is as navorsingsinstrument aan 246 ondertekenaars van die Brightondeklarasie wat tans nog bestaan, geadministreer. ‘n Responskoers van 51% (n=125) is verkry.

Verskeie internasionale en streeksorganisasies het na vore getree as rolspelers in die vroue- en sportbeweging. Die Verenigde Volke Organisasie (VVO) het leiding geneem deur middel van konvensies, die Millennium Ontwikkelingsdoelstellings sowel as die Internasionale Jaar vir Sport en Ligaamlike Opvoeding in 2005. Inisiatiewe deur die Internasionale Olimpiese Komitee wentel om vierjaarlikse internasionale konferensies oor vroue en sport sedert 1994. Drie inisiatiewe spruit uit die seminale Brightonkongres (“Women, Sport and the Challenge of Change”): die Brightondeklarasië oor vroue en sport, die internasionale werksgroep oor vroue en sport en die internasionale strategie oor vroue en sport. Die Brightondeklarasië is oorspronklik deur 250 organisasies onderteken en word algemeen aanvaar as die leidende deklarasië om ‘n globale etiese raamwerk aan ondertekenaars te verskaf ten einde ‘n paradigmatuif ten opsigte van die posisie van die vrou in sport te bewerkstellig.

Die kwessie van vroue in sport is voortdurend op die agenda van globale sosiale verandering. Die saambindende krag van sport maak dit ‘n bruikbare instrument vir sosiale verandering gegewe dat die potensiaal daarvan deur middel van volhoubare bestuursprosesse gerig word. Sosiale verandering noodsaak ‘n begrip van sosiale veranderingsteorieë, die fases van die bestuur van verandering, die rol van veranderingsagente sowel as modelle vir die bestuur van verandering. Die primêre struikelblok waarmee vroue-in-sportgroepe gekonfronteer word is hul skynbare onvermoë om strategiese voornemens om te skakel in herhaalbare besigheidsprosesstandaarde. Die ontwerp en institusionalisering van prosesse en standaarde kan die meganisme wees waardeur ondertekenaars gelei word deur die fases van die bestuur van verandering. Dawson (1994) se prosesmodel vir bestuursprosesse is geneem as teoretiese raamwerk vir die konseptualisering van prosesbestuur en die stel van argumente ten gunste van die ontwerp van besigheidprosesse, die bestuur van die kwaliteit van hierdie prosesse sowel as die voortdurende prosesouditering deur herhaalbare standaarde. ISO 9001-2000 standaard is geselekteer as instrument vir die ouditering van ondertekenaars van die Brightondeklarasië se kwaliteit van bestuursprosesse.

Oorkoepelende bevindinge dui op 'n kommerwekkende oningeligheid ten opsigte van die bestaan van die Brightondeklarasië as instrument om die posisie van vroue in sport te verbeter sowel as die afwesigheid van bestuursprosesse en –standaarde om rigting aan inisiatiewe te verskaf. Resultate toon dat respondente nie daarin slaag om genderhoofstroomaktiwiteite in die sportkonteks te institusionaliseer nie. Resultate bevestig H1 gestel vir die studie: Die kwaliteit van bestuursprosesse gevolg deur die ondertekenaars van die Brightondeklarasië (1994) ten einde die beginsels van die genoemde deklarasie te verwesenlik, is onvoldoende.

Daar word tot die gevolgtrekking gekom dat die Brightondeklarasië in wese 'n poging tot sosiale verandering vanuit 'n sportperspektief is. Pogings om die verlangde sosiale verandering te bereik moet egter bestuur word aan die hand van kwaliteitbestuursprosesse ten einde geloofwaardigheid te behou en herhaalbare resultate te lewer. Die ISO 9001-2000 standaard gestel vir kwaliteit bestuursprosesse word as raamwerk aanvaar vir die ontwerp, dokumentering, implementering, ondersteuning, monitering en kontrolering van sodanige prosesse. Die verontrustende gebrek aan bestuursprosesse gee aanleiding tot 'n betekenisvolle gaping tussen strategiese intensie en die werklikheid en suggereer dat genderhoofstroming op emosie teer eerder as kwaliteit bestuursprosesse. Die Brightondeklarasië slaag nie daarin om 'n substansiële impak op die bereiking van gendergelykheid in sport te maak nie aangesien respondente nie daarin slaag om 'n kritieke massa te genereer nie. Resultate toon verder dat ondertekenaars in die inleidende fases van die bestuur van verandering vasgevang is as gevolg van die afwesigheid van georganiseerde verandering. Onvoldoende vlakke van bevoegde leierskap verantwoordelik vir die implementering van die Brightondeklarasië veroorsaak 'n verlies van korporatiewe geheue ten opsigte van die betrokke deklarasie.

Die studie word afgesluit met bepaalde aanbevelings en bestuursriglyne gemik op die generering van 'n kritieke massa en die heroorweging van die belangrikheid van die Brightondeklarasië in die sportkonteks. Daar word voorgestel dat 'n Universele Deklarasië ten opsigte van Vroue in Sport oorweeg word om te dien as as fokuspunt vir globale pogings vir die verbetering van die posisie van die vrou in sport. Ondertekenaars

van die Brightondeklarasië behoort 'n bestuursbenadering tot die implementering van die beginsels van die deklarasie te volg eerder as 'n sosiale filantropiese benadering soos tans die geval blyk te wees.

Implikasies vir verdere navorsing sentreer rondom die ondersoek van ander moontlike prestasiebestuursisteme ten einde die voorgestelde ISO 9001-2000 standaard vir bestuursprosesse aan te vul, langtermyn ouditering van bestuursprosesse van ondertekenaars van die betrokke deklarasie asook die moontlikheid van 'n Universele Deklarasie ten opsigte van Vroue en Sport om sodoende die vereiste kritieke massa nodig vir verandering in die posisie van die vrou in sport, te verkry.

**Sleutelwoorde:** Brighton Deklarasie oor vroue en sport, vroue en sport, sosiale verandering, kwaliteit van prosesbestuur, bestuur van verandering, gender hoofstroming in sport, deklarasies oor vroue en sport, globale en streeksbeleid oor vroue en sport, monitering van bestuursproses, bestuursriglyne vir effektiewe implementering



# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, AIM AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

### 1.1 ORIENTATION

The status of women in society has been at the center of conversations for decades. The concepts of women's empowerment, gender mainstreaming, gender equality, and gender equity have been identified as key drivers for promoting women's quality of life (Malhotra, Schuler & Boender, 2002). According to the World Bank (Malhotra, *et al.*, 2002), the promotion of women's empowerment as a development goal is based on a dual argument: that social justice is an important aspect of human welfare and is intrinsically worth pursuing and that women's empowerment is a means to other ends (including access to equitable sport and physical activity opportunities). The increased emphasis on the position of women during the last two decades has now been embedded in the broader context of global development and should not be regarded as an isolated effort. It builds on considerable international consensus relative to women's position that has developed since the world population conference in Bucharest in 1974 (United Nations, 1974); the international conference on population in Mexico City in 1984 (United Nations, 1984); the world conference to review and appraise the achievements of the United Nations decade for women: equality, development and peace held in Nairobi in 1985 (United Nations, 1985); the world summit for children in 1990 (United Nations, 1990); the world conference on human rights held in Vienna in 1993 (United Nations, 1993) and the international Cairo conference on population and development in 1994 (United Nations, 1994) with its resulting program of action. Rationales for supporting holistic women's empowerment in society have further been articulated in policy statements developed from several high level conferences such as the Beijing platform for action in 1995 (spawning from the United Nations fourth world conference on women in Beijing) the Beijing+5 declaration and resolution in 2000, the Cairo program of action (spawning from the Cairo conference on population and development in 1994), the millennium declaration and millennium development goals in 2000 and the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). The common line

of argumentation in all of these policy documents is that it is through the process of social inclusion of women that systems are modified and institutions and societies can be transformed.

The United Nations emerged with an important platform that advocates for women's equality in society. Through its main legislative bodies, and especially the Commission on the Status of Women as well as the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), gender sensitive policies and approaches have been developed. It is not within the scope of this study to elaborate on all of the contributing policies and conferences, but three of them are regarded as seminal to this research. The United Nations Beijing declaration and the platform for action (1995) set as goals gender equality, development and peace and constituted an agenda for the empowerment of women. Twelve critical areas for priority action to achieve the advancement and empowerment of women were identified: women and poverty, education and training of women, women and health, violence against women, women and armed conflict, women and the economy, women in power and decision-making, institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women, human rights of women, women and the media, women and the environment and the girl-child. The platform for action emphasized that women share common concerns that can be addressed only by working together and in partnership with men towards the common goal of gender equality around the world (United Nations, 2000).

The millennium development goals (MDGs) were born from the millennium declaration – an unprecedented global consensus reached in 2000 by 189 member states of the United Nations. In the declaration these nations collectively undertook to advance a global vision for improving the condition of humanity throughout the world in the areas of development and poverty eradication, peace and security, protection of the environment and human rights and democracy. In particular, the advancement of women's right to gender equality was recognized as critically necessary for progress. The declaration pledged to combat all forms of violence against women and to implement the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of discrimination against Women (CEDAW). It

recognized the importance of promoting gender equality and women's empowerment as an effective pathway for combating poverty, hunger and disease and for stimulating truly sustainable development (United Nations Development Fund for Women [(UNIFEM), 2003]). The millennium declaration renewed the commitments regarding gender equality made at previous world conferences since 1974. Eight of the commitments set out in the millennium declaration resulted in the MDGs: eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and empower women, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability and develop a global partnership for development (UNIFEM, 2003).

The broad reference to empowerment of women and gender equality in the abovementioned policy documents is a cross-cutting concern for all sectors of society. A substantial body of work exists demonstrating gender equity/equality, or the lack thereof, in sectors such as health, education and economic participation from global as well as national perspectives. Although the focus of this research falls on the Brighton Declaration as a policy document aimed at empowering women through sport, it is necessary to briefly explore selected efforts in other sectors of society (Doyal, 2000; Kabear, 2003; Subrahmanian, 2005) in order to place the significance and management of the Brighton Declaration into context.

From a health perspective Doyal (2000) postulated that empowering women and gender equity is increasingly cited as a goal of health policy at both national and international levels but at the same time pointed out dilemmas in the equitable distribution of health-related resources. In her work she argued that there has been a shift away from talking about *women* to talking about *gender*. Instead of focusing on women as an underprivileged group, emphasis is placed on social construction of gender identities and on the nature of the relationships between women and men. Doyal (2000) declared that policies and attempts in pursuit of gender equity in health must not focus solely on health outcomes but equally on the inputs (*management processes*) that provide the basis for improving human quality of life. From a health perspective women and men cannot be

treated identically, as they have a range of needs that have to be met if they are to achieve their potential for healthy lives.

In her research, Subrahmanian (2005) presented qualitative and quantitative assessments relative to the nature of progress towards gender equality in education as stated in the Dakar framework for action in 2000. She postulated that the Dakar framework for action (UNESCO, 2002) represented to-date the most important international political commitment towards promoting education for all containing two gender-based goals: commitment to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005 and to achieve gender equality in education in 2015. These goals are fully supported by the MDGs. She argued that the Dakar framework for action stipulated clear outcomes in terms of gender equality in education but points out that assessing progress towards gender equality also requires measuring meaningful progress towards the stipulated outcome, namely the right to education. She stated that a significant challenge related to the process of arriving at the desired outcome, collection of data as well as interpretation of data. The process of translating a conceptual framework on gender parity (goals) into quantitative indicators (outcomes) offers specific challenges to the implementation of desired equality outcomes. She strongly argued the importance of approaching gender equality both in terms of a process that plays out through educational systems as well as identifying indicators relevant to each stage of the process to attain rights to education, rights within education and rights through education.

Kabeer (2003) focused her work on gender mainstreaming through poverty eradication relevant to the achievement of the MDGs. Along with other key development goals, reduction of poverty and hunger and commitment to human development as well as environmental sustainability, included a specific commitment to gender equality as an end in itself: *“No individual and no nation must be denied the opportunity to benefit from development. The equality rights and opportunities of women and men must be the same.”* (Kabeer, 2003, p. 12). The issue of poverty eradication and gender equality is addressed from the perspectives of promoting household livelihoods, enhancing human capabilities, women’s empowerment and institutionalizing gender equity goals in policy

processes. Concluding, Kabeer (2003) put forward a number of concerns regarding institutionalizing poverty eradication policies. Despite a much greater level of overall awareness of gender issues and despite the solid body of research and analysis that exist, policy and programs continue to show very limited synergy between process and impact outcomes. Kabeer (2003) also stated that the success of gender mainstreaming in any sector of society is influenced by a comprehensive network of structures, mechanisms and processes for ensuring desired outcomes and impacts. She proposed a gender management system (GMS) that provides a set of strategic process interventions needed to manage effects as well as institute a monitoring framework to track progress throughout the process in order to bring about organizational change.

Parallel to the above initiatives to achieve gender equality in sectors of society, involvement in physical activity and sport and creating genuine access and opportunities for girls and women has also become a widely shared goal on agendas of gender equality/equity. The global women's movement over the past half century has developed the perspective that females are enhanced as human beings when they develop their intellectual and physical abilities. This assertion of women's rights has served to solidify women's interest in sport. A human rights-based understanding of sport and physical activity has been present since the founding of the United Nations. Within the established framework of human rights a number of United Nations intergovernmental, international and national policy or normative frameworks on women, gender equality and sport have been developed. These policies, processes and frameworks have laid the foundation for the continuing efforts to achieve a just and equitable world of sport for women. The documents critical to the issue of equality in women and sport will be discussed in detail in chapter two. At this point a broad timeline (Table 1) of processes, frameworks and policy documents should suffice to put the problem statement into context.

**Table 1.** Timeline of global and regional processes, frameworks declarations and policy documents relevant to women and sport.

<b>DATE</b>	<b>POLICIES, DECLARATIONS, FRAMEWORKS OR RESOLUTIONS</b>	<b>RELEVANCE TO EQUALITY FOR WOMEN AND SPORT</b>
1948	<b>Universal declaration of human rights (United Nations)</b>	Framework of rights and duties of humans. Articles 24, 26 and 27 recognizes the right to rest and leisure as stresses that education shall be directed to the full development of human personality as well as the right to freely participate in the cultural life of the community.
1978	<b>Charter of physical education and sport (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization – (UNESCO)</b>	One of the essential conditions for the effective exercise of human rights is that everyone should be free to develop and preserve his or her physical, intellectual and moral powers, and that access to physical education and sport should consequently be assured and guaranteed for all human beings
1979	<b>Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW) (United Nations)</b>	Article 13 states that parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of women and men, the same rights in particular the rights to participate in recreational activities, sports and all aspects of cultural life.
1989	<b>Convention on the rights of the child (United Nations)</b>	Supports the notion of sport and physical education as a human right for women and men.
1994	<b>Brighton declaration on women and sport</b> from the First World Conference on Women and Sport (International Working Group on Women and Sport)	Calls for equality in society and sport regarding facilities, education, leadership, information and research, policies and allocation of resources
1994	<b>Women and sport working group (International Olympic Committee)</b>	Put gender issues and women’s right to practice sport higher on the agenda of the IOC.
1995	<b>Beijing platform for action</b>	Calls for the provision of accessible recreational and sport facilities by educational institutions, the establishment and strengthening of gender-sensitive

		programs for girls and women of all ages in education and community institutions and the creation and support of programs in the education system, workplace and community to make opportunities to participate in sport and physical activity available to girls and women of all ages on the same basis as they are made available to men and boys.
1996	<b>Manila declaration on women and sport</b> from the ICHPERSD 1 <sup>st</sup> Asian Women and Sport Conference	First declaration adapted from the Brighton Declaration, specifically created by 14 Asian country NGO and academic representatives.
1996, 2000, 2004	<b>IOC resolutions, 1996; 2000; 2004; 2008</b>	Specific recommendations from conferences involving women and sport via the Women and Sport Working Group
1998	<b>Windhoek call for action</b> from the 2 <sup>nd</sup> World Conference on Women and Sport (International Working Group on Women and Sport)	Built on the Brighton Declaration as advocated for the promotion of sport as a means to realize broader goals in health, education and women's rights
2000	<b>Helsinki spirit</b> from the EWS Conference	Urged both men and women to share the responsibility in/for equality in sport, women's role as a resource for sports culture and decision making strengthened
2001	<b>Asian women and sport action plan</b> from the 1 <sup>st</sup> Asian Conference on Women and Sport (Asian Working Group on Women and Sport)	Expand equal opportunities for women, men, girls and boys in Asia to participate fully in sport
2002	<b>Montreal communiqué</b> from the 3 <sup>rd</sup> World Conference on Women and Sport (International Working Group on Women and Sport)	Acknowledged that the path to realizing these broader goals involved a variety of actions including information and advocacy campaigns and the integration of sport into community development projects.
2002	<b>African sports confederation of disabled (ASCOD) policy on disabled women's and girls participation in sport</b>	Aimed to increase the participation of women and girls at all levels of sport and recreation in order to achieve gender equality.
2002	<b>European Parliament resolution on women and sport 2280 (INI)</b>	Calls on the Committee of Ministers to promote women's sport and women's participation in sport and promote greater awareness and participation of women in leadership positions, equal prize money,

		increased media coverage of women in sport, ensure collection of gender specific statistics and combat sexual abuse of women, young people and children in sport.
2003	<b>Doha conference resolutions</b> from the 2 <sup>nd</sup> Asian Conference on Women and Sport (Asian Working group on Women and Sport)	Encouraged all parties to actively support women and sport.
2004	<b>IOC Third World Conference on Women and Sport, Marrakech</b>	Sanctioned the numerous measures taken by sports organizations to implement gender equality, highlighted key steps to be taken in the next years to keep momentum and gender equality on agendas, and engage the media in comprehensive work to enhance the image of women in sport.
2004	<b>Women and Sport Commission (International Olympic Committee)</b>	Reinforced the actions, credibility and recognition of the Working Group on Women and Sport established in 1994 to promote women's advancement in sport.
2004	<b>MINEPS IV – Commission III</b>	Recommended a women, sport and physical education observatory be created in partnership with UNESCO and the Greek government, suggested interventions for women's issues through sport, urged quality physical education programming
2005	European Women and Sport: <b>Paris call for action</b>	Urged to ensure balanced participation of men and women in decision making, provide support for democratization of access to sport by women, develop education through and in sport for women
2005	<b>UN International Year of Sport and Physical Education/UN Sport and Development Goals</b>	UN declared for the first time in its history a year dedicated to the promulgation of sport and physical education worldwide, with particular emphasis on girls and women; also created sport and development goals in conjunction with Millennium Development goals
2005	<b>Yemen challenge</b> from the 3 <sup>rd</sup> Asian Conference on Women and Sport (Asian Working Group on Women and Sport).	Emphasized the importance of continued promotion and development of women in sport in Asia and called for the formulation of national policies on



		women and sport including a special chapter on women with disabilities.
2006	<b>Kumamoto commitment</b> at the Fourth World Conference on Women and Sport (International Working Group on Women and Sport)	Expressed participants' commitment to building a collaborative global network in order to realize gender equality in and through sport.
2006	<b>UN action plan on sport for development and peace</b>	Devised an action plan that included specifics about women's involvement in sport and development
2006	<b>UN convention on the rights of persons with disabilities</b>	Devised a Bill of Rights for persons with disabilities and their inclusion in sporting activities at all levels, with specific reference to women
2008	<b>“Accept and Respect” declaration</b> from the International Study Week on Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women, partnered by IAPESGW and Sultan Qaboos University, Oman	First declaration specifically affirming the value of physical education and sport in the lives of Muslim women, created by Muslim women academics representing 14 countries, and urging national and international sport federations to be culturally sensitive to Muslim custom in dress
2008	<b>IOC Dead Sea call for action, Jordan</b>	Produced a plan of action in terms of six major areas of interest: coming opportunities to promote gender equality; governance empowerment through education and development; women, sport and the media; women, sport and the MDG's and commitment of delegates at the conferences.

From the above it seems as if the importance of sport and physical activity to women's and girls' physical, mental and emotional health is conceptually readily accepted. The challenge, however, is to monitor and sustain progress and to create incentives for gender mainstreaming, equality and equity. A number of critical elements have been identified as markers for sustained progress. These include, among others, initiatives of umbrella bodies campaigning for and maintaining gender equality and equity in sport, number of women in leadership positions in sport, media coverage of women's sport as well as changes in policies.

The first marker references women's empowerment in society in general, and in sport specifically. It requires two elements (Malhotra, *et al.*, 2002), one being a process from a state of gender inequality to a state of gender equality while the other, equally important element, involves the concept of agency. Women themselves must be significant actors in the process of change over time that is being measured or desired. International and national women's sport organizations have the responsibility to advocate for the inclusion of women in the realm of sport. Women have assumed this advocacy role, and umbrella bodies within sport have focused on gender mainstreaming and are actively involved through position statements and policies. The Women's Sports Foundation of the USA (WSF), the Women's Sports Foundation of the United Kingdom (WSF – UK), the European Women and Sport (EWS) organization, the International Working Group (IWG) on Women and Sport, the International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education (ICSSPE), the International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women (IAPESGW), and WomenSport International (WSI) all have written position statements and policy guidelines on gender equity and equality in sport (A detailed discussion and comparisons of missions, principles and goals constitute chapter two of this study).

Although the concept of empowerment of women in and through sport seems to be established on the global level through regular conferences, the present reality, however, is that women are still under-represented in leadership positions as players, coaches, officials and administrators/managers of sport as well as in commercial activities related to sport. Lessons learned from efforts to increase women's participation in political decision-making suggest that many of the gains can be contributed to affirmative action such as quotas established in constitutions, by legislation or through temporary special measures. In 1996 as part of its women and sport policy, the International Olympic Committee established targets to increase the number of women occupying leadership positions within the Olympic Movement. The following proposal was adopted regarding women's involvement in leadership positions: National Olympic Committees (NOCs) should have 10% of women in executive positions by 2000, and reach 20% by 2005 (IOC, 2008). According to official figures from the IOC, this marker has not been

achieved (IOC, 2008). In a fair and equitable society, women participate at all levels of sport in proportions equal to those of men. As women engage more actively in sport, they develop skills necessary for leadership, academic performance and success in all areas of life. Educating girls is the most important step a society can take because it is the best indicator that the next generation of children will be educated. Doll-Tepper (2000) is of the opinion that providing opportunities for mothers and daughters to participate in sport and recreation strengthens family relationships while enhancing the sport and its organization. Women are also under-represented in sport support service areas such as sport communication, athletic training, and sport science (Lopiano, 2007). Ensuring that women participate and have substantive leadership roles in sport requires specific efforts to recruit, educate, and retain them. For girls and women, participation in sport provides an opportunity to become competent in the performance of new skills, to accept challenges, and to experience the joy of movement. They can learn important life skills such as discipline, dedication, determination, the pursuit of excellence and setting and achieving goals. Self confidence, self esteem and efficacy, and healthy body perceptions and awareness can be enhanced. As girls mature, they may experience unhealthy social norms that devalue their individual importance and competence while idealizing and exploiting their sexuality. Girls begin to think, feel and behave more in conformity with gender role expectations than boys. The tension and confusion caused by conflicting social values experienced may be exaggerated by the rapid and unprecedented physical and psychological changes that occur during this tumultuous period. Boys typically have learned about goal setting, team work, and achievement through sport participation. They have also been rewarded for their physical and emotional development through sport. The skills involved in sport participation are beneficial to all human beings, not solely reserved for males. Central issues still face girls and women in sport and physical activity that result from cultural influences and the legacy of traditional attitudes, opinions and beliefs (Lopiano, 2007).

Examining print media coverage of women's sport presents yet another marker in monitoring progress of equality and equity in sport. The print media constitutes an influential sport product provider and has the potential to create and achieve an

environment that promotes and supports the principles of equity (George, 2001; SportScotland, 2004). In this regard, George (2001) argued that the media has become one of the most powerful institutional forces for shaping values, perceptions and attitudes in modern culture. Mass media portrays the dominant images in society and, as such, are important shapers of equity. George (2001) suggested that how the print media addresses or ignores the issue of equity in sport becomes a critical exercise in power. By under-reporting women's sport, the print media contributes to the general public's insufficient knowledge base on women's accomplishments in sport.

Research focusing on sport coverage in the media to ascertain its contribution to equity in sport has been undertaken by a number of scholars since 1972. Until the 1990s these works focused primarily on gender, stereotyping and race as indicators of equality and equity in the print media and television. As early as 1984, Rintala and Birrell (1984) concerned themselves with the availability of female role models in the print media and explored the research question of differential treatment of males and females in the *Young Athlete* magazine compared to actual sport participation rates. Theberge and Cronk (1984) also focused on limited coverage of women in the sports media due to biased newspaper production processes based on the assumption of greater public interest of male sports coverage. Kane (1988) examined feature articles in *Sports Illustrated* relative to the impact of Title IX legislation (American federal legislation prohibiting sex discrimination in federally funded educational institutions) categorized in eight-year time spans: before (1964-1971), during (1972-1979) and after (1980-1987) Title IX to determine if there has been a shift away from negative social stereotypes associated with women's sport participation. Lumpkin and Williams (1991) also analysed *Sports Illustrated* feature articles for the period 1954 to 1987 in terms of equity variables related to type of sport, gender, race, length of the article, number of pictures, individuals pictured and descriptive characteristics. The work of Duncan (1993) focused on sport media texts to identify mechanisms in historical and cultural contexts to reveal gender stereotyping, while Messner and Solomon's research (1993) took an ideological approach by analysing the newspaper coverage of boxer Sugar Ray Leonard's wife abuse story. Hatch and Kluka (1993) found the same consistent pattern of under-representation of

women's sport in newspaper coverage given to the 1991 NCAA Division I men's and women's national Basketball Championships. From 1990 to 2005 the Amateur Athletic Foundation of Los Angeles (AAFLA) commissioned a series of research reports (1990; 1994; 1999; 2000; 2005a; 2005b) applying content analysis as a research method to investigate gender, children and gender stereotyping in televised sports and sports media. The common result of all these studies reiterated the pattern of under-representation of women's sport in the media. Similar longitudinal research based on content analyses was undertaken in Australia and England. An extensive longitudinal Australian study on media coverage and portrayal of women's sport in 2000, showed that although Australian sportswomen are more professional than ever, they still struggle for consistent, long-term coverage. Even though newspaper reportage of women's sport has doubled since 1992, only 10.7% of newspaper space was devoted to women's sport (Australian Sports Commission, 2000). Comparable longitudinal research by the Women's Sport Foundation - UK (2003) recorded similar trends and concluded that despite pockets of exposure, women are under-represented at all levels of print and electronic sports media.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The development of gender equality and equity programs and proactive work, aimed at addressing the historical imbalances of women in all sectors of society, have become the staple of most international meetings with a concern for human rights. From a sport perspective, a number of organizations are keeping this critical issue alive at global, regional and international levels. From the timeline presented in Table 1, it can be stated that the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport signed by 250 signatories in 1994 shaped future initiatives in this regard and provided women in sport with an important peg for gender mainstreaming in sport. Yet, despite years of campaigning and numerous policy documents, legislation and world conferences on women and sport, a marked gender imbalance in sport still persists. Support, knowledge of and commitment to the seminal Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport (1994) seem to be confined to a global level through declarations and world conferences echoing the original principles of the Declaration, but knowledge of these on national and lower levels appears to be absent. It might even be stated that the vast majority of national sport organizations, let

alone regional or local ones, continue to be unaware of the existence and importance of the Brighton Declaration. The envisioned outcomes of the Declaration will not be achieved automatically; the process must be managed carefully in order to facilitate sustainable change. Eliminating gender imbalances in society requires institutional change as well as individual behavioral change. Moser (2005) rightly contended that advocating for gender equality and putting policies in place does not imply that there has been successful implementation. The challenges lie in developing appropriate methodologies and processes to translate declarations and policy documents into appropriate operational strategies and implementation procedures and processes. Moser (2005) continued to argue that this requires four interrelated indicators: inputs, processes, outputs and sustained impacts in society. Many organizations, however, simply refer to inputs (e.g. principles of the Brighton Declaration) and outputs (e.g. programs, campaigns, conferences, additional declarations) without measuring or auditing the effectiveness of the process. Sweetman (1997) supported Moser's arguments in his emphasis on internal auditing management processes and organizational self-assessments as opposed to focusing only on external quantitative outcomes. A conceptual framework for achieving gender equality for women in sport has been developed as is evident from Table 1. It seems, however, that Moser's (2005) concept of "evaporation" (when good policy intentions fail to be transferred through sustainable processes into practice) has come into play.

An analysis of the principles and goals of the Brighton Declaration (1994) universally acknowledged as the ground-breaking work on Women and Sport, seems to suggest a one-dimensional focus on the desired outcomes of initiatives, a "wish list" of intended outcomes. Little or no qualitative evidence could be found of clear process strategies to be followed by selected signatories of the Declaration on how to manage and institutionalize the process of achieving the desired outcomes. Evidence of successes is presented in quantitative terms rather than qualitative procedural benchmarks. The Montreal Toolkit (2002, p. 23), in its section on "*Tools for Changing Organizations, Systems and Structures*" attempts to provide limited guidelines in this regard, but the quality of the management process has never been tested or audited, which could be a

contributing factor for the continued existence of gender imbalances in sport. The issue is not so much one of failure of success of the Brighton Declaration, as it is of translating the principles (desired outcomes) of the declaration into viable implementation processes with appropriate indicators to monitor, evaluate and sustain it. The ultimate result advocated by the Brighton Declaration is mainstreaming women into sport. Achieving gender mainstreaming is a long-term strategic process that needs to be managed according to specific management actions and benchmarks in order to achieve desired outcomes. Rees (2002) postulated that the focus of successful gender mainstreaming should be both internally and externally directed. The quality of the internal arrangements, in other words, how to manage the process to achieve external business outcomes, impacts significantly on the quality and sustainability of desired outcomes – in this case, improving women’s position in sport and achieving gender mainstreaming.

The following research question is hence formulated:

***Do signatories of the Brighton Declaration have appropriate management processes and standards in place to translate the principles of the Declaration into sustainable practice?***

Based on the above research question, the following hypotheses are, therefore, stated:

***H0: The quality of management processes followed by signatories of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport (1994) to achieve the principles of the stated declaration is satisfactory.***

***H1: The quality of management processes followed by signatories of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport (1994) to achieve the principles of the stated declaration is unsatisfactory.***

### **1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY**

This investigation aims:

- To audit the perceived quality of the management processes of signatories of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994;

- To identify weaknesses/barriers in the management processes of signatories;
- To identify perceived best/good practices of process implementation followed by signatories;
- To provide appropriate managerial guidelines to signatories for implementing the Brighton Declaration to facilitate the stated principles of the Declaration.

## **1.4 CLARIFICATION OF TERMINOLOGY**

An analysis of the documents relating to the topic of this research revealed the use of a number of concepts that seemed to be sometimes used interchangeably but undoubtedly is interlinked. Specific concepts and terminology that need to be clarified include:

- Gender
- Equality
- Equity
- Gender equality/equity
- Gender mainstreaming
- Women and sport
- Women in sport
- Policy statement
- Declaration
- Framework
- Management audit
- Process quality

These terms will be clarified and defined in the following paragraphs of this study to avoid misunderstanding and set baselines for interpretations.

### **1.4.1 Gender**

OSAGI (the United Nations Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues) (2007, p. 6) defines *gender* as “...*the social attributes and opportunities associated with being female*



*and male and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relations between women and those between men.”*

#### **1.4.2 Equality**

*Equality* refers to the parity of one thing to another in terms of quality and quantity. The achievement of the object of equality is more than the absolute prohibition or elimination of discrimination. It is necessary to make a constant and dynamic effort to ensure the equalization of entities (OSAGI, 2007).

#### **1.4.3 Gender equality**

*Gender equality*, then, refers to women’s and men’s rights, responsibilities, access and opportunities being independent of whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs, and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration while recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men (OSAGI, 2007).

#### **1.4.4 Equity**

*Equity* frequently is used interchangeably with equality. The terms are not synonymous. Equity involves access to equal opportunity and the development of basic capacity. It requires eliminating all barriers to economic and political opportunities and access to education and basic services, such that people can enjoy these opportunities and benefit from them. Equity implies the application of a gender perspective in all activities. It is synonymous with fairness and justice. It means justice, giving everyone what belongs to them, and recognizing the specific conditions or characteristics of each person or human group/sex, gender, class, religion, sexual orientation, age and ability (Kluka, 2008).

#### **1.4.5 Gender equity**

*Gender equity*, then, is the principle and practice of fair and equitable allocation of resources and opportunities for males and females. Gender equity eliminates discriminatory practices that are barriers to full participation of either gender. A primary

goal of gender equity is to provide all individuals with access and opportunity to a full range of activities, thereby enabling them to realize their human potential (Kent, 2002).

#### **1.4.6 Gender mainstreaming**

Rees (2002, p. 2) defined *gender mainstreaming* as follows:

*“Gender mainstreaming is the systematic integration of gender equality into all systems and structures; policies, programs, processes and projects; into cultures and their organizations, into ways of seeing and doing.”*

Basic principles of *gender mainstreaming*, according to Hannan (2006), include the following:

- Adequate accountability mechanisms for monitoring progress must be established;
- The initial identification of issues across all area(s) of activity should be such that gender differences and disparities can be diagnosed;
- Assumptions that issues or problems are neutral from a gender-equality perspective should never be made;
- Gender analysis should always be carried out;
- Clear political will and allocation of adequate resources for mainstreaming, including additional financial and human resources if necessary, are important for translation of the concept into practice;
- Gender mainstreaming requires that efforts be made to broaden women's equitable participation at all levels of decision-making;
- Mainstreaming does not replace the need for targeted, women-specific policies and programs, and positive legislation.

#### **1.4.7 Women in sport**

*Women in sport* refers to adult females who participate in sport. It also means that all females who participate in sport are included regardless of class, religion, sexual orientation, age and ability. A more definitive phrase that has been used is *girls and women in sport*.

#### **1.4.8 Women and sport**

The phrase, *women and sport*, refers to women and their relationship to sport rather than to their participation in sport. This phrase implies that women have something to contribute to sport in all of its forms and levels of involvement and encompasses a broader spectrum than women in sport. The focus of the Brighton Declaration and this study is women and sport.

#### **1.4.9 Policy statement**

Policy statement has been defined by Kent (2002) as a document that is used to identify what needs to be done and why. It provides a tool to be used as a simple framework outlining the basic information included in a policy.

#### **1.4.10 Declaration**

A declaration is a document that includes a set of principles that underpin actions and provides a “road map” for future initiatives on matters of consequence.

#### **1.4.11 Framework**

A strategic plan is commonly used to affect change and build a team committed to a common direction. The framework supports the plan that is created. It includes the following: values, vision, mission, and directions.

#### **1.4.12 Management audit**

Kumar and Sharma (2006) defined management audit as a periodic process concerned with the examination and evaluation of the management process as a whole. It covers review and appraisal of all management policies and plans which form part of the internal control system. It is an aid to management and is operated within the organization.

#### **1.4.13 Process quality**

In this study, the term “process quality” refers to the effectiveness of the different elements of process to achieve desired outcomes of the Brighton Declaration. They are

measured in terms of the ISO Process Quality Management Standards (2000) which include six sections:

- (1) management process design;
- (2) documenting the management process;
- (3) implementing the management process;
- (4) supporting the management process;
- (5) monitoring and controlling the management process; and
- (6) improving the management process.

## **1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY SUMMARY**

A detailed discussion of the research methodology will be presented in chapter five. At this stage only a summary of the methodological framework is presented. The underlying design of this research is descriptive. The perceptions of decision makers relative to the quality of management processes have been evaluated from a qualitative perspective. The trilogy of evaluation/auditing set for qualitative studies, *criteria*, *evidence* and *judgment* has been applied in this study. Henderson (1995) stated that the above three components must be present for evaluation and enlightened decision making on collected data. Criteria refer to standards or practices upon which something is evaluated. Developing criteria often appears to be the easiest aspect of the auditing process but, in reality, may be the most difficult. In the case of this investigation, criteria for auditing did not exist and had to be developed to collect data. Evidence implies data. Data are pieces of information that are collected to determine whether criteria have been met. Data in the ambit of this study are qualitative as they refer to words used to describe or explain what is perceived. The validity of the data depends upon the criteria that were established. Judgment implies the determination of the value of the collected data based on the stated criteria. Judgment forms the final step of the auditing/evaluation trilogy and forms the basis for conclusion and recommendations. As this study deals with auditing management processes to facilitate the implementation of the principles of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport, formative auditing or evaluation has been used. Formative auditing implies the systematic examination of steps of components in the development and implementation of a program (Brighton Declaration). Descriptive designs provide

empirical data that are observable. Their purpose is to determine existing conditions. The designs can be further differentiated by methods such as questionnaires, interviews, observations, and other unobtrusive measures. In the context of this study, a survey approach (questionnaire) was used as the research instrument to qualitatively and quantitatively determine management process quality.

A number of structures can be used to design a survey. According to Thomas, Nelson and Silverman (2005), three types of structures and scales can be used: (1) open-ended; (2) partially close-ended quantitative; and (3) closed-quantitative with forced choices and unordered response choices.

For this study, the survey was constructed using primarily ordered with forced-choice Likert-type scale response possibilities. The survey had a matrix type design with statements on the left and anchored responses on the right. Each statement was scored with the most positive response receiving the highest point value. Answer categories were exclusive so that answers fell into only one category. These were systematically divided into sections. A questionnaire to audit the quality of management processes relevant to the implementation of the Brighton Declaration was developed based upon the ISO 9001:2000 process oriented quality management guidelines for service organizations and the criteria proposed in the “Montreal Toolkit” constructed as a result of the women and sport conference held in Montreal in 2002, under the auspices of the IWG.

A pilot test consists of a small sample, generally five to ten (Vincent, 2005) who are similar to those who will eventually receive the survey. In this investigation, five organizations were targeted to complete the survey. They represented each of the categories of organizations designated in the questionnaire. Each was also asked if all the items were clear and understandable, particularly if those completing the survey had English as a second or third language.

The questionnaire was distributed electronically via email and by airmail post to 246 currently existing organizations that notified the IWG that they have adopted or endorsed

the Brighton Declaration. These organizations have been categorized by IWG into the following groups:

- International and Regional Government Organizations or Coalitions
- International Multi-Sport Organizations
- International Physical Education Organizations and Fora
- International and Regional Women and Sport Groups
- National Sports Organizations

Initial distribution was followed up by bi-weekly reminders, also through electronic mail. Upon request from 6 organizations, the questionnaires were sent by facsimile, and 4 were mailed hard copies which were sent as registered items via the South African postal service. A response rate of 51% (n=125) was attained making the obtained results reliable.

## **1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Cooper and Schindler (2001) have stated that all research investigations have limitations. The following limitations have been recognized in this study:

1. The study is limited to those organizations that registered their adoption or endorsement of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport between 1994 and 2007 with the IWG Secretariat. The IWG Secretariat has been located in London, England (precursor to the first conference, 1992 – 1994), Windhoek, Namibia (1994 – 1998), Montreal, Canada (1998 – 2002), Kumamoto, Japan (2002 – 2006), and Sydney, Australia (2006 – 2010).

2. The empirical study is limited to the *auditing of management process quality* utilized by each organization. The areas audited have been based upon ISO Process Quality Management Standards (2000) which include six sections:

- (1) management process design;
- (2) documenting the management process;
- (3) implementing the management process;
- (4) supporting the management process;
- (5) monitoring and controlling the management process; and

(6) improving the management process.

3. There are assumptions inherent in the use of questionnaires. One of the assumptions of any questionnaire is that the individual completing it has legitimate credibility within the organization. Another assumption is that the individual who completed the questionnaire was in some type of management capacity in the organization. A final assumption is that the individual completed the questionnaire with personal and professional integrity.

4. The length of the questionnaire could have posed a limitation to the number of completed questionnaires returned. Those who completed the questionnaire were high-ranking officials in each organization. Although an acceptable response/return rate was obtained, more may have been provided if the questionnaire had taken less time to complete.

5. The utilization of email and faxing may have limited some responses. Although the investigator tried to ensure reception of the document via a “return acknowledgement” email indicator, there was no way to know whether the document was actually read.

## **1.7 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY**

Chapter one begins with an introduction to the investigation. Its focus pinpoints the orientation to the study, the problem to be examined, clarification of terminology, a summary of the research methodology used and limitations to the study. Chapter two builds a global case for women and sport. It provides a rationale for global sport policies and declarations, a discussion of selected significant global sport policies and declarations, argues the aims of global sport policies and declarations, identifies key role players in the movement, and relates global sport policies and declarations to social change. Chapter three addresses the management of change in and through sport. Chapter four clarifies the theory of process quality management and its relevance to the outputs of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. Chapter five presents the research methodology for the study. Chapter six involves the analysis and interpretation of results

of the investigation. Chapter seven concludes the study by presenting conclusions, recommendations and implications for further research.

## **1.8 CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

This chapter places the study in context by presenting an orientation to the topic, describing the problem statement, the aim and objectives of this investigation, and clarifying terminology. It also provides a research methodology summary and limitations to the study. The next chapter focuses on building a global case for women and sport.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **THE GLOBAL CASE FOR WOMEN AND SPORT**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

For decades women have been disadvantaged by being afforded relatively limited access to active participation in sport at all levels. Women have also been absent in decision-making roles in sport such as in coaching, refereeing and administrative/management positions. The lack of gender mainstreaming policies, development initiatives, education and motivational programs aimed at facilitating women's participation, has impacted negatively on gender equality in sport. The needs of women have not been addressed to challenge gender inequality and institutionalize women into their rightful place in sport and in society (Hargreaves, 1999). There are numerous sport policies, frameworks and declarations relative to women and sport on global, regional, national, and local levels. This chapter deals with selected global and regional sport policies and declarations that have focused on the lack of gender mainstreaming, spotlighting women and sport.

#### **2.2 RATIONALE FOR GLOBAL AND REGIONAL SPORT POLICIES AND DECLARATIONS**

Many nations have federal governmental agencies or ministries of sport, i.e., the Republic of South Africa (Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa), the United Kingdom (UK Sport, Department for Culture, Media, and Sport), Australia (Australian Sports Commission), New Zealand (Sport and Recreation New Zealand), and the Philippines (Philippines Sport Commission). Their leaders have, in many cases, identified sport as a national priority. Many ministries have been designed to provide leadership, policy direction and financial assistance for the development of sport at national and international levels and to support the highest levels of achievement by the country's athletes in international sport (Sport Canada, 1984). The role of men's and boys' participation in sport has been clearly defined in many countries, but the role of those with disabilities and all women continue to be marginalized or missing from the picture. Several regions of the world have collaborated and created policies and declarations that include cultural contexts as well.

In the era of globalization, there has become a need to join sport globally. The Modern Olympic Games and sport-specific world championships have become increasingly visible and participated in by men and some women. The Brighton Declaration enlarged and coordinated the global debate on women and sport. It was the first declaration to provide a worldwide ethical frame of reference for the construct of women in sport as well as women and sport. Figure 1 details the position of gender mainstreaming in sport and development, which is an inclusive part of the framework in the process of social change.

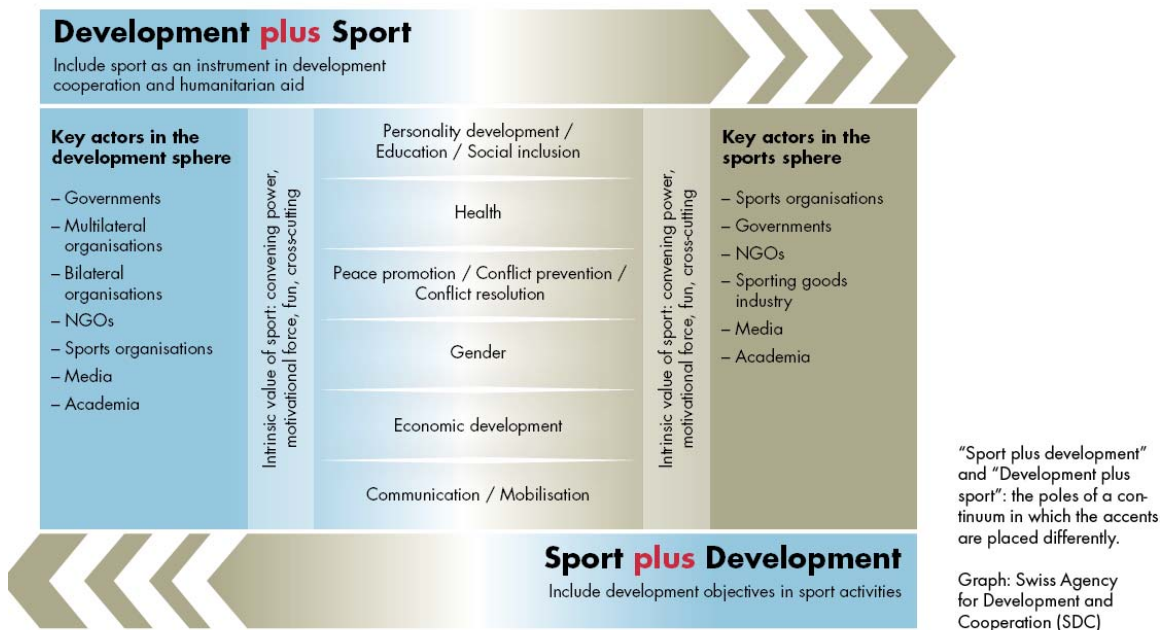


Figure 1. Sport, development and the position of gender, SDC, 2007

“Sport development is about ensuring that pathways and structures are in place to enable people to learn basic movement skills, participate in sports of their choice, develop their competence and performance, and reach levels of excellence.”

(Sports Council, 1993a, b, c, d, p. 63)

Intelligence and energy appear to be evenly distributed throughout the world, but access, opportunity, investment, and effective organizations are not. The modern world is, at this point, unequal, unstable, and unsustainable. The great mission of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century is to move neighborhoods, nations, and the world toward integrated communities of shared access, shared opportunities, shared responsibilities, and a shared sense of genuine belonging, based on the essence of every successful community; that our common humanity is more important than our interesting differences. There is a need for more enlightened government policies, more monitoring and evaluation of policies, more competent and honest public administration and management, and more investment of money that benefits the people. The role of government in many countries, its laws, regulations, programs, grants, and policies, is essential in advancing the common good. There is evidence that more effective government can produce better living conditions and more social justice. In many areas of the world, however, regardless of the quality of government, a critical difference is also being made by citizens working as individuals through nongovernmental nonprofit organizations (NGO). An NGO is any group of private citizens who join together to advance the public good. The content of this chapter focuses on sport policies and declarations that have been created by government and nongovernmental nonprofit organizations that are devoted to gender mainstreaming.

The intervening years since the creation of the Brighton Declaration in 1994 have continued to increase global awareness of women and sport with a variety of policies and declarations. Several conferences have been held to advance the agenda of the women in sport movement. The section that follows provides an explanation and analysis of the global and regional policies and declarations that have been created.

## **2.3 GLOBAL AND REGIONAL SPORT POLICIES AND DECLARATIONS**

### **2.3.1 Global sport policies and declarations**

**2.3.1.1 United Nations:** Universal declaration of human rights, 1948; UNESCO international charter of physical education and sport, 1978; convention on the elimination

of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW), 1979; convention on the rights of the child, 1989; Beijing platform for action, 1995; sport and development millennium goals, 2005; international year of sport and physical education, 2005; action plan on sport for development and peace, 2006; and convention on the rights of persons with disabilities, 2006.

Since the initiation of the United Nations in 1948, sport and physical activity have been considered a human right. The universal declaration of human rights contains a framework for inclusion. “Everyone has the right to rest and leisure...” (Article 24); “Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality...” (Article 26); and “Everyone has the right to freely participate in the cultural life of the community...” (Article 27) (United Nations, 1948).

The first official inclusion of sport and physical activity as part of human rights was published in the 1978 international charter of physical education and sport as part of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). “One of the essential conditions for the effective exercise of human rights is that everyone should be free to develop and preserve his or her physical, intellectual, and moral powers, and that access to physical education and sport should consequently be assured and guaranteed for all human beings” (UNESCO, 1978).

In 1979, the convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW) was held to focus on the issue of discrimination against girls and women in sport and physical education. Article 10 mandates that Member States of the United Nations take appropriate action to eliminate discrimination against women in the areas of education, including providing the same opportunities as their male counterparts to actively participate in sport and physical education. In Article 13, there is a mandate for all Member States to take appropriate action to eliminate discrimination against women in all other areas of society, including the right to participate in sport, recreation and all other cultural areas of life (United Nations, 1979).

In 1989, the convention on the rights of the child provided support for the concept of sport and physical education as a human right. Article 29 (1) of UN Resolution 44/25 declares that a child's education should include "...the development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential" (United Nations, 1989).

In the sections of critical areas of concern B and C, the report from the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, which produced the Beijing platform for action, included significant policy recommendations on women and sport. One of the planks of the platform supported accessible recreational and sport facilities at educational institutions, the formation of gender-sensitive programs for girls and women throughout the lifespan in education and community environments, and the establishment and maintenance of programs in the education system, in places of work, and in communities so that the equivalent of what was offered for boys and men was also offered for girls and women.

A follow-up to the 1995 platform for action was a review of progress in 1999 (United Nations, 1999). The Commission on the Status of Women, responsible for global policy making on gender equality, focused its review on progress made in the areas of sport and physical activity. In its report, conclusions 1999/17 (1) appealed to governments, the United Nations system and general society to support women to participate in sport and physical activity on a regular basis, which have positive effects on women's health throughout the lifespan, and to guarantee that women have equal opportunity to practice, use facilities, and compete in sport. The outcome of the review supported the assurance of equal opportunities for girls and women at national, regional and international levels in access, training, competition, prizes, and financial benefits (United Nations, 2000).

In 2002, the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace met to promulgate a more cohesive approach to the use of sport-related initiatives in the pursuit of development goals. The task force report, *Sport as a tool for development and peace: Towards achieving the United Nations Millennium Development Goals*, provided an overview of the increasing role that sport plays in many United

Nations policies and programs. The report indicates that sport programs must be based on the “sport for all” model, ensuring that all groups are given access and opportunity to participate, particularly those who gain additional benefits, such as women, people with disabilities, and the young (United Nations, 1999).

Sport and the MDGs are included below (United Nations International Year of Sport and Physical Education, 2005) and have been adapted to provide specific reference to women and sport (United Nations, 2007):

Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. Providing development opportunities will help fight poverty. The sport industry, as well as the organization of large sporting events, creates opportunities for employment. Sport provides life skills essential for a productive life in society. *The opportunity to acquire such skills is often more limited for women, making their access to sport of critical importance.*

Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education. Sport and physical education are essential elements of quality education. They promote positive values and skills that have an immediate and lasting impact on young people. Sport activities and physical education generally make school more attractive and improve attendance. *This is particularly important for girls, as many have fewer opportunities for education than their male counterparts.*

Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women. Increasing access for women and girls to physical education and sport helps build confidence and promotes stronger social integration. *Involving girls in sport activities alongside boys can help overcome prejudice that often contributes to social vulnerability of women and girls.*

Goals 4 and 5: Reduce child mortality and improve maternal health. *Sport can be an effective means to provide women with a healthy lifestyle as well as to convey important messages on a wide range of health issues.*

Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases. Sport can help engage otherwise difficult-to-reach populations and provide positive role models delivering prevention messages. *The most vulnerable populations, including women and girls, are highly responsive to sport-targeted programs.* Sport can also effectively assist in overcoming prejudice, stigma and discrimination.

Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability. Sport is ideal for raising awareness about the need to preserve the environment. The interdependence between the regular practice of outdoor sports and the protection of the environment is clear.

Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development. Sport offers diverse opportunities for innovative partnerships for development and can be used as a tool to build and foster partnerships between developed and developing nations to work towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals.

The General Assembly of the United Nations, in 2004, adopted a resolution (58/5) that provided an historical ‘first’ to the United Nations ‘International Year of...’. The resolution invited governments, nongovernmental agencies, United Nations agencies, and other sport-related stakeholders to join together throughout the world so that sport and physical education opportunities could blossom for the people of the world. The resolution, often referred to as “Sport as a means to promote education, health, development and peace”, recognized sport as a powerful contributor to human growth and development. Resolution 58/5 proclaimed 2005 as the International Year of Sport and Physical Education. Throughout the year, over 100 international initiatives were recorded, including a unique conference focused on women and sport, as part of the 2005 United Nations conference series, on “Effecting Social Change through Women’s Leadership in Sport”, hosted by Kennesaw State University in October, 2005, USA (Kennesaw State University, 2005), in association with the United States Olympic Committee USOC), and the International Labor Organization (ILO).

The Secretary General of the United Nations, in 2006, presented a United Nations action plan on sport for development and peace as part of a report on sport for development (United Nations, 2006a). The plan included the need for the development of a global framework to strengthen a common vision, defined priorities and further raised awareness to promote and mainstream easily repeated sport for development and peace policies. It also included the need for promoting innovative funding mechanisms and voluntary arrangements, including the use of sport organizations, general society, athletes and the private corporate sector. Additionally, resolution 60/9 (2006), specifically requested

Member States to begin sport programs that promulgated gender equality and the empowerment of women.

Within the framework of persons with disabilities, which includes women and girls, a convention on the rights of persons with disabilities (United Nations, 2006b) was held. Resolution 61/106, Article 30, provided a policy framework that supports the right of persons with disabilities to participate in mainstream and disability-specific sporting activities at every level and to have equal access to training, venues, services and resources. Children with disabilities also have the right to equal access, including those in school systems.

During the past 60 years, the UN has provided Member States of the world with policy statements, resolutions, and frameworks that have sought to benefit those who participate in sport. Several of the resolutions, although not mentioning girls and women specifically, infer their inclusion with the term, *everyone*. Within the established framework of the UN human rights and sport for development and peace, substantive progress has been made at international and regional levels. Prioritization of these resolutions, however, had seemingly made little impact on the issue of women and sport until 1995 with the adoption of the Beijing platform for action at the Fourth World Conference on Women. Equality issues in sport and physical education had come to the forefront alongside other rights of women. The women and sport voice had joined the chorus of gender mainstreaming through the United Nations, particularly through behind-the-scenes efforts of WomenSport International and Women's Sports Foundation USA members attending the conference (Oglesby, 2007). Outside the United Nations system, the women and sport movement was beginning to mobilize globally.

#### **2.3.1.2 Brighton Declaration, 1994**

In May, 1994, the “Women, Sport and the Challenge of Change” Conference occurred in Brighton, England. There were 280 delegates, representing 82 countries. It was coordinated by the former British Sports Council and supported by the International Olympic Committee. This conference was unique and evolved from the desire to bring



together a variety of organizations and countries to share ideas and experiences from within the global women and sport movement. The initial impetus for the conference was provided by the UK Sports Council, under the leadership of Anita White (White, 2007). This historical conference presented a forum for an international perspective on women and sport, where governmental and nongovernmental organizations representing the globe had the opportunity to recognize and value diversity through women and sport. It was the first major world conference aimed at decision makers from several sectors of society assembling to focus entirely on women and sport, with learning opportunities of both success and issues faced across the world. The conference agenda reflected issues of culture, gender ability and sexual orientation, along with leadership, management of change, marketing and the media, mentoring and networking. The specific focus of the conference involved the issue of how to accelerate the process of change that would rectify the imbalances women face in participation and involvement in sport at all levels. Three culminating results came from the conference: (1) Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport, (2) International Working Group on Women and Sport, and (3) International Strategy on Women and Sport. First, the Brighton Declaration was drawn up, adopted and endorsed by 280 delegates from 82 countries, representing governments, NGOs, National Olympic Committees, international and national sport federations, and educational and research establishments. The declaration was addressed to all governments, public authorities, organizations, businesses, education and research institutions, women's organizations and people who are responsible for the conduct, development or promotion of sport or who are in any way involved in the employment, education, management, training, development or care of women in sport. It involves principles relating to the following topics:

- (1) Equity and equality in society and sport;
- (2) Facilities that meet the needs of women;
- (3) School and junior sport increased opportunities;
- (4) Developing participation in sport for girls and women;
- (5) High performance sport opportunities for girls and women;
- (6) Leadership in sport through an increase in the quality and number of women coaches, referees, and decision makers;

- (7) Education, training and development that address gender equality;
- (8) Sports information and research on women and sport;
- (9) Resources allocated for women and women's programs; and
- (10) Domestic and international cooperation between governmental and nongovernmental agencies, policies and programs involving women and sport (IWG, 1994).

The Brighton Declaration has proven to be flexible enough to be used to advance women and sport at regional levels as well. Specifically, the declaration was adapted and called the Manila Declaration on Women and Sport (1996) for Asia, with specific amendments to respect cultural issues. This was the first adaptation of the declaration that included cultural issues. The Manila Declaration will be discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.

### **2.3.1.3 International women and sport strategy, 1994 – 1998**

At the Brighton conference, it also became evident that there was a need for an international women and sport strategy (Oglesby, 2007). The second outcome of the conference was the creation of the International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG), an independent coordinating body of invited governmental and nongovernmental organizations. The third result of the conference was the development of a strategy to coordinate work on women and sport issues internationally. IWG recommended the implementation of the strategy and the adoption of the Brighton Declaration by governments, NGOs, National Olympic Committees (NOCs), national and international sport federations, and other organizations worldwide. The development of an international strategic approach also facilitated model programs and successful developments to be shared throughout the world. The thought was that by sharing good practice, change would be accelerated towards a more equitable sport culture. IWG was originally formulated to oversee strategy implementation.

There were four key elements to the strategy:

- (1) Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport;
- (2) International coordination mechanisms;

- (3) Regular conferences and opportunities for information exchange; and
- (4) An international working group on women and sport

One of the primary objectives of the IWG was to secure adoption of the Brighton Declaration by as many influential decision makers across the globe. Presently, over 250 organizations have signed on, in excess of 40 which are international organizations or alliances. Two of the most prominent organizations promulgating the initiative have been IAPESGW and WSI. Regional alliances, such as the Arab, Asian, European, and African women and sport groups have also persuaded, pressured, and championed additional national, regional and international organizations to adopt the declaration. These organizations will be discussed later in this chapter as key role players at international and regional levels. Another primary objective was the establishment of regular conferences. The governmentally supported secretariat was moved from the UK Sports Council in London to the Namibian government in Windhoek.

#### **2.3.1.4 The Windhoek call for action, 1998**

Windhoek, Namibia was selected as the site for the Second World Conference on Women and Sport in 1998. Senior level administrators and policy makers representing government, sport organizations, and women's groups were in attendance (Women's Sports Foundation, 1998). The conference was attended by 400 delegates from 74 countries. The IWG strategic plan to hold regular conferences in various regions of the world in order to grow the women and sport movement proved successful, as 200 of the 400 delegates were from the continent of Africa. One of the significant results of the conference was the launching of the Africa Women in Sport Association which was conceptualized in Brighton. This second conference was entitled "Reaching Out for Change". The theme reflected thoughts of women reaching out to other sectors of society, including health and education, as the issues of women's development and empowerment are broader than just women involved in sport.

The Windhoek call for action was the document that resulted from the conference. It recognized the successes from 1994 – 1998 and identified several areas of concentration

for the next four years. Reaffirming the principles of the Brighton Declaration, the conference delegates called for the following actions (IWG, 1998):

- (1) develop action plans with objectives and targets to implement the Brighton Declaration principles, and monitor and report on their implementation;
- (2) connect with the global women's equality movement organizations and develop partnerships between sport and women's organizations as well as those from education, youth, health, human rights and employment;
- (3) promote and share information about the positive contribution that girls' and women's sport involvement has to social, health and economic issues;
- (4) build capacity of women as leaders and decision makers and guarantee that women play meaningful and visible roles in sport at all levels;
- (5) prevent the "world crisis in physical education" by promulgating and intensifying quality physical education programs for acquisition of motor skills to young girls as well as other benefits physical education provide;
- (6) persuade the media to portray women and girls in sport positively and significantly in depth, breadth and quality of coverage;
- (7) ensure safe and supportive environments for girls and women participating in sport at all levels by acting to eliminate all forms of harassment and abuse, violence and exploitation, and gender testing;
- (8) ensure that policies and programs provide opportunities for all girls and women in recognition of the differences and diversity among them;
- (9) recognize the importance of governments to sport development and implore them to develop appropriate legislation, public policy and funding monitored through gender impact analysis to ensure gender equality in all aspects of sport;
- (10) ensure the Official Development Assistance programs provide equal opportunities for girls' and women's development and recognize the potential of sport to achieve development objectives;
- (11) encourage more women to become researchers in sport, and more research conducted on critical issues relating to women in sport.

The second result of the Windhoek conference was the pledge to host a third conference in 2002 in Montreal, Canada.

### **2.3.1.5 International Women and Sport Strategy, 1998 – 2002**

After the Windhoek conference, there was a need to readjust the international women and sport strategy to the next level. The Brighton Declaration provided statements of principle and raising awareness, the Windhoek call for action provided action. IWG developed an approach for the next four-year period that included:

- (1) commitment to the implementation of the principles and actions contained in the Brighton Declaration and the Windhoek call for action;
- (2) maximization of international coordination mechanisms, such as cooperation between the IWG, the IOC Working Group on Women and Sport, WSI, IAPESGW, UN Commission on the Status of Women and others;
- (3) provision of regular conferences and opportunities for information exchange;
- (4) development and maintenance of strategic alliances with the global women's development movement;
- (5) continuation of the IWG in a facilitating, supporting and monitoring role; and
- (6) staging of the Third World Conference on Women and Sport in Canada in 2002.

IWG appointed itself to serve as the coordinating mechanism for promoting and facilitating the development of opportunities for girls and women in sport and physical activity throughout the world (IWG, 1998). The governmentally funded secretariat was moved from Windhoek, Namibia to Sport Canada, Quebec, in anticipation of the 2002 conference.

During this period, IWG (1999) served as a catalyst for existing organizations and attempted to achieve the following aims:

- (1) to monitor the adoption of the Brighton Declaration and the implementation of the Windhoek call for action by governments, national, regional and international organizations worldwide;
- (2) to draw up an IWG action plan, with priorities, which targets those areas and organizations where equality for women and sport is not on the agenda;

- (3) to act as a contact and reference point for international and national organizations and regional women and sport groups, focusing on international developments on women and sport and facilitating the exchange of information;
- (4) to act as a “steward” for the 2002 World Conference on Women and Sport, at which time progress on the strategy was assessed;
- (5) to seek the inclusion of issues relating to women and sport, in cooperation with other organizations, on the agendas of major international conferences and to provide advice on the content of international conferences that address the issue of women and sport;
- (6) to develop and maintain alliances with the global women’s development movement.

#### **2.3.1.6 The Montreal Communiqué, 2002**

The Third World Conference on Women and Sport occurred in Montreal, Canada in 2002. Over 550 delegates from 97 countries experienced application of many of the strategies previously mentioned in conferences. They learned new skills, identified barriers faced by girls and women, shared and celebrated successes, and recommended the continuation of positive changes for women in sport (IWG, 2002). The title of the conference, “Investing in Change”, provided a significant document for the women and sport movement. It provided “The Montreal Toolkit”, a reference manual that contains 5 sections: Section A – Tools for advocating change; Section B – Tools for changing organizations, systems and structures; Section C – Tools for individual development; Section D – Tools for action; and Section E – Resources. Each of the 5 tools is introduced with a description, then When to Use It, followed by the Format of the Tool. Individual action plans were created by each participant. The Montreal Communiqué proposed that realizing broader goals of health, education and women’s human rights involved multifaceted action plans, including information and advocacy campaigns as well as the integration of sport into community development. The conference delegates called for a sustainable infrastructure for women’s and girls’ sport, including (IWG, 2002):

- (1) safe and supportive spaces for play and physical development;
- (2) quality physical education in schools for all children, to develop fundamental motor skills and abilities;
- (3) equal opportunity for competition and training;

(4) sport as health promotion and to develop awareness of the power of sport in avoiding risk behaviours like early sexual activity and teen pregnancy, substance abuse, HIV/AIDS, inactivity and obesity and in promoting the ability to choose positive lifestyles;

(5) strong links between practice, policy and research, including research to provide evidence for advocacy and improved delivery of sport programs;

(6) effective networks and communication between women working in all roles and levels in sport;

(7) strategic approaches to gender equity in sport.

IWG decided to hold the fourth conference in Kumamoto, Japan in 2006.

### **2.3.1.7 International Women and Sport Strategy, 2002 – 2006**

Conference participants in Montreal provided the IWG with a series of objectives for the next four year cycle leading up to Kumamoto. These included:

(1) to recommend to the UN and to conference participants countries include sport for women as a section of reports to the monitoring group for the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (UNDAW);

(2) to present an official report of the 2002 World Conference on Women and Sport to the 2004 Ministers of Physical Education and Sport to be held under the auspices of the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (MINEPS IV);

(3) to monitor progress against the principles of the Brighton Declaration, the Windhoek call for action, and to collect evidence of the use of sport in developing women, communities, and nations;

(4) to develop and extend the availability of resources for people working for women and sport across the world;

(5) to record and evaluate examples of gender mainstreaming in sport and physical activity policy and provision;

(6) to continue to monitor the effects of the world crisis in physical education and to promote evidence-based advocacy on the value of school physical education for girls and young women;

- (7) to support and encourage the work of the international organizations of women's sport and physical education and to encourage sustainable structures for development of women and sport, including working between governments and NGOs, NOCs and physical education organizations at national and regional levels;
- (8) to encourage active cooperation between health, education, and general equity agencies, at national and international levels;
- (9) to work cooperatively with International Federations and the Olympic Movement; and
- (10) to work proactively to encourage cultural and structural change among sports organizations, towards gender equity.

#### **2.3.1.8 MINEPS IV Commission III Women and Sport Recommendations, 2004**

The Commission III Women and Sport Recommendations document was a milestone for the ministers of physical education and sport in UNESCO. At the fourth international conference held in Athens, Greece, nine recommendations were constructed involving women and sport. Six of them are germane to women and sport (UNESCO, 2004):

- (1) a steering committee, comprised of Greek government officials, UNESCO and representatives of key international bodies with a mandate in women and sport, meet to prepare a project description to present to UNESCO by the end of August 2005 and that officials of the Greek Government chair the steering committee and become responsible for a plan and budget for its work. (The result of the 2005 meeting was a plan for a UNESCO Women, Sport and Physical Education Observatory. At this point, the observatory has not become a reality.);
- (2) governments and NGOs need to use the sport budget as a tool for achieving gender equality. The monitoring of progress using a self-assessment approach is recommended;
- (3) sufficient time should be found in the curriculum to provide quality physical education for all children, particularly girls;
- (4) partner with organizations to facilitate appropriate training for women, particularly those that are least developed, for elementary school physical education, coaching, officiating, and administration;



(5) intervention programs should be developed to address the challenges of obesity, teen pregnancy, osteoporosis in post-menopausal women, and quality physical activity programs, including appropriate outcomes monitoring;

(6) Member States send at least one delegate to the Fourth IWG Conference on Women and Sport in Kumamoto, Japan in 2006.

### **2.3.1.9 Kumamoto Commitment to Collaboration, 2006**

The Fourth World Conference on Women and Sport was held in Kumamoto, Japan in 2006. The title of the conference was “Participating in Change”. It was the first time that a city in Asia had bid for the conference and where its citizens played an integral role in the conductance of the event. Over 600 delegates from 127 countries committed to the following statement at the end of the conference: “In order to realize gender equality in and through sport, we commit to building a network for close collaboration with relevant agencies and individuals over the next 4 years (2006 – 2010), we will further develop the vision of active participation in change born at the Kumamoto conference.” (IWG, 2006)

### **2.3.1.10 International Women and Sport Strategy, 2006 – 2010**

The IWG came to a crossroads after the Kumamoto conference. The vision, mission and objectives of the group were to take the historic vision of the Brighton Declaration and provide a contemporary approach to the end of the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century.

The vision of the IWG, established in 2007, draws from the Brighton Declaration: “...to realize a sustainable sporting culture that enables and values the full involvement of women in every aspect of sport”. Its mission involves serving as “...a catalyst for the advancement and empowerment of women and sport globally”. Core values include “...collaboration, inclusiveness, transparency, and outcomes-focus” (IWG, 2007).

There will be 5 key focal points for the next 4 years: (1) living up to the Kumamoto Commitment; (2) hosting a successful 5<sup>th</sup> World Conference on Women and Sport in Sydney in 2010; (3) close liaison with UNDAW, particularly with the publication of *Women 2000 and Beyond*, a publication of UNDAW and the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, in collaboration with Oglesby, IWG and WSI in February, 2008; and

(5) devising a sustainable organization with transparent and democratic systems for worldwide representation. A 5-year strategic plan, annual business plans and additional financial resources will also be formulated (IWG, 2007).

Other international organizations have also developed policy frameworks as a result of the Brighton Declaration. The following section involves the contribution that the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has had since 1996 when it held its first IOC Women and Sport Conference in Lausanne, Switzerland.

#### **2.3.1.11 IOC Resolutions, 1996; 2000; 2004; 2008**

##### **1996, Lausanne, Switzerland Resolution**

The IOC, after its general assembly in 1996, vowed to hold an International Women and Sport Conference once every four years, under the aegis of the IOC Commission on Women and Sport. The first conference, held in Lausanne, Switzerland, provided its first resolution on women and sport. Acknowledging that the Olympic ideal will not be fully realized without equality for women within the Olympic Movement, the resolution called upon: (please note: selected articles)

- (1) the IOC, International Federations (IFs), and NOCs to consider the issue of gender equality throughout their organizational structures and functions;
- (2) all organizations to provide equal opportunities to all women, whether as participants or decision makers, and to create special committees focusing on women and sport action plans and to have at least 10 % of the committee composition be women;
- (6) the IOC to provide a special fund within Olympic Solidarity that is available for the promotion and training of women as officials, administrators, managers, and coaches, with emphasis on developing nations;
- (7) the IOC organize annually and on each continent, training seminars/programs for women in coaching, technical activity, administration, or media/journalism;
- (8) one of the criteria in bidding by cities to host the Olympic Games involves the city's demonstrated ability to serve the needs of women in sport;
- (10) the dissolution of gender verification as part of the requirements for women athletes to participate in the Games;

(15) the IOC elevate the Working Group on Women and Sport to the status of an IOC commission; and

(17) the IOC identify a theme for the 1996 – 2000 quadrennial, the ‘Olympiad for Women’ (IOC, 1996).

### **2000, Paris, France Resolution**

The 2<sup>nd</sup> IOC World Conference on Women and Sport was held in Paris, France. The resulting resolution from the conference called for several strategies and actions, such as:

(1) meet the goal of a minimum of 20 % of women in decision making roles by 2005;

(2) the IOC, the International Sports Federations and the NOCs set their own forward targets for future representation in governing bodies through 2020;

(3) encourage the minimum representation of at least one woman representative in national delegations at world and regional assemblies;

(4) increase scholarships and training courses for women leaders, athletes and coaches and other officials;

(6) invite intergovernmental organizations, and UNESCO in particular, to raise awareness about the positive influence of CEDAW articles on the development of physical activity and sport for girls and women;

(7) raise awareness about the importance of a quality physical education and develop a strategy and educational material to support physical education for girls in school curricula in particular;

(9) develop and implement a policy on sexual harassment including codes of conducts for athletes, coaches, sport leaders, and other Olympic parties to include this theme in all workshops and conferences organized by the International Federations and the NOCs;

(11) work more closely with the media to ensure a more accurate projection of the real image about women's sport and to develop special training programs for women journalists (IOC, 2000).

### **2004, Marrakech, Morocco Resolution**

At the end of the 3<sup>rd</sup> IOC World Conference on Women and Sport, held in Marrakech, the conference adopted recommendations, including:

- (1) Reaffirmation of targets set in 1996 by the IOC for the NOCs and international federations to have 20 % women in decision making positions by 2005;
- (2) Assurance that all sport groups in the Olympic Movement have adequate representation of women in commissions and committees;
- (3) Request that all delegates immediately and voluntarily support the promotion, training and freedom of women in and at all levels of sport in clubs and national federations;
- (5) Encouragement for the Olympic Movement to cooperate with the UN system, the World Bank, and others to promote policies and programs that favour equality of the sexes and support human and socio-economic development through sport;
- (6) Encouragement for the Olympic Solidarity Committee to place priorities on proportionate funding of women and sport programs and projects;
- (7) Ask that athletes serve as role models and mentors for young girls and women to facilitate growth and development in personal and professional life and contribute to promote diversity, peace and human understanding;
- (8) Urge the Olympic Movement to invest in programs to divert HIV/AIDS and other health-related issues that primarily affect women and children;
- (9) Encouragement of sport participation of those with disabilities; and
- (10) Work more closely with the media in order to ensure the appropriate messages are sent about females participating in sport (IOC, 2004).

### **2008, Amman/Dead Sea, Jordan Plan of Action**

The most recent International IOC Women and Sport Conference was held near Amman, Jordan in a conference center on the Dead Sea. This conference produced a plan of action rather than the traditional IOC resolutions of 1996, 2000 and 2004 that encourage, urge, suggest, ask, request, and recommend. Six major areas of interest were listed with specific plans of action:

- (1) Seize upcoming opportunities to promote gender equality – four areas were highlighted: (a) the Olympic Games in Beijing; (b) quadrennial elections of the NOCs; (c) the Olympic Congress in 2009; and (d) the Youth Olympic Games. The international federations are to be reminded about the representation of women in the composition of

teams, chefs de mission, support personnel, coaches, and officials. The chair of the Women and Sport Commission will request the IOC president to remind all members of the 120<sup>th</sup> General Session in Beijing the importance of having women in decision making positions. The opportunity to increase the number of women in upcoming elections is of paramount importance, as the mandate of the IOC states that all NOCs must have women on their executive committees and that this will be an enforceable requirement. The president will be requested to remind the IFs and the continental associations of the value of having women in their highest positions of leadership. The IOC's congress in Denmark in 2009 will be of great significance, as it will provide new direction for the Olympic Movement. One important cornerstone for the agenda moving forward into the 21<sup>st</sup> Century is the inclusion of the topic of gender throughout the five themes of the congress. The Women and Sport Commission will actively seek women to participate in the virtual congress online. The commission will also identify and invite a minimum of five women to present in-depth papers on topics involving girls, women and sport in the themes of the congress. The commission will engage the IOC to reflect gender balance in athlete, coach, official, and support personnel for the Youth Olympic Games. The commission will also remind the IOC of the IOC Consensus Statements on Training the Elite Child Athlete, the Female Athlete Triad, and Sexual Harassment and Abuse in Sport, their relevance to the Youth Olympic Games, and the need to widely publicize and distribute the documents to those involved.

(2) Governance – There is a need for up-to-date research in the area of gender in the Olympic Movement. The IOC will be asked to update its information immediately and share it with those in the Olympic Movement and its stakeholders. There is a need to create a 'Women in the Olympic Movement Network'. The commission suggests that the IOC website be used to initiate such a network and that the idea be taken up with the IOC president immediately. There is also a need for men to participate in women and sport conferences and fora. It is hoped that there will be gender balance in upcoming events.

(3) Empowerment through education and development – those at the conference recognized the need to redefine the purpose and the content of women and sport regional and sub-regional fora from policy discussion meetings to leadership training sessions. The commission will request the IOC president to intervene with the chair of the Olympic

Solidarity Commission to consider special funding for training in its upcoming quadrennial plans and budgets.

(4) Women, sport and the media – the IOC will encourage women sports journalists to take an active role in covering the Olympic Games and related events. Those responsible in the IOC departments and Olympic Solidarity should strengthen the training for women in sport on how to work with the media.

(5) Women, sport and the MDGs – the conference participants recognized the fundamental principles and goals of Olympism and reemphasize the role that the Olympic Movement can play in the achievement of the MDG, especially related to women and girls. The IOC has signed a Memorandum of Understanding with 14 UN specialized agencies and has a special working relationship with the UN itself.

(6) Commitment of delegates at the conference – those attending the conference committed to the accomplishment of the Dead Sea plan of action and to provide feedback at future conferences and upon request of the IOC.

The IOC began its tangible commitment to gender mainstreaming through sport with its initiation of the IOC Women and Sport Working Group (1994). The Brighton Declaration and other international women and sport organizations had direct influence on this decision (White, 1997). The decision to host a women and sport conference quadrennially, beginning in 1996, and the acknowledgement that the Olympic ideal would never be fully realized without equality for women within the Olympic Movement, resolutions devised and actions initiated have facilitated gender issues to their present state. Scholars have stated that the IOC has moved too slowly and has not taken a proactive global leadership role in many of the issues involved in the women and sport movement (Corbett, 2000; Talbot, 2004).

It is notable that the following policies and declarations, although regional in nature, have addressed similar issues involving gender mainstreaming in and through sport, but may have actually been ahead of global policies and declarations. Of particular note is the assertiveness of the European Union in establishing benchmarks and monitoring progress relative to gender mainstreaming.

## **2.3.2 Regional Sport Policies and Declarations**

### **2.3.2.1 Manila Declaration, 1996**

A significant step forward was taken in Manila in 1996 when the Philippine Sports Commission, the Philippine Women's Sports Foundation and the International Council for Health Physical Education, Recreation, Sport and Dance (ICHPER-SD) Girls and Women in Sport Commission hosted the 1<sup>st</sup> Asian conference on women and sport. Sixteen Asian nations were represented. The Brighton Declaration was adapted and called the Manila declaration, with principal amendments to respect cultural matters. A covenant was also designed whereby each country's representative signed (Kluka, 1996).

### **2.3.2.2 Helsinki Spirit, 2000**

The European Women and Sport Network (EWS) met in Helsinki, Finland for its fourth EWS conference. The theme, "Women, Sport and Culture: How to change sports culture" was attended by 250 delegates from 47 European countries. The result of the conference was the Helsinki spirit. The following recommendations were presented to be dealt with by the network in the future (EWS, 2000):

- (1) that women's role as a resource for sports culture and decision making be strengthened;
- (2) that women and men share responsibility in/for equality in sport;
- (3) that sports and physical activities for people with disabilities and special needs be guaranteed an equal part in sports culture;
- (4) that the awareness and value of equality in sport be increased;
- (5) that the Bratislava Council of Europe resolution on sexual harassment be implemented and monitored; and
- (6) that the Berlin agenda for physical education and the declaration of Punta del Este be implemented and monitored.

### **2.3.2.3 Council of Europe Resolution, 2002**

The Council of Europe, in an unprecedented move, took a strong stance on the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse of women, young people and children in sport. This was

a significant resolution by government, as the topic was one that has seldom reached the governmental level (Council of Europe, 2002).

#### **2.3.2.4 African Sports Confederation of Disabled (ASCOD) policy on disabled women's and girls' participation in sport, 2002**

Constitutionalized as a non-profit organization and recognized by the Supreme Council of Sports in Africa in 1992, ASCOD created a policy relative to participation of women and girls with disabilities in sport and recreation a decade later. It specifically focused upon women and girls with disabilities and the need for access to facilities and equipment, the need for equitable funding for programs, competent coaches, and the development of an action plan to promote, develop and provide equal opportunities for both women/girls and men/boys (ASCOD, 2002).

#### **2.3.2.5 European Parliament Resolution on Women and Sport, 2002/2280(INI)**

Shortly following the Council of Europe's decisions, one of the most detailed and unique resolutions regarding women and sport put forth by a regional government was established by the European Parliament. Building upon CEDAW (1979), the Beijing Platform for Action (1995), the IOC women and sport recommendations (1996), the Olympic Charter (1994), the IOC world conferences on women and sport in 1996 and 2000, the 1<sup>st</sup> world conference on women and sport which produced the Brighton Declaration (1994), the Second International World Conference on Women and Sport (1998), and conferences held by the European Women and Sport network in 1998 and 2002, the following was institutionalized by members of the European Parliament in the form of actions that specifically pertained to women and sport (European Parliament, 2002). Selected items include:

D. having regard to the strong disparities in access to sports activities between women and men and also between women themselves, based on social background and conditions of employment which may act as an obstacle to leisure and sports opportunities,

E. whereas physical activity and sport represent an ideal form of rehabilitation and,



equally, a means of social integration for the physically or mentally disabled, and whereas, in particular, steps must be taken to ensure that disabled persons of both sexes can exercise to the full their right to participate in all forms of sport at their level and in keeping with their own needs,

F. whereas it is important to make available sporting activities which correspond to women's needs at every stage of their lives, in particular for pregnant women and young mothers, along with the provision of advice concerning sports suited to their condition; and whereas similar advice should be given to the elderly (women and men), suggesting sporting activities which are beneficial to their mental and physical health,,

I. whereas sport provides a release for girls and women of all ages, a means of achieving success and emancipation, as well as in some cases a way of challenging social and cultural constraints; whereas, however, participation by migrant women and girls in sports is below average,

J. whereas, although the legal prohibitions on women's access to sports have been removed, women still participate to a lesser extent than men in sports, are more prominently represented in some sports than others, and remain under-represented in sports administration and decision-taking,

K. whereas women are under-represented among sports license holders and in official competitions and make little use of institutionalized sports venues (clubs and associations), preferring mostly to pursue informal physical activities related to fitness and leisure,

L. whereas sport is a forum where sexual identities are represented and sports continue to be firmly divided in line with gender-based stereotypes where dominant models of masculinity and femininity are reproduced, but may also be subverted,

M. whereas, when they take part in sports, girls and boys must face the challenge of forging equality based on an acceptance of physical differences; whereas adolescence, with the onset of puberty, is a time when many girls give up sports activities, particularly those from disadvantaged backgrounds,

N. having regard to the importance of highlighting the performances of top-level sportswomen, who should serve as a role model for young girls,

O. whereas top-level women athletes are workers and, as such, are covered by Community employment law, in particular the Directive 2002/73/EC,

P. whereas top-level sportswomen do not enjoy equal treatment vis-à-vis their male counterparts with regard to income and financial resources (bursaries, subsidies, sponsors), nor as regards vocational reintegration,

Q. whereas the status of top-level athlete gives sportsmen and sportswomen economic and social rights, while providing them with a professional environment; whereas in some European countries women still suffer from discrimination with regard to this status and the conditions for achieving it,

R. whereas participation by women athletes in international competitions has increased, although technical and medical staff, as well as referees and officials, are still mostly men (at the Sydney Olympic Games women accounted for 38% of the athletes, 8% of technical staff and 4% of medical staff),

S. whereas top-level sport poses a threat to the health of athletes, particularly women, who are vulnerable, for instance, to the "female athlete triad", of eating disorders, irreversible amenorrhea and osteoporosis,

T. whereas special attention should be paid to measures aimed at preventing and combating harassment and sexual abuse in the world of sport,

U. having regard to the poor media coverage given to women's sport and the socially discriminating and sexually stereotyped reporting found in the media,

V. having regard to the Brighton Declaration of 1994, the substantial work performed by the International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG) and the European Women and Sport network (EWS),

W. whereas the implementation of an integrated approach to gender equality in Community policies and actions in the field of sport is not backed up by sufficient human and financial resources nor by the necessary supervisory and monitoring mechanisms,

1. Declares that women's sport is an expression of the right to equality and the freedom of all women to take control of their bodies and participate in sports publicly, regardless of nationality, age, disability, sexual orientation or religion;

2. Stresses that the goal of equal opportunities is to overcome barriers between so-called

"masculine" and "feminine" sports and that the aim is to encourage all sports to be open to both sexes and enable all girls and boys to engage in the physical activity of their choice;

3. Calls on the Member States and the European Union to guarantee women and men equal access to sporting activities at all levels and at all stages of life, regardless of social background, particularly in the case of the mentally or physically disabled, who should be encouraged to take part in sport and physical activity;

4. Calls on the European Convention to provide a legal basis for sport in the future Treaty of the Union, recognizing its cultural, educational and social functions and including a reference to equal access for women and men to participation in sports and related responsibilities;

5. Calls on the Commission to support the promotion of women's sports in Community programs and actions, while also raising awareness in the sporting world and the Member States and disseminating best practice;

6. Proposes that participation in sport by girls and women be included as an operational objective in the future Community framework strategy on gender equality for 2006-2010;

7. Calls on the Member States, NGOs and other organizations to submit "women and sport" projects in the context of the forthcoming call for submissions under the Community framework strategy on gender equality for 2001-2005, which will focus on the elimination of sexist stereotypes, particularly in sport;

9. Calls on the Commission to undertake a wide-ranging study into the position of women in sport, as suggested at the Conference of Sports Ministers held on 12 November 2001, and in the process to submit, *inter alia*, statistics on the general position of women in sport and information on gender budgeting;

10. Calls on the European Union to provide support for the functioning of the European Women and Sport (EWS) network;

11. Calls on the European Union to examine the health issue, social concerns and educational challenges relating to women's participation in sport, notably in the context of its sixth framework research program;

13. Calls on Eurostat to devise indicators and produce European statistics on male and

female participation in sport at all levels;

14. Calls on government authorities to systematically take account of gender equality in their sports policies, particularly in the granting of subsidies;

15. Calls on the Commission and the Member States to include the issue of "women and sport" in bilateral and cooperation agreements with third countries; calls on Parliament to include the issue of "women and sport" in inter-parliamentary discussions and Euro-Mediterranean meetings;

16. Is considering sending a delegation from its Committee on Women's Rights and Equal Opportunities to the EWS European Conference on 23-25 April 2004 in Paris and the IGW International Conference on 11-14 May 2006 in Kumamoto.

23. Emphasizes that every possible effort must be made to enable women to practice sport and physical activity and to give them better access to sports facilities by providing special courses and timetables, childcare facilities and decent transport services for sports centers;

24. Calls on sports associations to include in their statutes the principle of equal access to sport for women and men, to implement an action plan to promote women in their discipline, to carry out gender mainstreaming training and to earmark a budget heading for women's amateur sport, proposing mixed participation or introducing women's sections;

26. Calls on government authorities, businesses and the two sides of industry to encourage sport activities at the workplace, in particular through collective agreements, and, more specifically, to develop measures designed to facilitate access to sport for women in precarious employment and women in difficulty, given the complexity of reconciling work, family life and leisure;

27. Calls on the Member States and the sports movement to abolish the distinction between male and female disciplines in top-level sports recognition procedures;

28. Calls on national federations and their supervisory authorities to give women and men equal access to the status of top-level athlete, ensuring that they enjoy the same rights as regards income, training and supervision, medical back-up, access to competitions, social welfare, vocational training and active social reintegration at the end

of their sports careers;

29. Calls on government and sports authorities to ensure the elimination of direct and indirect discrimination suffered by female athletes in their work;

30. Calls on businesses to step up their efforts to sponsor top-level sportswomen, seeking to enhance their image and promote women's sport as a whole;

31. Calls on the media to provide balanced coverage of male and female sport and to represent women in sport in a non-discriminatory manner;

32. Proposes that, when Directive 89/552/EEC on "Television without Frontiers" is amended, and in particular Article 3(a) concerning the broadcasting of major sports events, Member States include the gender dimension in the broadcasting of such events;

33. Urges sportswomen to organize themselves in order to defend their sporting, economic and social rights and to bring cases of discrimination and harassment to the competent authorities or before the courts;

34. Calls for the forthcoming Olympic Games in Athens to be exemplary and calls on the IOC to ensure mixed representation in all national teams;

35. Urges sports federations and trainers to show the utmost vigilance as regards guidelines and conditions for the practice of sport and to inform top-level sportswomen, particularly young women, of the effects of intensive training, use of doping substances or neglect of dietary rules on their physical, physiological, sexual and reproductive health;

36. Stresses that, in order to protect the health of female athletes, special training is needed for medical and paramedical staff, together with the inclusion of more women in medical and paramedical teams;

37. Emphasizes the need to carry out special gender-specific studies on the impact of sport on the health of athletes;

38. Considers it important for female athletes to be given psychological support to enable them to come to terms with the changes in their physical appearance or to deal with questions regarding their femininity; believes that account of these aspects must be taken in training for coaches;

39. Stresses that sportswomen enjoy inalienable rights as regards sexuality and

reproduction and calls for any breach of these freedoms to be penalized;

40. Urges Member States and sports federations to adopt measures for the prevention and elimination of sexual harassment and abuse in sport by enforcing the legislation on sexual harassment at work, to inform athletes and their parents of the risks of abuse and the means of legal action available to them, to provide sports organizations' staff with specific training and to ensure that criminal and disciplinary provisions are applied;

41. Notes that the participation of women in decision-making in sport faces the same barriers as in the political and economic sphere and that affirmative action is needed;

42. Calls on Member States and regulatory authorities to make the recognition and subsidizing of sports associations and authorities conditional upon the adoption of statutory provisions ensuring equal representation of women and men at all levels and for all decision-making posts;

43. Calls on sports organizations and authorities to promote women's participation in refereeing and adjudication and to establish mixed representation on medical committees and selection committees;

44. Calls on sports organizations to introduce training and counseling programs for women athletes to help them find employment, in particular as coaches, technical staff and managers;

45. Calls on the sports movement to comply with the IOC target for women's participation in decision-making (20% of women in management structures by 31 December 2005) and to increase it to 30% over the next 10 years;

46. Instructs its President to forward this resolution to the Council, the Commission and the parliaments of the Member States.

Another substantive contribution was the European Union's *White Paper on Sport* (2007) and its accompanying action plan that highlighted the need to encourage gender mainstreaming issues into all of the European Union's activities that relate to sport. This document was referred to as a "...framework of its (European Union) roadmap for equality between women and men 2006 – 2010" (European Union, p.3) and encouraged gender issues as mainstream items in all sport-related activities, focusing especially on access and opportunities for immigrant and ethnic minority women, access of all women

to decision making positions in sport and media coverage. This includes the promotion of Muslim women and girls in physical activity, which presents two issues: full and equal opportunities as a right and respect for cultural diversity, which includes the practice of segregation by sex in sport participation. An additional step was included: the use of sport as a tool for development, with targets set on women and girls to participate in physical education and sport in order to build self efficacy, advance social integration, defeat discrimination and promulgate healthy lifestyles through education. Finally, the European Parliament also included funding for the EWS network that is professional and holds similar core values to promote women and girls in sport.

Although the European Parliament has no jurisdiction in sport specifically, it serves as a compass for the directionality of its Member States. The implementation of policies, frameworks, resolutions, and declarations is left up to each member state. There is additional incentive placed by the Parliament for member state compliance, as funding is tied to initiatives relating to the above-mentioned issues.

#### **2.3.2.6 Asian Women and Sport: Doha Conference Resolutions, 2003**

The 2<sup>nd</sup> Asian Conference on Women and Sport, held in Doha, Qatar, 2003, adopted the Doha Conference Resolutions, which sought to persuade all governmental and NGOs to actively support women and sport (2<sup>nd</sup> Asian Conference on Women and Sport, 2003).

#### **2.3.2.7 European Women and Sport: Paris Call for action, 2005**

The EWS held a significant conference in 2005 in Paris, France, building upon the Brighton Declaration, the Helsinki spirit recommendations, the Athens declaration of UNESCO on women and sport 2001, and its own ability to promote gender equality in sport through its network. The Paris call for action contained 3 aims: (1) ensuring balanced participation of women and men in positions of decision making and responsibility; (2) providing committed support for the democratization of access to sport by women; and (3) developing education through and in sport for women. The document urged Member States of the European Union to implement the European Parliament resolution on women and sport, to embrace cultural diversity by the provision of equal opportunities for all people to participate in physical activities that are in line with their

cultural choices, and to encourage the European sport, Olympic and Paralympic Movements to devise training and mentoring programs for women as volunteers and decision makers (EWS, 2005).

#### **2.3.2.8 Asian Women and Sport: Yemen Challenge, 2005**

At its 3<sup>rd</sup> Asian Conference on Women and Sport in Yemen (2005), delegates underscored the importance for:

- (1) the Asia Women and Sport (AWS) group to collaborate with the Olympic Council of Asia to promote and develop women in sport in Asia;
- (2) the AWS to collect information on the status of women and sport in Asia and present the information at the Fourth World Conference on Women and Sport in 2006;
- (3) all sport organizations to engage in alliances and partnerships with government and NGOs for the promulgation of women and sport;
- (4) all sport organizations to exceed the IOC target of 20 % women at all levels in structures of decision making;
- (5) all Asian governments and NOCs to develop national women and sport policies by the 2006 Doha Asian Games, focusing specifically on women with disabilities;
- (6) all governments and sport organizations to emphasize a return to quality physical education programs within the rebuilding process of communities after the tsunami and other natural disasters;
- (7) all governments and sport organizations to implement the resolutions of the 2003 Doha Asian Conference on Women and Sport.

#### **2.3.2.9 Accept and Respect Declaration, Oman, 2008**

IAPESGW, in collaboration with Sultan Qaboos University, hosted an international study week on physical education and sport for girls and women in 2008. The study group included scholars, practitioners and administrators in physical education and sport from 14 Islamic countries. The purpose of the group was to affirm the value of physical education and sport in the lives of people throughout the world and, by sharing a range of culturally and nationally diverse experiences, to identify means of improving the opportunities for Muslim women in and through sport and physical education. This was



the first declaration that was specifically aimed at accepting and respecting issues involving Muslim women in sport and which was immediately available in both English and Arabic. Seven points were included in the accept and respect declaration (IAPESGW, 2008):

- (1) Islam is an enabling religion that endorses women's participation in physical activity;
- (2) We affirm the importance of physical education and physical activity in the lives of all girls and boys, men and women;
- (3) We emphasize the importance of good quality programs of physical education and sport within school curriculum time, especially for girls;
- (4) We emphasize the desirability, in places where many children have limited access to school, of providing other ways of helping children to learn the physical skills and confidence they need to practice sport;
- (5) We recommend that people working in the sport and education systems accept and respect the diverse ways in which Muslim women and girls practice their religion and participate in sport and physical activity, for example, choices of activity, dress and gender grouping;
- (6) We urge international sport federations to show their commitment to inclusion by ensuring that their dress codes for competition embrace Islamic requirements, taking into account the principles of propriety, safety and integrity;
- (7) We recommend national governments and organizations include in their strategies for development of sport and physical education, structures and systems that encourage women to take positions in teaching and research, coaching, administration and leadership.

#### **2.4 AIMS OF GLOBAL AND REGIONAL SPORT POLICIES AND DECLARATIONS**

The United Nations has provided its Member States with declarations, resolutions, divisions and commissions that produced substantive and substantial directives involving the rights of women, children, those with disabilities, and women, sport and development and women's health, since its inception in 1948. Frequently, however, initiatives went unfunded, insufficiently funded, or unmonitored, thereby establishing powerful rhetoric,

but little positive action to produce social change in the form of gender mainstreaming. It would take more than the United Nations itself to focus the attention of the world on matters of consequence.

Between 1994 and 1998, over 200 organizations worldwide and at a variety of levels, adopted the Brighton Declaration (White, 1997a). The Declaration provided women with a substantive document that would assist in the pressurization of major role players in the sport movement. For example, WSI utilized the Declaration to lure the IOC into adoption of the Declaration in September, 1995, realizing that the document was endorsed by an enormous number of influential organizations (Hargreaves, 1999). With compelling competence, WSI, IAPESGW and IWG pressured the IOC into going even further by its establishment of its own Working Group on Women and Sport in March, 1996; ratifying the Working Group's proposals (Atlanta, 1996); and setting targets for women as members of NOCs and international federations. These benchmarks were set at 10 % by 2000 and 20 % by 2005 (White, 1997a).

The period between 1994 and 1998 can be viewed as a period of gaining awareness and acceptance of the gender equality and equity that was the focus of the Brighton Declaration. The period between 1998 and 2002, rather, was about translating principles into practice and joining with the global women's movement with respect to health, education and employment (Hargreaves, 1999). Those at the conference recognized the need for linkages with the Beijing platform for action and the United Nations CEDAW documents. The call for action was specifically focused on those who work in agencies in national and international environments who are responsible for girls and women in sport programs, projects, and/or initiatives. It was not focused on those who participate in the programs, projects, and/or initiatives (Women's Sports Foundation, 1998). Between 2002 – 2006, the Montreal Communiqué served to provide additional tangible models by which organizations could solicit strategies, programs and projects to further the involvement of women in sport. The most recent era, 2006 – 2010, is connected to its initiation. What began at the global level two decades ago is deeply rooted in its current vision. The notion of gender mainstreaming and core values of creating a sporting culture

that would "...enable and value the full involvement of women in every aspect of sport" (IWG, 2007, p. 1) is evidenced in the IWG vision statement..

The IOC adopted the Brighton Declaration in 1995, reacting to the overwhelming support from the delegates at the 1994 conference in Brighton. Pressure from WSI, IAPESGW, ICSSPE, and other women in sport groups, the IOC established its own Working Group on Women and Sport in 1995, which ultimately became the Commission on Women and Sport, the IOC ratified, in 2004, the recommendations from the Working Group, and set target goals for women as decision makers of NOCs and international federations (10 % by 2000 and 20 % by 2005) (White, 1997a). In 1996, the IOC placed 3 more women on its committee and added women's weightlifting, triathlon, taekwondo, and softball as new sports for women, and also placed an additional number of women's hockey teams to the Olympic Program. The IOC revised the Olympic Charter to include the promotion of women in sport, provided IOC seminars on women and sport, has hosted four of its own world conferences on women and sport, and emblematically placed Anita de Frantz as the first woman as an IOC vice president.

At this point in the global women's movement, there appears to be great synergy for a transformational approach relative to women's development and empowerment perspectives (Hargreaves, 1999). In order for transformation to occur, however, there must be an increasing inclusiveness of *all* women in the movement. This means that political views involving acknowledgement, dissimilarity, individuality, inclusion and values identified with those views, need to be addressed and dealt with. The women and sport movement has begun to be placed as a valued driver in the overall women's movement, with its acceptance into UN documents and initiatives, the IOC's partnership with the UN, and the strategic plan of the IWG. Significantly, the role of women as participants in the process of social change, rather than recipients, has created a necessary paradigm shift in the value of women in all sectors and at all levels of society (Chowdhry, 1995).

## **2.5 INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL ROLE PLAYERS**

Internationally, there have been several organizations whose leadership has been in the forefront of gender mainstreaming through sport. Some have genuinely proven to be leaders and key role players, while others have proven to be key role players who are central to the issue of gender mainstreaming, equality and equity in and through sport. The two groups presented below have been and continue to be involved in international and regional efforts in the women and sport movement.

### **2.5.1 International Role Players**

#### **2.5.1.1 UK Sports Council**

The decade of the 1990s brought policy of the Sports Council, later named the United Kingdom (UK) Sports Council, more sharply into focus with the publication of a strategy document, referred to as *New Horizons* (Sports Council, 1991). Despite its apparent minimal impact on sport development (Houlihan & White, 2002), the strategy was the first to make reference to equal opportunities for all through sport despite race, gender, age, ability, social class or religious belief. Although not emphasized in the document, it became the first thread in the tapestry highlighting the principle of sports equity throughout the Council. The primary weaver coordinating the paradigm shift was Anita White, whose responsibility was policy development for the organization. Policy statements were released that defined the principle of sports equity:

“Sports equity is about fairness in sport, equality of access, recognizing inequalities and taking steps to redress them. It is about changing the structure and culture of sport to ensure that it becomes equally accessible to everyone in society, whatever their age, race, gender or level of ability.”

(Sports Council, 1993b, p. 4)

These policy statements represented a paradigm shift from targeting specific groups in sport development to humanitarian initiatives that had the potential to change the structure and culture of sport. The decision to thread the concept of sports equity through

the whole of sport development was an unprecedented concept globally (White, 1997). By mainstreaming the concept organizationally as well as programmatically, The Council created a framework through policies and action plans that wove two critical principles into the fabric of sport for all: sports development and sports equity. This meant the beginning of a movement for girls and women, racial and ethnic minorities, and for people with disabilities.

Specifically, the women and sport policy crafted by The Sport Council in 1993 linked the status quo with policy objectives and action steps required to achieve the objectives. Sport governing bodies, local government, sport facility managers, education, mass media, volunteers, and the Council itself were targeted. Despite the fact that the 1993 equity policies created by The Sports Council resembled the impact of the *New Horizons* strategy, the influence of those who had crafted the policies had substantial impact on international sport policy.

#### **2.5.1.2 International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women (IAPESGW)**

IAPESGW was established in 1949 by Dorothy Ainsworth, the Director of Physical Education at Smith College (Northampton, Massachusetts, USA). It was the first constitutionalized international organization with initially all-female membership that focused on the importance and values of physical education and sport in the lives of girls and women worldwide. Ainsworth's vision for the organization was to "...embrace the globe, all of its peoples, and the diversity of their cultures" (Sloan, 1994, p. 5). Ainsworth actually spent her own money to get women to meetings, and other women from various parts of the world. In those early days, women with personal resources and financial connections were involved in the administration of the organization in order to provide sustainability for the organization. Since that time, IAPESGW's Executive Board has grown to reflect the major regions of the world (North America, South America, Africa, Asia, Europe, Australia, and the Middle East). Although initially linked to the philosophy of Western culture, there has been an increasing attempt by organizational leadership to recognize, understand, preserve and introduce leadership and initiatives that differ from

exclusively western thinking (Kluka, 2007). Its present membership reflects over 40 countries, is in excess of 400, and primarily represents academics in higher education, teachers of physical education at school level, and governmental officials in physical education and sport. There has also recently been an Accept and Respect Declaration (2008) that specifically focuses upon Muslim women and sport. The organization has evolved into one that has begun to locate physical education and sport for girls and women in a broader social and political context under the leadership of one of its presidents, Margaret Talbot (Kluka, 2007), with an official position on the IWG, with its visibility through its executive board as keynote speakers at international conferences and with its world congresses, held quadrennially since the organization's inception.

### **2.5.1.3 International Council of Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport and Dance (ICHPERSD)**

The International Council for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport, and Dance (ICHPERSD) was an outgrowth of an idea first conceived in 1950 by the Board of Directors of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER). Under the leadership of Dorothy Ainsworth, Smith College, and Carl Troester, Jr., Executive Secretary of AAHPER, ICHPER was founded in Rome, Italy, in 1958, by teaching professionals and representatives from the fields of health, physical education, recreation, sport, and dance from 16 countries. The Council now has a membership representing over 145 countries (ICHPERSD, 2008).

The first Girls and Women in Sport Commission was established by President Doris Corbett in 1992, with Darlene Kluka appointed as its first director. Under her leadership, the Commission was comprised of regional directors in Europe, Asia, North America, South America, Africa, Australia and the Caribbean. Regional conferences were held twice, in South America and Asia. Individual membership went from 0 to 328 in a period of 8 years (Kluka, 2000). The Commission was the first to have a region of the world amend the Brighton Declaration with its own, the Manila Declaration. Under the leadership of Josefina Bauzon of the Philippines Sports Commission and president of the Philippine Women's Sports Foundation, the 1<sup>st</sup> Asian Women and Sport Conference was

held that produced the Manila Declaration in 1996 (IWG, 2000). The commission presently hosts workshops and seminars within ICHPERSD Conferences.

#### **2.5.1.4 International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education (ICSSPE)**

The International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education (ICSSPE) was founded in Paris, France in 1958. The Council was originally founded under the name "International Council of Sport and Physical Education" and the name was changed to include "Sport Science" in 1982. The founders recognized a widening gap between the fields of sport, sport science and physical education and sought to reinforce the link between these areas and develop a more inclusive perspective.

The main purpose of the Council is to serve as an international "umbrella" organization concerned with the promotion and dissemination of results and findings in the fields of sport science and physical education and their practical application in cultural and educational contexts.

Although the Council is not specifically focused on women, its aims are to contribute to the awareness of human values inherent in sport and physical activity, to improve health and physical well-being, and to develop physical activity, physical education and sport in all countries.

In these ways it helps to defend and develop the concept of fair play, the formation of the sporting ethic and to promote peace and understanding between people. As an international organization, it endeavors to bridge the gap between developed and developing countries, and to promote co-operation between scientists and organizations from countries around the world (ICSSPE, 2008).

Under the leadership of its first woman president Gudrun Doll-Tepper, the organization over the past decade has grown to over 400 member organizations, two of which are IAPESGW and WSI. ICSSPE endorsed the Brighton Declaration in 1995 and published it in full in its Bulletin. Since the adoption, ICSSPE has taken a number of measures to promote gender equality. There are more women in decision making positions, as is

evidenced by its first woman president, one vice president, and several board members. Themes on women and sport were included in the 1996 Pre-Olympic Congress and several of ICSSPE's key research projects dealt with cross-cultural analyses of the meaning women give to their sporting experience. ICSSPE's Executive Board endorsed the Windhoek call for action and asked for a gender equality plan to be drawn up. These proposals were based on the principle of mainstreaming gender equality within the existing working mechanisms of ICSSPE and its member organizations. The gender equality plan included benchmarks throughout the organization, including policies, initiatives, awards, decision making roles, and staff education (Kluka, 2008).

### **2.5.1.5 International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG)**

One of the key results of the Brighton conference in 1994 was the establishment of the IWG. It was originally composed of senior decision makers from sport throughout the world. From 1994 to 1998, the group was co-chaired by the Minister for Land Rehabilitation and Resettlement of the Republic of Namibia, the Honorable Pendukeni Iivula-Ithana MP, and the Director of Development for the English Sports Council, Dr. Anita White, with the Secretariat provided by the UK Sports Council. Rounding out the group were representatives of WomenSport International (WSI), Elizabeth Darlison; Colombian Olympic Academy, Clemencia Anaya Maya; Sport Canada, Dr. Sue Neill; Australian Sports Commission, Debbie Simms; Hillary Commission, Kereyn Smith; and Commonwealth Games Federation, Mien Gondowidjojo (Indonesia); and the IOC, Katia Mascagni. The IWG during the period of 1998 – 2002 was comprised of Dr. Sue Neill, Co-Chair; Honorable Pendukeni Iivula-Ithana, Co-Chair; Professor Nabilah Ahmed Abdulrahman, Egypt; Clemencia Anaya Maya; Anra Bobb, Trinidad/Tobago; Nawal El Moutawakel, CONFEJES; Carol Garoes, Namibia; Judy Kent, Canada; Madame Lu Shengrong, China; Dr. Etsuko Ogasawara, Japan; Dr. Carole Oglesby, WSI; Christine Shelton, USA; Alisi Tabete, Fiji Islands; Dr. Margaret Talbot, IAPESGW; Birgitta Kervinen, EWS Chair, 1998-2000; Dr. Christa Thiel, EWS Chair 2000 – 2002; Dr. Anita White; and Deena Scoretz, Canada Secretariat. IWG members from 2002 – 2006 included Dr. Etsuko Ogasawara, Co-Chair; Dr. Sue Neill, Co-Chair; regional representatives – Africa, Pendukeni Iivula-Ithana; Americas, Christine Shelton; Asia,



Annabel Pennefather; Europe, Chantal Amade-Escot; Oceania, Lois Fordham; international federations – IAPESGW, Dr. Margaret Talbot; WSI, Dr. Kari Fasting. Co-opted members included Dr. Anita White; Beatrice Hess; Lilamani de Soysa; and Martha Brady. The Secretariat was administered by Yacine Kabbage. IWG members from 2006 – 2010 are Johanna Adriaanse, Co-Chair; Birgitta Kervinen, Co-Chair; Dr. Carole Oglesby, Senior International Advisor; Dr. Carol Garoes, Africa; Christine Shelton, Americas; Dato Azalina Othman Said, Asia; Susie Yee, Oceania; Dr. Kari Fasting, WSI; Dr. Darlene Kluka, IAPESGW; Lilamani de Soysa, co-opted member; Lydia la Riviere, co-opted member. The Secretariat is administered by Sally Ryan (Ryan, 2008). It is significant to list these members in order to show succession and key role players throughout the time period from 1994 to present.

The aims of the IWG for the period from 1994 – 1998 were to:

- monitor the adoption of the Brighton Declaration by countries and national/international organizations worldwide;
- act as a contact and reference point, focusing on international developments on women and sport and facilitating the exchange of information;
- liaise with international federations and multi-sport organizations;
- assist in the development and coordination of regional groupings on women and sport;
- act as a forum for these regional groupings and international women and sport organizations to review status reports and strategies and disseminate information;
- seek the inclusion of issues relating to women and sport on the agendas of major international conferences and to provide advice on the content of international conferences that address issues of women and sport.

#### **2.5.1.6 WomenSport International (WSI)**

IAPESGW had limited financial resources and some member discontent with the organization's apparent lack of addressing important issues on women in sport. At the 1993 North American Society for the Sociology of Sport (NASSS) Conference, it was decided by several of those in attendance, who were also IAPESGW members, to form a

new organization, WomenSport International. The major role players included Libby Darlison from Australia, Carole Oglesby and Barbara Drinkwater from North America, and Kari Fasting and Celia Brackenridge from Europe. In less than a year, the group had produced a constitution and a temporary executive committee. WSI was officially inaugurated in 1994 at the Brighton Conference.

WSI is an evidence-based advocacy group committed to create and support actions that bring about increased opportunities and positive changes for women and girls in all levels of involvement in sport and physical activity/education. The organization has proven to be pivotal in several areas of the women and sport movement. The organization has grown to over 400 individual members in over 35 countries and has provided a series of position statements regarding issues of sexual harassment and the female athlete triad. Additionally, in February, 2007, the IOC adopted a consensus statement on sexual harassment and abuse in sport. Members of WSI were used as consultants in its development. WSI also played a key role in the 4<sup>th</sup> World Conference on Women and Sport in Kumamoto. Its president was part of the conference planning subgroup and led a workshop on sexual harassment. One of its executive board members, Johanna Adriaanse, became the new IWG co-chair for 2006 – 2010 (IWG, 2007).

Most recently, WSI member Dr. Carole Oglesby, along with selected members of IWG and WSI prepared a document entitled *Women 2000 and Beyond: Women, gender equality and sport* (December, 2007). It was published to promote the goals of the Beijing declaration and the platform for action. It is an ‘historical first’ for the UN through its United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (UNDAW). The women and sport movement has officially been recognized as one of the drivers for gender mainstreaming throughout societies in the world.

### **2.5.1.7 International Olympic Committee (IOC)**

The IOC is the nexus from which directionality of sport takes place globally. Its policies craft international, regional and national sport events, including measures for participation. Prior to the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta, the IOC (1994) requested that the Olympic charter be revised to overtly state that women and sport were important parts of the Olympic Charter. The adopted portion of the charter now affirms that the IOC will “encourage and support the promotion of women in sport at all levels and in all structures with a view to implementing the principle of equality of men and women” (IOC, 2004, p. 65).

By 1995 the IOC had initiated a Working Group on Women and Sport, and by 2004 the Working Group had been advanced to a commission. The Commission on Women and Sport meets annually and serves to monitor women’s participation in the Olympic Games and chart progress in the appointment/election of women to decision making positions in the Olympic Movement. To date, there have been 4 IOC world conferences on women and sport that have resulted in defining priorities and actions as well as increasing accountability and involvement of women in Olympic sport.

In February, 2007, the IOC adopted a consensus statement on sexual harassment and abuse in sport. This document defines challenges, identifies risk factors and provides guidelines for prevention and solution. The consensus statement has been designed to “...improve the health and protection of athletes through the promotion of effective preventive policy as well as to increase the awareness of these problems among the people in the entourage of the athletes” (WSI, 2008, p. 3). The consensus includes:

- (1) the adoption of harassment-free policies and procedures that are parallel with international ethical and human rights statutes;
- (2) the encouragement of open debate about sexual harassment, homophobia and the exploitation of women and men in sport;
- (3) the placement of an equitable balance of men and women in all roles of democratic leadership styles to prevent abuses of power;

- (4) the enactment as advocates through education for everyone involved in sport;
- (5) the monitoring of effectiveness of all initiatives;
- (6) the initiation of research into men's, women's and boys' and girls' experiences of abuse within sport; and
- (7) the provision of active participation in decision making for athletes at every level of sport (WSI, 2008).

Several facts still remain relative to IOC and Olympic equality and equity issues and Olympic Games participation. Women are still significantly underrepresented in the Summer Olympic Games, comprising 4306 or 41 % of the 10,568 participants in the Athens Games of 2004. Women's sports numbered 26 compared to 27 for men in Athens and, with the action to eliminate softball and baseball from the 2012 program, the numbers will become 25 and 26, respectively. Women's medal events in the Athens Summer Olympic Games numbered 125 compared to 166 for men and 10 coed events. IOC actions after the Athens Games have resulted in the elimination of 3 % or a net loss of 126 opportunities for women to participate, with a loss of 12 in double trap shooting, a loss of 118 in softball and a net gain of 4 from the elimination of the 500 m time trial and the addition of BMX in cycling. Women are still not permitted to compete in ski jumping and Nordic combined in the Winter Olympic Games. Fourteen countries have more than 500 women ski jumpers who have participated in the international ski federation Continental Cup competition and club ski jumping programs (Women's Sports Foundation, 2007).

#### **2.5.1.8 United Nations (UN)**

The UN has had a rich history as a central role player in the global movement of women and development, particularly the role of women and sport in the past two decades. With its universal declaration of human rights in 1948, UNESCO international charter of physical education and sport in 1978, convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW) in 1979, convention on the rights of the child in 1989, the Beijing platform for action in 1995, sport and development millennium goals in 2005, international year of sport and physical education in 2005, its action plan on sport

for development and peace in 2006 and the convention on the rights of persons with disabilities in 2006, the UN has also joined in partnerships with the IOC and the World Health Organization (WHO) as well as having formal and informal working relationships with ICSSPE, ICHPERSD, IWG, and WSI, particularly in the areas of women, sport and development.

The emphasis by United Nations leadership during the decade of the 1970s and its associated women's conferences helped to legitimately institutionalize women as part of development within the United Nations system. Policy goals were composed by development agencies. Those interested in the institutionalization of the phenomenon found it to be more effective if demands for social justice and equity for women were strategically linked to mainstream development issues. Equity propositions appeared to be more powerful and persuasive when combined with the pursuit of overarching goals from which a large majority of people may gain (Razavi & Miller, 1995).

The United Nations Decade for Women was successful in gaining attention to the role of women in national and regional development. International and national institutions were created within governments at the national level and within international structures as well that promoted women's interests. A number of women's development concerns were legislated during the Decade in order to promulgate women's rights.

The convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women was held in 1979 which focused upon women's rights to education, extension services, equal access to credit and marketing facilities, and equal treatment in agrarian reform (Jaquette, 1990). Although it would be ridiculous to equate legislation at the international level with practice, the recommendations provided an environment within which advocates could voice their demands.

The women's conferences held during the decade also underlined the importance of changing the sexual division of labor and the need to properly value women's unpaid work. Such equity issues often received only cursory treatment because of the hostility

they aroused among development experts at the international and national levels. Demands for gender equity implicitly involved the redistribution of power – a zero sum scenario likely to meet resistance.

The United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women: *Action for equality, development and peace*, held in Beijing in 1995, resulted in a platform for action which focused worldwide attention on policies involving gender equity and governmental responsibility. Of significance was the inclusion of three references to sport and physical activity. These references represented the first time that governments, when adopting or endorsing the platform for action, committed to improving the position of women in sport (personal interview, Dr. Carole A. Oglesby, Past President, WomenSport International, 2007).

- **Reference 1 – page 31**

Unequal access to and inadequate educational opportunities

Strategic Objective B.4 – Develop non-discriminatory education and training.

Actions to be taken:

Paragraph 85 – By governments, educational authorities and other educational and academic institutions. (m) Provide accessible recreational and sports facilities and establish and strengthen gender-sensitive programmes for girls and women of all ages in education and community institutions and support the advancement of women in all areas of physical education including coaching, training and administration, and as participants at national, regional and international levels.

- **Reference 2 – page 42**

Inequalities in access to health-related services

Strategic Objective C.2 – Strengthen preventative programmes that address threats to women's health.

Actions to be taken:

Paragraph 108 – By governments in cooperation with non-governmental organisations including the media, the private sector and relevant international organisations, including United Nations bodies, as appropriate;

(f) create and support programs in the educational system, in the work place and in the community to make opportunities to participate in sport, physical activity and recreation available to girls and women of all ages on the same basis as they are made available to men and boys.

- **Reference 3 – page 106**

Persistent discrimination against and violation of the rights of survival, protection and development of the girl child

Strategic Objective L.4

Eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development and training.

Actions to be taken:

Paragraph 280 – By governments, international and non-governmental organisations;

(d) promote the full and equal participation of girls in extracurricular activities such as sports, drama and cultural activities (United Nations, 2000).

The next section will discuss selected role players at regional levels that have been established with the aim to improve conditions for gender mainstreaming to become a reality in sport.

## **2.5.2 Regional Role Players**

Having global declarations, frameworks, and policies relating to gender mainstreaming through sport is insufficient to reach the grassroots level for transformation to occur. Regional organizations also play vital roles in the institutionalization of transformation on women and sport issues. The following organizations represent several regions of the world. Their contributions are at various levels of success, but structures have been established to serve as conduits in the women and sport movement.

### **2.5.2.1 Sports Association of Arab Women (SAAW)**

The SAAW continues to discuss appropriate ways for promoting its activities and participation in Arab and international relevant events. Several leaders have called for enhancing the role of sport women, spreading the culture of sports and boosting it in everyday life. The organization continues to give priority for Arab women conferences to serve as a basis for world presence and activities to portray the real image of Arab sports

women and their contribution in everyday life. The Association was established in 1998, and groups of sports women from Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Qatar, Algeria, Iraq, Bahrain and Syria were represented (SAAW, 2005).

### **2.5.2.2 African Women in Sport Association (AWSA)**

At the end of the First World Brighton Conference, African representatives met under the leadership of Honorable Pendukeni Iivula-Ithana, the then Minister of Youth and Sport of the Republic of Namibia, and created a taskforce. This taskforce was given the mandate to produce an organization, which would provide a forum for the development of women in sport throughout Africa. It was agreed that the focus of this organization would be primarily to establish an international network in Africa for women to bring about the necessary changes with regard to:

- the participation of women in sports activities;
- the development of women as sport coaches;
- the development of women as sports leaders and decision makers at national and international levels

The taskforce came-up with the following Resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

- There is a need for the creation of a body, which is a version of other women in sport associations in the world but unique to Africa;
- Those in attendance delegated full powers to Hon. Iivula-Ithana to see to the establishment of Zonal and National Committees for Women in Sport in Africa;
- The delegates felt the need to have the Hon. Minister to be the Convener of AWISA, for one year and be assisted by Dr. Deborah Cubagee of Ghana and Myrna Lapierre of Mauritius;
- To organize a congress before or after the All Africa Games which were to be hosted by Zimbabwe, in Harare, in 1995;
- To be under the umbrella of the Supreme Council of Sport in Africa (SCSA); and
- To seek organizational assistance and support of the SCSA for set up of the Association (AWISA, 2005).



In May 1998, prior to the Second World Conference on Women and Sport held in Namibia, the constitution of the new organization was adopted and elections held. Hon. Iivula-Ithana, now the former Minister of Youth and Sport, now the Minister of Lands, Resettlement and Rehabilitation was elected the first president of AWISA; and Dr. Deborah Cubagee of Ghana, the Vice President; Ms. Theresa Borge of Angola as the Treasurer; and the Secretary General, Carol Garoes of Namibia.

Africa is divided into seven sporting zones under SCSA. As a result of the efforts of the women listed above, AWISA established the same structure represented by zonal directors. There is an established secretariat in Windhoek, Namibia. In 1998 the Association was admitted to the SCSA as a full member. The organization is also represented on the Council of Ministers of Sport in Africa. In 1999, during the All Africa Games in Johannesburg, pressure from the AWISA proved successful in the stoppage of gender verification of women athletes only. In the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, Africa was, for the first time, represented by 3 women Chef de Missions, two from Zone 6 and one from Zone 5. Most of the governments in Africa have policies on paper to improve the status of women in sport, but actual steps must be taken to change policies into action (Cubagee, personal interview, April 25, 2007).

### **2.5.2.3 Asian Women and Sport Group (AWS)**

The AWS is an informal, flexible and volunteer-based network of representatives from governmental and nongovernmental organizations. They are committed to increasing the involvement of girls and women in sport and physical activity at all levels and in all functions and roles throughout Asia. The aims of AWS include:

- (1) furthering the development of equal opportunities for girls and boys, women and men in Asia to participate fully in the sport in its broadest sense;
- (2) increasing the awareness and recognition by women and girls of the positive values of sport to personal development;
- (3) facilitating the exchange of information on women and sport issues throughout Asia;

(4) developing action plans based on the Brighton Declaration, the Windhoek Call for action, and the Montreal Communiqué, and resolutions from the IOC conferences;

(5) establishing an Asian Women and Sport Conference biannually (AWS, 2008).

#### **2.5.2.4 European Women and Sport Group (EWS)**

The EWS is an autonomous network that is composed of representatives with interest in gender equality efforts in governmental and nongovernmental organizations involved in sport in the countries of Europe. This working group was created in 1994 as a result of special working group activities which the European Sports Conference (ESC) had devised during 1989 – 1993. The EWS, since its inception, has had associate member status in the ESC Executive Committee. Additionally, the group has membership in the European Women's Lobby (EWL), a group that has sport as one of its drivers in the gender mainstreaming effort as well as having an associate partnership with the European Nongovernmental Sports Organization (ENGSO).

The aim of EWS is to facilitate directionality toward a sports culture of customarily practicing gender equality through equal opportunities for girls and boys, women and men, relative to education, participation and promotion as well as decision making in sport. The network also aims to increase the involvement of women in sport at all levels and in all functions and roles (EWS, 2008).

The EWS operates using the following objectives:

- to represent, defend, and promote the interests of women in sport in Europe;
- to support and further develop sport participation by girls and women;
- to facilitate the increase in number of women in decision making in sport at all levels;
- to educate women for decision making (through mentoring);
- to promote the involvement of women in local, regional and national delegations at sport-political, scientific and sport-practical events at national and international levels;
- to strengthen cooperation and encourage the exchange of experience on women

- and sport issues throughout Europe at multilateral levels;
- to establish and cultivate relationships with international groups and organizations in the sport arena;
  - to encourage international organizations and sport bodies to support and finance projects on women and sport;
  - to encourage and increase scientific research projects in various sport sciences to include women's perspectives and to provide information on women and sport to the larger community (EWS, 2008).

## **2.6 GLOBAL SPORT POLICIES, DECLARATIONS AND SOCIAL CHANGE**

Social change has been defined in several ways by sociologists, social psychologists, social workers, and other professionals dealing with change. The most appropriate definition of the construct for use in this study is the result of analysis of existing definitions and constructing one that is appropriate relative to the women and sport movement: "Positive social change is a dynamic process by and through which people's behavior, practices or conditions become altered as the result of a paradigm shift involving ideas and perceptions in a society over time" (Kluka & University of Pretoria RKD 352 class, 2007).

Throughout this chapter, it has been disclosed that UN programs as a result of policies and declarations have collaborated with governments, the private sector and other key stakeholders to improve health, education, and living standards across the globe. Particularly over the past decade, the UN has increasingly recognized the importance of sport as a vehicle for positive social change. Sport has begun to be used to reduce tensions between cultural groups, to demystify the stigma of HIV/AIDS and to introduce education interventions with the assistance of numerous sport icons. To further focus worldwide attention on the role of sport in positive social change, the UN declared the international year of sport and physical education in 2005. Throughout all of these programs, the thread of access and opportunities for girls and women in sport has been woven as policy-driven action. It is beyond the scope of this study to describe community

engagement in and through sport at local levels, but it has been stated that sport is being used increasingly to serve as a 'springboard' to dismantle stereotypes and remove barriers at local levels (Ogi, 2006).

According to the Women's Sports Foundation USA (2008), there are several indicators of progress that have been made within the past 6 decades relative to gender mainstreaming and positive social change for women in sport. Ten have been selected that are most germane to this study:

**(1) A movement toward capitalism and the global marketplace demand of the female sports market.**

- (a) As the global society is directed toward capitalism and global markets, gender equity in sport will be greatly affected in the global marketplace;
- (b) Capitalism will position global corporations to enter communist countries such as China, Cuba and North Korea and will apply increasing pressure on the sports market, including women and sport;
- (c) Several global corporations have already institutionalized women's sport in their corporate vision, particularly in the United States of America.

**(2) The advantage of socio-economic class that permitted some women in some sports in all countries to pursue elite level participation.** Generally, women at the forefront of the women's movement were women of higher socio-economic status and well educated, thereby questioning existing rules and social mores. Men and women from higher socio-economic status had more leisure time, and initially formed the core of participants in the Olympic Games in the early twentieth century. This can also be seen with the initiation of IAPESGW, ICSSPE, and ICHPERSD. Those who came from aristocracy also became part of the privileged to participate in elite sport (e.g., Princess Anne of Great Britain and Princess Haya of Jordan). The ability of affluent women to participate in sport and become Olympic champions offers the possibility of the disappearance of gender discrimination in sport in nations that disapprove of female participation. National pride, in these situations, can surpass gender conflict.

**(3) The use of female athletes and sport in communist societies to advance the political ideology of those countries.** Communism brought forth a new period in the

women and sport movement of female athletes who participated in the political design to express the superiority of an ideology. Communist governments underwrote and controlled all that was related to women athletes' performances. The results have been and continue to literally be world record shattering. This has again been evidenced in world records being beaten in qualifying events for the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games by Chinese women athletes (IOC, 2008).

**(4) The recognition by most nations that success on the playing fields of international sport translates into national pride which has no gender boundary.**

Sport has become a global phenomenon. In all sports, competition between national teams, promoted by the print and electronic media, drives the construct of nationalistic pride from the most remote villages to the most urban city areas. With the disintegration of societies through tempo, the explosion of knowledge, the amalgamation of races and ethnicities, the broadening of business, art and other human pursuits into global markets, sport becomes one of the few pursuits that can focus groups of people and transcend bias, stereotypes and other barriers that divide human beings. As women's achievements in sports and contributions to national pride increase, pressure is placed on archaic beliefs that the female athlete is less worthy, less productive or less important than the male athlete, and the myths promulgating gender inequality in sport begin to disappear.

**(5) Advances in promotion of female sports participation worldwide through the power of television, the Internet and other global communications.**

As developing countries gain more access to television and the Internet and as global literacy and access to print media expand the availability of images and achievements of female athletes on a global scale, increasing pressure to change will be placed on societies that are currently repressing females' interest and participation in sports. Televised sports events and print and Internet news coverage of sports competitions are the most easily translatable programming that can cross barriers of custom and language. Women's sporting events that are televised and covered by the print media are, at their core, advertisements promoting the women's sports product. While these forms of communication are at the core of change agent thinking (Hargreaves, 1999), such distribution of images of competent, successful and highly skilled women generates its own impetus.

**(6) The evolution of female roles from sex and decorative object and caretaker to a**

**more independent, broadly involved and powerful roles with cooperative gender relations.** As regions of the world continue to move from agrarian to industrial and information technology/service economies, male dominance derived from physiologic advantage declines and the need to maximize the intellectual capacity and productivity of the workforce increases. Economies and nations choosing to ignore half the talent of their population will drop in their viability for improved quality of life for all citizens. The importance of education cannot be underestimated. As women become more educated and their value and status in the work force become more equal, stereotypical views and myths of female deficiencies, physical and intellectual, decline. This millennium is poised to see the female athlete 'come of age'.

**(7) The realization that sports participation produces beneficial social, psychological, and physiological benefits to individual participants.** Until the 20th century, the accepted justification of sports participation of men was training for war and business competition. Only during the last three decades have the positive physiological, psychological and sociological benefits of exercise and sports participation for all people have become part of public discussion.

**(8) A more organized global women and sport movement as a driver in the overall women's movement.** Feminist movements throughout history have been both cyclical and national in scope. However, it appears that the global economy, global communications, and the realization by those in the women and sport movement play substantial roles in gender mainstreaming and social change to produce a global gender equality and equity movement.

**(9) The coming of age of social justice as a global value.** As war and violence as means of resolution of conflict become more repugnant globally, social justice ascends the value hierarchy, particularly involving girls and women. At its heart, social justice demands the cessation of inequality and discrimination on the basis of race, gender, ethnicity, ability, religion, culture, and economic class, among human beings. A gender mainstreamed environment is one in which equal and equitable participation by women in all aspects of society, specifically relating to this study, women in sport in its broadest sense, and where women are valued equally to men.

**(10) The role of power and hierarchy in sport organizations in setting of gender**

**policy and/or removing barriers for full participation of women at all levels in organizations.** Ultimately, minorities deprived of equal treatment are liberated or held hostage by action or inaction of the majority in power. This majority does not act without key role players - individuals who hold the power because of their legitimate position, expertise or respect. The ultimate role players in any initiative involving social change are people. Without their will to act collectively, behavior, practices or conditions will not be altered as a result of a paradigm shift involving ideas, and perceptions in sport.

The continual paradigm shift that has begun globally will provide new roles for women and men in sport, particularly in leadership and management. From a sport participation perspective, both men and women will have access and opportunities to participate in all sports. Gender values will change, bringing both sexes to more neutral and higher ground in their understanding and valuing of each other in equal and equitable manners. Sport will be seen as something for everyone to participate in fully. From a leadership and management perspective, the sharing of power and assembly of institutional and institutionalized commitment to gender equality with full participation of women in decision making roles could be the largest challenge in the social change paradigm. Different does not mean less than. Different means not identical. The acceptance, valuing and celebration of women's full participation in all sport and at all levels will complete the circle of positive social change.

## **2.7 CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

This chapter placed focus on building a global case for women and sport. It also provided an explanation and analysis of various global policies and declarations and key role players in the women and sport movement. It concluded with the introduction of social change and its relationship to women and sport policies and declarations. The next chapter provides insight into the meaning and managing of change through and in sport.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **MANAGING SOCIAL CHANGE THROUGH AND IN SPORT**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In chapter two the landscape of women and sport was presented in detail. It clearly emerged that the position of women and sport has been debated and emphasized in numerous declarations, policy documents, conferences and statements at global, regional and national levels over time. In essence, all these documents strive to bring about positive change in the position of women and sport. The encompassing aim is that of transition and change: transition from inequality to equality, from exclusion to inclusion, from invisibility to visibility, from ignorance and disrespect to acceptance and respect; from homogeneity to heterogeneity. Benchmarks of desired change are stated in terms of increased leadership positions for women in sport, increased media coverage of women in sport and access to and participation in sport. Despite the plethora of declarations, Rintala and Bischoff (1997) postulated that persistent resistance to women and sport is still evident. The 1996 Centennial Olympic Games in Atlanta were hailed as the Olympics of women. A record number of 3700 competed in the Games, new sports and events were added in which women competed, several women won their countries' first Olympic medals, an Iranian woman carried her country's flag during the Opening Ceremony and a female athlete recited the Olympic oath on behalf of all athletes. Despite their heightened visibility at the Atlanta Games, women, however, participated in only one third of the total competing Olympians and, because of Islamic dress codes, twenty-seven countries sent no women to the Olympics (Rintala & Bischoff, 1997). They continued their case for persistent resistance to equality in sport by stating that women's participation in Olympic Games conveyed ambivalent messages regarding women's involvement in sport in general. Limited change also occurred in terms of media coverage of women's sport as well as leadership positions of women in sport (Pfister & Radtke, 2005; Lynn, 2002; Phillips, 1996). At the elite sport level initiatives and milestones seemingly are visibly communicated and emphasized, but at lower levels of sport participation, sustained evidence is lacking. In 1998, Messner described sport as a



contested terrain of male domination and superiority. He posited that the women's movement into sport represented a genuine quest by women for equality. Sport became a dynamic social space where dominant male ideologies are perpetuated as well as challenged and contested (Messner, 1988).

The impetus for contesting, challenging, and changing this dynamic social space (sport) needs to originate from sources both internal and external to sport as well as embrace multiple strategies (e.g. social, political, legislative and managerial). Encouragement for change from outside sport is reflected and driven by initiatives and platforms for gender equality such as the Beijing platform and other reform programs (refer to chapters one and two). Internal drives in sport initiated with the advocacy of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport and were reinforced by subsequent calls for action as discussed extensively in chapter two. The overriding aim of the ground-breaking declaration was to develop a sporting culture that enables and values the full involvement of women in every aspect of sport (Brighton Declaration, 1994). The complexity and interrelatedness of the issue developing this sporting culture requires two main theoretical frameworks. The starting point in this chapter is the theoretical concept of social change (macrosocial change), moving on to social change through sport (mesosocial change). Sport is considered a social construction to managing or facilitating social change within organizations (microsocial change). In order to contest the so-called male domination in the current global landscape of women and sport, organizational change needs to be managed along a continuum of inequality to equality. In addition, sport organizations and, specifically, the signatories of the Brighton Declaration have to institutionalize quality management processes within their organizations to achieve the desired external change and overriding aim of the Brighton Declaration. As a result, a parallel theoretical framework of the study (to be discussed in chapter four) focuses on approaches to engineer, improve and audit effectiveness of organizational processes to institutionalize these goals impacting on preferred external environmental changes.

In this chapter the critical theoretical elements of social change, sport as an influential factor in social change as well as managing organizational change will be examined.

Against this background issues (such as the Brighton Declaration) associated with managing persistent resistance to social change in sport will also be argued.

## **3.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF SOCIAL CHANGE**

### **3.2.1 Social change defined**

Change is an evident feature of social reality. In his early work on social change, Smith (1975, p. 1) rightly stated that “*change comes in so many forms and rates; (it) is so pervasive a phenomenon in social life.*” Because change is so embedded in societal fabric, definitions on it also are abundant in sociological texts. An early definition on social change explains it as “*..a succession of events which produce over time a modification or replacement of particular patterns or units by other novel ones*”. (Smith, 1975, p.12). Haferkamp and Smelser (1992) described social change as continuously dynamic in and between social units in terms of three elements: (1) structural determinants (sources/origins of change), (2) processes and mechanisms the unit used to produce and sustain change and (3) the direction and consequences of the change on the unit as well as on greater society (impact of the change). The notion of continual dynamic between social units is echoed in Orum, Johnstone and Riger’s (1999, p. 10) explanation of social change as a “*nested hierarchy of social processes*”. Changes in the macro-social environment influence processes and mechanisms in both the meso-social and micro-social environment and *vice versa*. According to Neubeck and Glasberg (2005), social change refers to significant variations or alterations in social structures and cultures over time. These significant variations do not just happen by themselves but are affected by people through either a top-down process or bottom-up process. In the top-down process of social change elites and institutions define social issues and needs, direct resources to address these needs and produce social changes consistent with their interests while in the bottom-up process the inequality of subordinates apply pressure to elites and institutions to produce changes that address the needs and interests of the oppressed. Bill (personal interview, August 5, 2007) also emphasized the elements of dynamism and process in a developed through her facilitation of a definition of social change: “*.. a dynamic process by and through which people’s behavior, practices or conditions become altered due to a paradigm shift involving ideas and perceptions in society over time*” (Kluka & University

of Pretoria RKD 352 class, 2007). In *Wikipedia* (2008), social change is described as a general term which refers to change in the nature, the social institutions, the social behavior or the social relations of a society, community of people or other social structures; any event or action that affects a group of individuals that have shared values or characteristics and acts of advocacy for the cause of changing society in a normative way. Covey (2004, p. 23) has stated that "...if you want small changes, work on behavior; if you want quantum leap changes, work on your paradigms". The investigator will not attempt to formulate yet another definition of social change but rather extrapolate the key elements of social change as proposed by the above definitions.

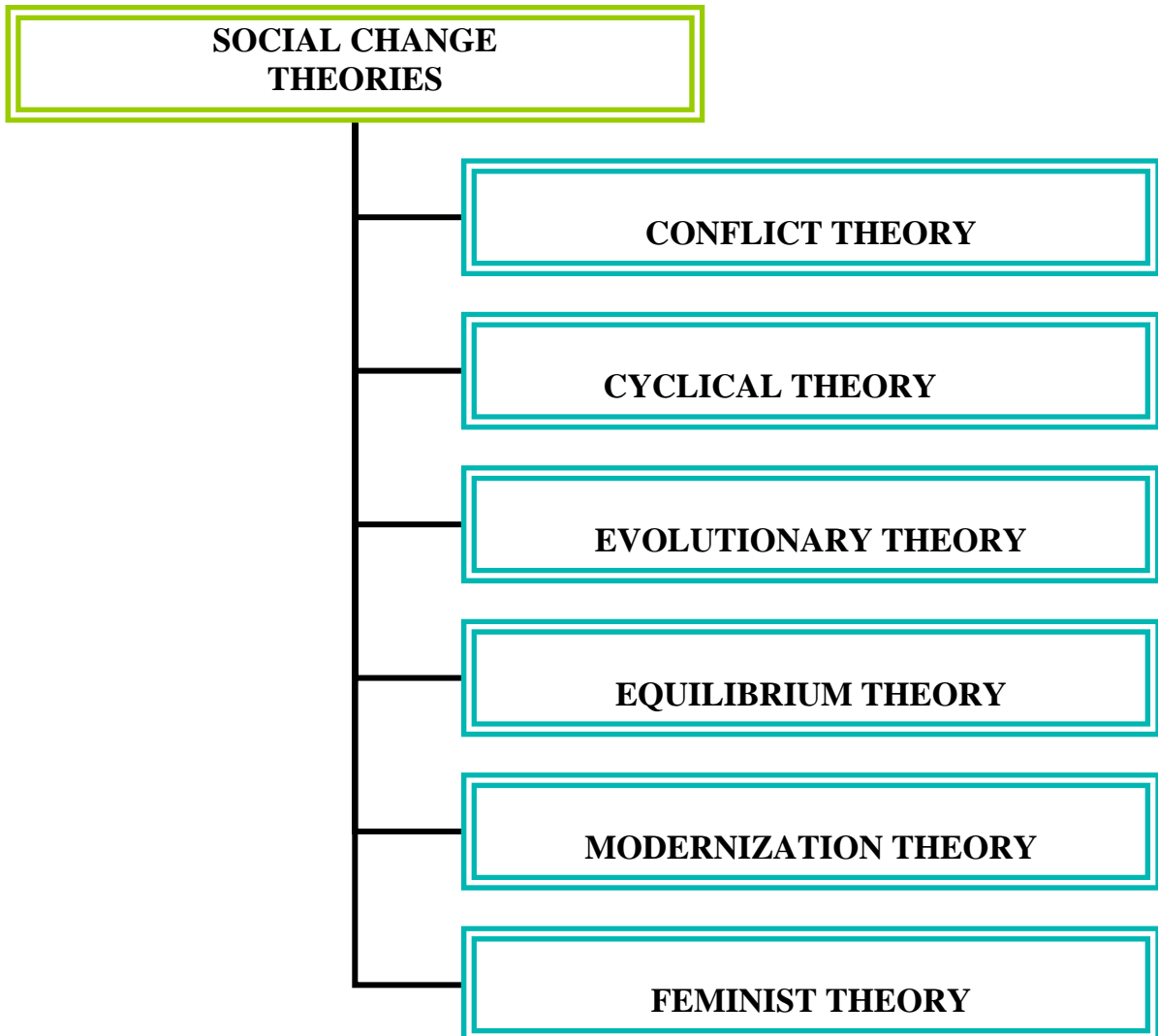
*Social change* implies:

- Triggering mechanisms, forces or catalysts initiating and advocating change;
- Planned implementation of mechanisms to sustain change;
- Ongoing process over time;
- Measuring the directionality and impact of change;
- Modification and transformation in social structures, behaviors, attitudes, policies
- Reciprocal influence of social units; and
- Paradigm shift in personal values, beliefs, attitudes, opinions that affects groups of people over time

### **3.2.2 Social change theories**

Several theoretical views have been developed by sociologists to explain the dynamic relationships between social constructs and issues in society. It includes social issues related to gender, ideologies, social control, economics, politics, culture, and religion. These views are presented as social change theories. Although change is such an evident feature of social reality, Haferkamp and Smelser (1992) warned it is at the same time essential to note that the dominant conceptions of and categorization have varied greatly in the history of change thought. After the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution in England, comprehensive change in societies became normal and social philosophers gradually replaced older ideas of change with conceptions of social change. Contemporary theories of social change have become more generalized in terms of

attributes like magnitude of change, time span, direction, rate of change and amount of violence involved. It is acknowledged that social change is not the result of mono-causal events but rather a product of multi-causal events (Haferkamp & Smelser, 1992). Social change theories are clustered differently by different scholars. For the purpose of this study the classification of Neubeck and Glasberg (2005) as indicated in Figure 2 is presented as a synopsis of selected major social change theories and scholars as a backdrop for the discourse on sport and social change. The concern of the researcher is not to provide a comprehensive account of social change but to produce a discussion on general themes in the study of social change theory.



**Figure 2. Classification of social change theory.**

### 3.2.2.1 Conflict theory

Conflict theory of social change is the major alternative to functionalism. Functionalists focus on interdependence and consensus in societies while conflict theorists focus on the shifting balance of power among competing groups; functionalists believe societies evolve as social mechanisms to deal with conflict, conflict theorists see control of conflict as a means to suppress rivals; functionalists see civil law as a way to increase social order, conflict theorists see it as a way of defining and upholding a particular social order. Conflict theory argues that strains are inherent in social structures and the source of strains settles in the inherent scarcity of certain goods and values. This inequality becomes the source of conflict. Conflict theorists base their views on three central assumptions:

- People have a number of basic interests that are not defined by societies but rather are common to all;
- The emphasis on power is at the core of social relationships and is therefore a source of conflict as people are concerned with the distribution of resources that give people more or less power; and
- Values and ideas are seen as weapons used by different groups to advance their own ends rather than as a means of defining the whole society's identity and goals.

Appelbaum (1970) postulated that the basic elements of conflict theory were set out by Karl Marx and Max Weber and can hence be divided into two distinct traditions of Marxism and Neo-Marxism and Weberian conflict theory. Marx and Weber shared two basic concerns: the way social positions bestow more or less social power on their incumbents and the role of ideas in creating or undermining the legitimacy of a social position. Marx and Engels (Neubeck & Glasberg, 2005) referred to the ongoing process of social change as the *dialectic*. Every social structure begins as a *thesis* (its current momentary state of existence) containing inherent serious fundamental contradictions and crises which commonly intensify until challenges (*antithesis*) to the status quo erupt. The conflict between the thesis and the antithesis must eventually resolve itself into the *synthesis*. The synthesis is a wholly new social structure with some of the elements from

the thesis and some from the antithesis and eventually becomes a new thesis that carries its own new contradictions and crises, triggering the dialectic process to continue. A classical application of this theory is the conflict between capitalism and communism where the owners and the workers (proletariat) are in a continuous struggle over resources and produces socialism as its synthesis. In essence Marx reduced social change to the struggle between socio-economic classes and order in society comes only with conflict and change which is not necessarily negative and destructive but could be positive and restructuring.

Although Weber agreed with Marx on the importance of economy (wealth) and society as cause of conflict, he proposed other ways to explain social equalities. He maintained that much of the energy of many societies result from the conflict between societal groups in terms of social status, class, culture and occupation. Much of Weber's work centered upon modern capitalism, religion and charisma (Schneider, 1976). He stressed the importance of values and goals specific to a society. In the context of Protestant ethics he suggested that the Calvinists' desire to save their souls found expression in the goal of accumulating wealth, seen as evidence of God's favor but actually enjoying wealth would be a sinful indulgence. Weber's notion on charisma postulated a second main line of thought on social change. His concern with power and the way people obtain domination over others resulted in distinguishing three types of authority: legal authority, traditional authority and charismatic authority. Both Marx and Weber emphasized the divisive aspects of social life – Marx presented sources of change in hard economic realities while Weber sought sources in a more social world where bureaucracies and unequal social structures could be changed through man's personal qualities (Schneider, 1976).

A number of other towering theorists contributed to the body of knowledge on conflict theory flowing from the seminal work of Marx (radical change) and Weber (social stratification and bureaucracy). A discussion of their contributions in detail falls outside the ambit of this study. The main advocates and their main realms of contribution are, however, referred to briefly: Vilfredo Pareto, Gaetano Mosca, Robert Michels (elite theory); Thorstein Veblen (leisure of classes); Georg Simmel, Robert Park and the

Chicago School, C Wright Mills and the Frankfurt School (the web of conflict); Neo-Marxists and Feminists (the economic basis of class conflict); Erik Olin Wright (class structure and income determination); Frankfurt School (Habermas, Horkheimer, Adorno, Marcuse, Fromm, Bordieu (critical theory). Important to note that the position of women in society received attention and has been debated from a conflict theory perspective mainly in terms of their contribution to producing economic resources.

### **3.2.2.2 Cyclical theory**

Social change is regarded as an internal, natural cycle in the rise and fall of social systems. According to this theory societies are likened to an organism (Neubeck & Glasberg, 2005). Each society is presumed to pass naturally and inevitably through the same age phases that individual biological organisms (particularly humans) pass through: infancy, childhood, adolescence, adulthood, old age ending in decay and death. Oswald Spengler, as proponent of this cyclical change, argued that each phase lasted a definite and predictable length of time for all societies. Societies possess an internal biological clock determining their natural life span believed to be a millennium. Critics of the cyclical theory points out that it leaves no room for external change influencers such as war, exploitation or genocide afflicted by outside agents on a society.

### **3.2.2.3 Evolutionary theory**

Supporters of the evolutionary theory of social change share the cyclical theory's assumption that societies are like organisms but liken the social change to Darwin's Biological notion of biological evolution (Neubeck & Glasberg, 2005). Societies evolve through natural series of stages based on increased stages of complexity where each new stage of change is more advanced than the one before. Comte and Durkheim as prominent advocates of the evolutionary theory postulated social change is unidirectional, from a primitive to an advanced state, thus the fate of human evolution is predetermined. It is assumed that the rate of social change is slow, gradual and piecemeal, evolutionary (Darwinian) rather than revolutionary. The process of social change within societies will therefore take centuries to complete. The evolutionary theory also imposed a value judgment on the evolutionary process: movement towards the final stage is good as it

represents progress, humanity and civilization according to Western European parameters (Rojas, 1996). Death of societies is regarded as natural selection of the fittest (as opposed to a natural end as maintained by cyclical theorists). Social Darwinists like Lenski (Schneider, 1976) alleged this natural selection process to be governed by a society's cultural inheritance of technological innovations which permits a society to influence greater control over its environment. Critique on the evolutionary theory centered mainly around its base in western nations as models and does not take into account that societies may differ in their access to information and use of technology. The assumption that all societies evolve through the same stages in the same order clearly ignored the uniqueness of societies as well as the fact that advances and gains of one society might be the result of taking resources from societies lower on the evolutionary scale.

#### **3.2.2.4 Equilibrium theory**

The equilibrium theory is founded on the belief that social change occurs naturally as societies become more complex and demand greater specialization of social structures and roles. Again this theory shared the analogy of society as a biological organism (Cyclical and Evolutionary Theories). Parsons, as a primary advocate of the equilibrium theory (Rojas, 1996) hypothesized that human society is like a biological organism with different parts corresponding to different institutions in society. Each institution performs a specific function for the good of the whole organism. Four specific functions are crucial to keep equilibrium in societies:

- Adaptation to the environment (this function is performed by the economy but not by the economic system).
- Goal attainment (this function is performed by the government).
- Integration (this function links institutions together and is performed by legal and religious institutions).
- Latency (this function pattern maintenance of values from generation to generation and is performed by the family as an a-historical basic human organization and education).

Functions are interdependent, and disturbances of specific functions cause adjustments by other functions to stay in equilibrium. Societies, like organisms, tend to harmonize,



stabilize, balance and retain the status quo. Social change entails a series of minor adjustments from within societies rather than fundamental alterations from outside society (e.g. revolutions). This theory focuses on how order and stability are maintained, but ignores conflict as a cause of social change.

### **3.2.2.5 Modernization theory**

The concept of modernity is rooted in the meaning and significance of social changes that occurred in Europe during the latter half of the nineteenth century specifically related to the effects of industrialization, urbanization and political democracy on essential rural and autocratic societies (Haferkamp & Smelser, 1992). The term “modernity” was coined to capture these changes by contrasting the “modern” with the “traditional”. The theme of modernity was already present in the works of Marx, Weber and Durkheim where it referred to a new experience of the world. The concept of modernity is described as a complex set of changes that occur in almost every part of society as society attempts to industrialize. Schelke, Krauth, Kohli and Elwert (2005) identified four general characteristics of modernization:

- There is a shift from the simple to the complex;
- Agriculture progresses from subsistence oriented to commercial farming;
- There is a trend towards industrialization with a de-emphasis and human and animal power and emphasis on machinery driven production; and
- Society changes from rural to urban.

The dynamics of these four characteristics bring about new values, new institutional structures, increased globalization and internationalization as well as new patterns of inequality in modern society. Haferkamp and Smelser (1992) elaborated further on the issue of social inequality in modern industrialized society by declaring that three general patterns of social inequality is visible in contemporary western societies:

- Increasing inequality caused mainly by labor processes;
- Enduring or unchanging social inequality based on the argument that the distribution of property and income have not changed significantly in the past century; and

- Reduction in inequality in the dimensions of political inequality, educational inequality and the leveling of life-styles.

In their work, Clarke, Macionis and Gerber (2000) labeled the process of social change begun by industrialization as modernization, and acknowledged four characteristics of this type of society:

- Decline of small traditional towns as high-tech communications put small towns in touch with the world;
- Increased individualization due to expansion of personal choices through an unending series of options;
- Increasing diversity in beliefs as modernization promotes a more rational, scientific world-view; and
- People living in industrialized societies tend to focus more on the future than on the past.

Five esteemed scholars offered explanations of modernization and elaborated on specific characteristics resulting from this social change process. In his work on *Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft*, Ferdinand Tönnies (1957) focused on the process of modernization and argued that in essence the Industrial revolution weakened the fabric of community tradition and resulted in the loss of *Gemeinschaft* or community caring and brought about the beginning of individualization and impersonal relationships (*Gesellschaft*). Durkheim presented his central argument on modernity in his work on *The Division of Labor in Society* (Durkheim & Simpson, 1947). Durkheim did not see modernization as the loss of community but rather as a change in the basis of community from *mechanical solidarity* (society held together by shared sentiments and likeness) to *organic solidarity* (social bonding is accomplished through specialization, division of labor and interdependence). These types of solidarity coincide with Tönnies' concepts of *Gemeinschaft* and *Gesellschaft*. Weber (in Clarke, *et al.*, 2000) described modernity as replacing a traditional worldview with a rational view of thinking where people value efficiency, have little reverence for the past and adopt whatever social patterns allow them to achieve their goals. Weber expressed concern about the erosion of the human spirit through characteristics of modernization. Marx (in Clarke, *et al.*, 2000) emphasized the social

conflict potential of modernization. He agreed with Tönnies' analysis of the changing nature of communities as well as Durkheim's views on declining tradition and increasing rationality and ascribed these changes to the growth of capitalism. Capitalism would eventually cause inequalities in societies resulting in social revolution. The process of modernization also affected the individual. Riesman (in Clarke, *et al.*, 2000) developed the term *social character* to describe personality patterns common to members of a society. He argued that pre-industrial societies were organisms promoting *tradition-directedness* or rigid personalities based on conformity (Tönnies's *Gemeinschaft* and Durkheim's *mechanical solidarity*). In modern societies an *other-directedness* personality emerged that referred to highly changeable personality patterns open to change and imitation of others' behavior. Post-modernity describes social patterns characteristic of post-industrial societies. Post-modern scholars suggest that modernity failed and brought about poverty and distress. Progress associated with industrialization and technological advances faded and the future was not perceived as that bright because science does not hold all the answers and has created its share of (ethical) problems. Cultural debates are intensifying as the promises of social movements to initiate and sustain social change have not been fulfilled. Change affects all social institutions in the post-modern era, including the family as a basic social unit (Clarke, *et al.*, 2000).

The status of women within modern societies is referred to by scholars of the modernization process. According to Jacquette (1982), the meager referencing in modernization theory about women reflects the general assumptions about social development: that it is a linear, cumulative process, expansionist and diffusionist and that traditional versus modern values are central. Women's desires for autonomy and success are regarded as important variables in the development of modernization. If women are not free to succeed and attain opportunities that exist, how will their contributions ever help in the process of modernization? The process of modernization and the administration of development policies and programs are regarded by theorists as sex-neutral or as particularly advantageous to women.

### **3.2.2.6 Feminist theory**

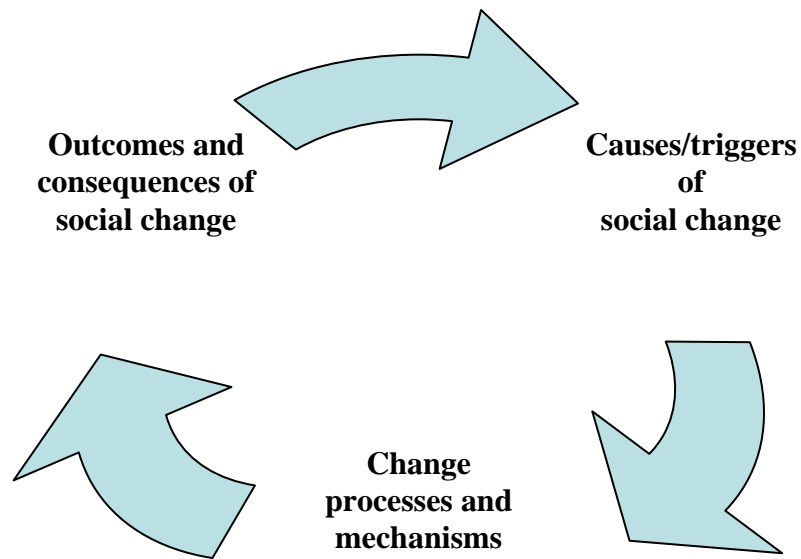
The position of women is implied in the founding principles of all preceding theories of social change. Understanding social change also requires an understanding of gender and gender relations in societies. Coakley (2007) reasoned that feminist theory originated from a general dissatisfaction with intellectual traditions that based knowledge on values, experiences and insights of men and did not consider those of women. Women have been systematically devalued and oppressed in many societies, and gender equality and equity are prerequisites for social change, development and progress.

The theories of social change discussed in this chapter offer different explanations for how and why different societies change and propose explanations for inequalities in social systems. There are clearly important differences between these theories, yet there are overlapping points as theorists respond to and challenge explanations of social change. Commonalities between theories of social change appear to be as follows:

- Social change is inevitable in societies over time; only the rate of change varies between societies;
- Social change is sometimes intentional, but often is unplanned;
- Social change is controversial and is triggered by different factors; and
- Change in some social indicators matters more than others.

## **3.3 CAUSES OF SOCIAL CHANGE**

Haferkamp and Smelsen (1992) postulated that social change is not a mono-causal event, rather a multi-causal process consisting of three elements. A meta-framework of social change is depicted in figure 3:



**Figure 3. A meta-framework of social change (Adapted from Haferkamp & Smelser, 1992).**

Triggers for this multi-causal process are rooted in the social change theories discussed above. Advocates of the selected theories of social change discussed in the preceding paragraphs, determined several triggers resulting in transformation of social institutions over time. Marx reduced the cause of social change to the inequality in economic resources and the struggle between socio-economic classes to attain social power; Weber focused on human thought and ideas, social status, class, occupation and culture as triggers of social change. Durkheim was convinced that the expanding division of labor was the driving force behind social change while Spengler related the cause to the natural evolution of societies. Lenksi (in Clarke, *et al.*, 2000) linked social change with advances in technological innovation. Urbanization and industrialization were identified by modernity theorists as causal triggers. Haferkamp and Smelser (1992) noted that because of the multi-causality of social change triggers or determinants classifying or arranging these determinants seem to be a formidable task. Clarke, *et al.* (2000) proposed ten main causes of global social change (presented below). These ten causes affect every aspect of society across the world. On a macro scale they shape all major social institutions (including sport); on a micro scale, they shape values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviors.

- ***Technological and economic changes***

Agricultural advancements and industrialization are the main catalysts. The social process of moving from an agrarian-based economy, with the primary product being food, to an industrial economy in which the products are goods, services and information, resulted in changed work patterns, gender roles, population changes, ability for mass production of weapons, alienation of workers from production process and information overload. Clarke, *et al.* (2000) postulated that all major social changes are tied to changes in technology and economics.

- ***Modernization***

The social process of moving from an agrarian to an industrial society caused government and bureaucracy to play larger roles in controlling and shaping society. Some societies experience higher qualities of life, higher levels of self-efficacy, elevated roles of science and education and societies demonstrate a desire for continuous change in social aspects such as jobs, marriage, change of governments and services.

- ***Urbanization***

The phenomenon of urbanization where large populations live in urban areas rather than rural areas is the result of economic and technological advances in societies. Urbanization is reflected in more diverse cities, independence of inhabitants, weaker social attachments, secularization and mass communication systems. The negative side of too rapid urbanization is reflected in ineffective infrastructure, class conflict and poverty.

- ***Bureaucratization***

The process of bureaucratization compels societal organizations to manage activities via the use of extreme rational and impersonal thinking, extreme division of labor and record keeping. Although it allows society to be highly efficient and effective in terms of production it also result in inefficiencies like wasting and de-personalization of workforce skills, miscommunication, corporate crimes and power in the hands of a selected few at the top of organizations.

- ***Conflict and competition***

Conflict and competition cause positive and negative social changes. Positive changes include increased solidarity, eradication of inequalities in gender, human and civil rights, and sexual orientation. Negative changes are demonstrated in terms of war and violence

rooted in religion, ethnic tension, competition for resources and sustained resistance to equality.

- ***Political and legal power***

A system of elected and non-elected officials to support bureaucracy results not only in positive social changes in the form of redistribution of wealth, affirmative action and minimum wages, but also in negative changes in corporate power and power elite.

- ***Ideology***

Changes and differences in ideology often legitimize inequality as does religion and meritocracy. Conflict as a cause of social change frequently originates in ideological differences and manifests itself through war, revolution and civil unrest. Ideologies that have broadly shaped directions of social change in the modern world include freedom and self-determination, material growth and security, nationalism, capitalism and Marxism. Ideas and values can cause social change, either inhibiting or promulgating change. Van der Veen (2007) reasoned that ideational culture causes social change by legitimizing a desired direction of change (e.g. promoting further equality and democracy), providing a basis for social solidarity necessary to promote change, i.e., integrative mechanisms, neutralizing the conflicting strains found in society and/or highlighting contradictions and problems.

- ***Diffusion***

The rate at which a population adopts new goods and services resulting in social change instigates social change in social institutions.

- ***Acculturation***

Urbanization incorporates diverse populations that lead to cultural integration and assimilation. Changed value and belief systems are the result of acculturation in these open societies. Social change can also be inhibited by preventing acculturation, as was the case in China (Cultural Revolution), Iran (Islamic Fundamentalism) and Afghanistan (Islamic Fundamentalism).

- ***Evolution***

Societies evolve progressively over time with technology as the prime factor in evolution. Evolutionary change involves making significant changes on systemic as well as individual levels.

### 3.4 STAGES AND MECHANISMS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

An inherent paradox of social change centers on the fact that most people want progress but no one wants change. In general, individuals and social institutions are slow to initiate and sustain social change. Social change has been defined in earlier paragraphs as *a dynamic process by and through which people's behavior, practices or conditions become altered due to a paradigm shift involving ideas, perceptions and structures in a society over time*. From this definition it can be deduced that social change will move through stages and that it will apply to individual behavioral change as well as social systemic changes. On the surface social change sometimes appears to be in the form of spontaneous bursts of energy and people rising to demand some form of social change. In reality, sustained social change flows from careful organizing, massive public education, sustained agitation and collaboration between social institutions and people. Bill (M. Louise Bill, personal interview, August 2, 2007) proposed four stages through which dynamic, planned, systemic social change progresses:

- ***Stage one: Creating awareness***

From the discussion on social change theories, it is evident that inequalities exist in societies. If people and social institutions are not aware of these inequalities, they will not understand the need for social change. The first stage in social change therefore involves making institutions and people aware of inequalities and building networks of committed supporters. The role of social institutions in this stage is of cardinal importance, as they bring to the table their ability to organize, educate and mobilize the network of supporters. Social movements and social entrepreneurs are often the drivers in this stage and form the basis of the critical mass required during the second stage of social change.

- ***Stage two: Building motivation***

Due to the paradox of *wanting change but fearing change*, stage two comprises building a critical mass of people and institutions informed about and committed to the planned social change.

- ***Stage three: Preparation***

People, as the base unit of social institutions, are motivated to do things differently. Progressive social change is a democratic undertaking. Diverse views, attitudes, perceptions and beliefs are joined together during this stage of social change into



strategies. Solid strategies to move toward the desired change amplify and direct the efforts of the two preceding stages.

- ***Stage four: Sustained action***

This stage requires sustained implementation of strategies formulated in the preceding stage. Efficient management of processes is cardinal to maintaining momentum and directing systemic change.

Individuals contribute to systemic social change. It is thus appropriate to also consider the stages through which individual behaviors impact on social change. Although the transtheoretical model of behavior change (TTM) is widely advocated in changing health behavior, its principles are also applicable to diverse social scenarios as a tool of intentional individual behavioral change (Marshall & Biddle, 2001). The TTM focuses on the rational decision-making abilities and increased self-efficacy of the individual as change triggers. The TTM is a stage based change model postulating that change is a process and not an event. The TTM consists of *stages of change* and *processes of change*. Stages of change are defined as temporal dimensions representing *when* particular changes occur. Stages of change also represent a continuum of readiness to take and sustain action. The TTM identifies the following stages of change:

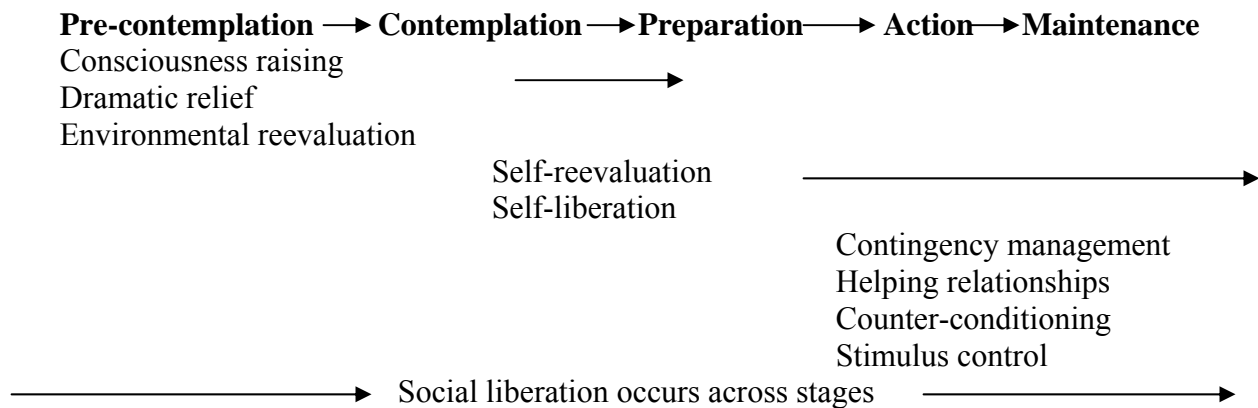
- Pre-contemplation (individual not intending to change);
- Contemplation (individual intending to change);
- Preparation (individual intending to take action to change fairly soon);
- Action (individual taking action to change behavior); and
- Maintenance (individual maintain implemented actions).

Processes of change represent *how* change occurs from one stage to the next. In TTM, ten basic patterns of activity are described to facilitate individual behavioral change:

- Consciousness raising (finding and learning new facts to support the behavioral change);
- Dramatic relief (experiencing negative emotions associated with old behavior);
- Environmental reevaluation (realizing the negative impact of existing social behavior or positive impact of desired social change);

- Self-reevaluation (realizing that behavior change is an important part of self-efficacy);
- Self-liberation (making a firm commitment to change);
- Contingency management (increasing rewards for positive social change behavior and decreasing rewards for negative social behavior);
- Helping relationships (seeking and using social support for positive behavior change);
- Counter-conditioning (substituting positive social behaviors for negative social behaviors);
- Stimulus control ( removing reminders of negative social behavior and adding cues for positive behavior); and
- Social liberation (realizing that social norms are changing in the direction of the desired change).

Integration of stages and processes of the TTM is illustrated in figure 4 below:



**Figure 4. Integration of stages and processes of change (Marshall & Biddle, 2001).**

The TTM (individual change) and the four stage model (systemic change) discussed above clearly share commonalities. Desired change moves through stages of pre-intention to intention to maintained action over time. Similar processes of awareness/consciousness raising, motivation/evaluation, action, maintaining direction are present in both approaches and are employed by social change agents to elicit the desired social change.

Agents of social change facilitate progression through the stages of change by exploiting mechanisms and processes of social change.

Mechanisms and processes of social change comprise planned (e.g. sustainable community development, social movements, advocacy campaigns, social entrepreneurial activity) as well as unplanned mechanisms (e.g. precipitating mechanisms, political conflict). Sustainable community development, social movements and social entrepreneurial activity will be discussed as examples of planned social change.

Bill (M. Louise Bill, personal interview, August 2, 2007) determined that in order to facilitate sustained social change, change agents can consider five different mechanisms or approaches to sustainable community development, the choice of which depends upon the specific issue prevalent in the society: (1) social production, (2) community development, (3) community organizing, (4) community advocacy or (5) activism. Mechanisms and processes focusing on social change through social production provide services to underserved and/or victimized members of a community. Improving the economic vitality of communities is the focus of the community development approach while community organizing is an effective mechanism to increase the voice of underserved, under-heard and under-represented people. Advocacy is used to represent the interests of groups, generally those who have been marginalized from full participation in society. Activism entails mobilizing the community and usually involves confrontation in order to provide community members access to social change. Despite differences, agents of social change often use a combination of the above approaches to direct social change. Increasing access for girls to sport by starting after school sport clubs may also involve a leadership component (*social production*). Community organizing *advocacy* can be useful as parents speak to the school board to provide the program. Sustaining the program, however, may demand *organizing* citizens to pressure local councils to donate land for playing facilities and equipment to maintain programs.

Social change does not happen accidentally. The difference between top-down and bottom-up approaches to social change has been discussed earlier in this chapter. In the bottom-up approach, social change can be influenced when groups of people combine their efforts in social movements. Orum, Johnstone, and Riger (1999) defined a social movement as any assembly of people who are organized to defend or to transform social practices in society. Neubeck and Glasberg (2005) agree by concluding that social movements are persistent, organized, collective efforts to either resist or introduce changes in social structures and cultures. Social movements generally last over a fairly long period of time and can be the vehicles or mechanisms through which individuals work together and address social issues that otherwise seem too large and overwhelming. Neubeck and Glasberg (2005) offered a typology of social movements to distinguish between the types of social change they pursue (refer to figure 5 below).

		<b>DEGREE OF CHANGE</b>	
		<b>Total change</b>	<b>Limited but specific change</b>
<b>TYPE OF CHANGE SOUGHT</b>	<b>Individuals</b>	Redemptive	Alterative
	<b>Society</b>	Transformative	Reformative

**Figure 5: Types of social movements (Neubeck & Glasberg, 2005).**

*Redemptive movements* attempt to change individuals not society. *Alterative movements* also attempt to change (alter) the behavior of individuals but focus on limited specifically defined changes. *Reformative movements* seek limited, specifically defined changes in societal norms and not just change in the behavior of individuals. *Transformative movements* also aim to change society, but are not limited to societal change as advocated by reformative movements, but to total radical change of social structures. Neubeck and Glasberg (2005) warned, however, that this typology can be useful for differentiating social movements but its application is limited as not all social movements seek change as some work to preserve the status quo. In terms of the definition of social movements, the collective efforts of groups like IWG, WomenSport International, and IAPESGW

advocating the issue of *Women and Sport*, might qualify as part of a reformative social movement. The overall goal of these organizations is to integrate women better into existing sport institutions to increase equal participation of women in sport. The IWG, WSI, and IAPESGW challenge discrimination against women that occurs within sport as a social institution. Saavedra (2006) also documented the efforts of the international women in sport (WIS) movement as activist initiatives to raise the profile of women in sport through conferences, declarations and new organizations resulting from the efforts. At the same time, however, she warned that similarly to the larger global women's movement, the WIS movement and its agenda initially represented the interests, desires and experiences of elite women in the North. Over time, Women in Sport as a social movement, has become more inclusive of women from developing nations, yet still retains an elite veneer.

The concept of entrepreneurship (invented in the business environment) has been applied increasingly in the context of social change (Alvord, Brown & Letts, 2002) as a mechanism to affect desired change in societies. Dees (2001) is convinced that it is a concept well suited to modern times. *"It combines the passion of a social mission with an image of business-like discipline, innovation, and determination commonly associated with, for instance, the high-tech pioneers of Silicon Valley. The time is certainly ripe for entrepreneurial approaches to social problems"* (Dees, 2001, p.1). Although the concept of social entrepreneurship is gaining popularity, it has different meanings to different people. It is therefore important to investigate the roots of the concept *entrepreneur*. Bornstein (2004), Dees (2001), and Alvord *et al.*, (2002) as scholars of social entrepreneurship, all agree that social entrepreneurship, as in business entrepreneurship, is challenged to find effective and sustainable social solutions to social issues and problems, and that these solutions require many of the processes and techniques associated with successful business creation. For Dees (2001) the concept *entrepreneur* originated in French economics during the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries. The term entrepreneur refers to someone who undertakes a significant project or activity and creates value. Jean Baptiste Say (19<sup>th</sup> century), Joseph Schumpeter, Peter Drucker and Howard Stevenson (20<sup>th</sup> century) are prominent scholars closely associated with the origins of

entrepreneurship (Dees, 2001). The essence of entrepreneurship (value creation, opportunity identification and assessment) can be applied in both the business sector and the social sector as they describe a mind-set and a kind of behavior that can be manifest anywhere. According to modernization theory in a world where social change sector boundaries are blurring, social entrepreneurship becomes a reality. Social entrepreneurs are entrepreneurs with a social mission. Dees (2001, p. 4) defines social entrepreneurship as follows:

“Social entrepreneurs play the role of social change agents in the social sector by:

- Adopting a social mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value),
- Recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve that mission,
- Engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation and learning,
- Acting boldly without being limited to resources currently in hand, and
- Exhibiting heightened accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created.” (This is the core motivation for this investigation.)

Alvord *et al.* (2002) identified three themes central to social entrepreneurship:

- Combining business skills and knowledge to create enterprises that accomplish social purposes and missions;
- Focusing attention on innovations and social arrangements that have consequences for social problems, build new social arrangements and mobilize resources in response to those problems rather than focusing on commercial criteria; and
- Initiating small changes in the short term that reverberate through existing social systems to catalyze larger social changes in the long term.

Although Alvord, *et al.* (2002) support all three themes above, social entrepreneurship as a catalyst for social transformation is particularly emphasized.

Although social entrepreneurship is regarded as a relatively new mechanism in the meta-framework of social change, general observations of scholars in this field suggest potential for social transformation. Seminal to the mechanisms of social change is the concept of institutionalizing and managing change in organizations. Social change is not

a natural process; processes and mechanisms need to be managed to maintain directionality and desired impact. The issue of managing and institutionalizing change on an organizational level will be discussed later in this chapter.

A quite recent construct that has surfaced in sport psychology literature involves the shifting of paradigms that ultimately produces personal and, ultimately, social change (Ockene, 2001). Changing thoughts, emotions, and behaviors can be firmly entrenched. An existing paradigm may be particularly difficult because it is accompanied by long-held beliefs, attitudes and opinions that may reflect an array of barriers, negatively held perceptions, and unpleasant past experiences (Hunt & Hillsdon, 1996). The disconnected values model (DVM) is based upon two assumptions: that self-motivated behavior reflects a person's deepest values and beliefs (purpose or mission) (Loehr & Schwartz, 2003) and that primary motivators of human behavior have three stages: (a) to identify a deeply held set of values, (b) to live a life consistent with those values, and (c) to consistently hold selves accountable to them (Anshel, 2007). Through comparisons of costs and long-term benefits, individuals determine their deepest values and beliefs about which they are most passionate. Values are core beliefs that guide behavior, provide impetus for motivating behavior, and provide standards against which behavior is assessed (Rokeach, 1973).

Values appear to be at the core of paradigms and have a more important role in behavior change than interests, attitudes, needs and "political correctness". The latter are more situational, transitory and derived from a core set of values (Super, 1995).

The DVM includes 40 values. Examples include the values of integrity, creativity, fairness, genuineness, loyalty, respect for others, service to others, honesty, character, commitment, concern for others, and excellence. Questions also identify strands of disconnect. For example, individuals may be asked "to what extent are your values consistent with your actions? If one of your deepest values is to live in an environment containing equal access and opportunities for women in sport, to what extent is your value inconsistent with your behavior? Is there a 'disconnect' between your beliefs about

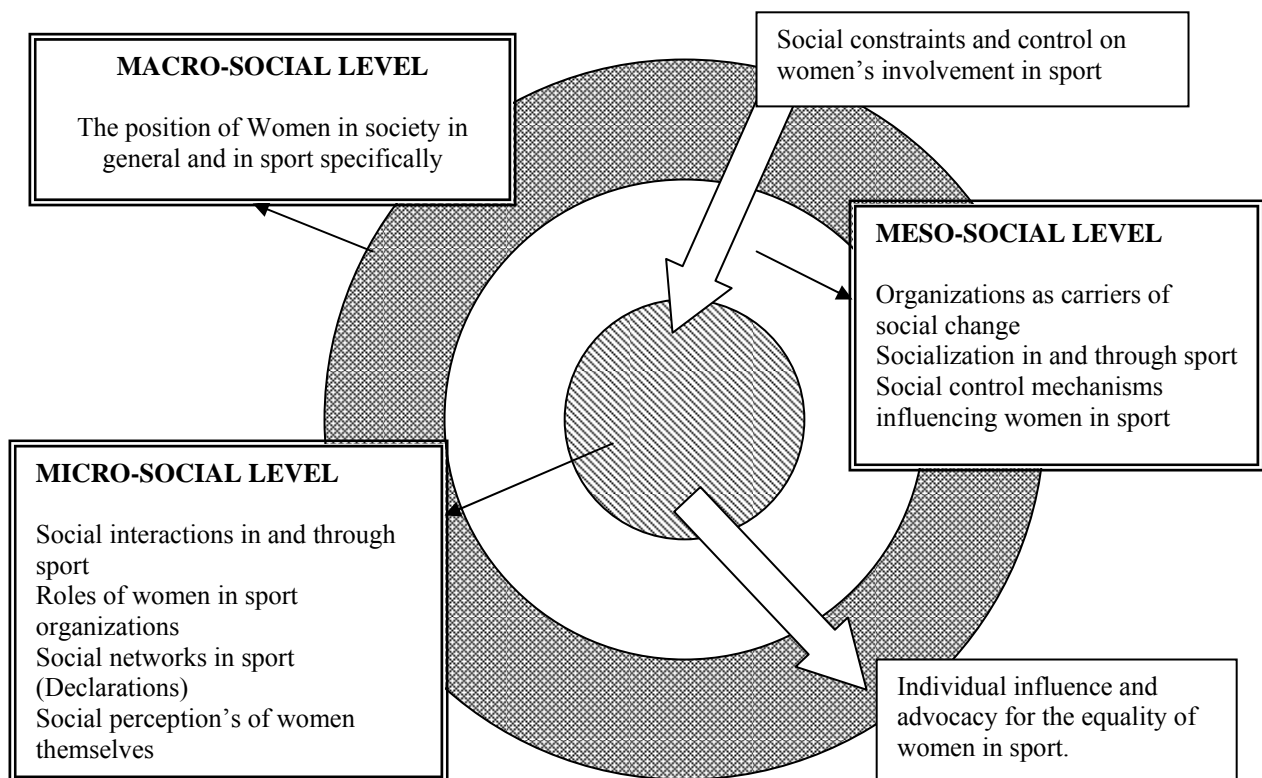
equal access and opportunities for women in sport and your behavioral patterns?” The notion is to detect the ‘disconnect’ between deepest values and beliefs and undesirable behaviors that are used to compromise these values and to determine that the ‘disconnect’ is unacceptable. Once these two postulates are accepted, work can begin on undesirable behaviors with those that are connected to values and beliefs.

Relative to the principles of the Brighton Declaration and its overall aim, the DVM may also be of use to organizations in the change process, as paradigm shifting includes individual as well as organizational elements. The paradigm shift within each of the organization signatories to include tangible process management benchmarks is paramount to the success of the Brighton Declaration principles and social change. The conceptual framework of the DVM might provide additional explanations of cause and effect and interventions for creating permanent paradigm changes that can be translated into individual and organizational behavioral changes. This is, however, beyond the scope of this investigation, but might afford perspectives for additional research.

### **3.5 SOCIAL CHANGE, WOMEN AND SPORT**

In the preceding paragraphs of this chapter the key theoretical elements of social change have been debated. Central themes in social change emerged as (1) a process of transformation or alterations in social systems over time, (2) triggers or catalysts initiating and driving the change, (3) mechanisms (social movements, institutions and/or individuals), mobilizing, driving and directing the process of change in the desired direction, and (4) a dynamic interaction between the elements of social change. The overarching principle of social change concentrates on eliminating social inequalities. The movement of women and sport also addresses social inequalities in sport as social phenomenon. At this point of the study it, therefore, becomes necessary to discuss women and sport in the context of social change in terms of selected theoretical elements presented above. Orum *et al.* (1999) portrayed the social world as a dynamic interaction between macro-social, meso-social and micro-social elements (nested hierarchy). Placing the issue of women and sport within this paradigm resulted in figure 6 below.





**Figure 6. Women and sport in the nested hierarchical model of social processes (Adapted from Orum *et al.*, 1999).**

The conveying power of sport as a vehicle to create equal social space for all is well established by scholars and social movements alike. Woods (2007) alleged that social changes over the last 50 years have affected sport significantly. He claimed that the civil rights movement of the 1960s opened up sport to minorities and continues to do so. The women's movement that ushered in The United States' Title IX in 1972 also changed sport dramatically but equality with men stays an elusive goal. At the continental level, the Commission of the European Communities' White Paper on Sport (2007) acknowledged sport as an area of human activity that has enormous potential for social inclusion, integration and equal opportunities. Mainstreaming of gender issues as an indicator of social change is encouraged through sport-related activities in their framework of the roadmap for equality between women and men 2006-2010. Also on the

European continent, Meier (2007), in her working paper on gender equity, sport and development, established principles for sport's potential in personal development, empowerment, social inclusion and as a peace-building representative of social change. The Casablanca conference on creating power and impact for gender equity in sport for social change (2007) had as its aim to help make the gender equity in sport for social change movement stronger. As a reformative agent of social change, the conference made a case for social networking and collective action of advocates for gender equity in sport. It also showcased numerous good practices from all continents.

Women and sport as a social movement clearly fits into and reflects the theoretical framework of social change. Its influence as a mechanism for social change is evident from the numerous conferences, declarations and initiatives discussed in chapter two. Also as a social entrepreneur, the movement conforms to the elements of social entrepreneurship according to the definition posed by Dees (2001). Fundamentally the women and sport movement aims to act as a change agent in the social sector. An analysis of the body of documents generated by the broad movement indicates that they attack the underlying causes of the inequality of women in sport. Specific declarations such as the seminal Brighton Declaration seek to create systemic changes and sustainable improvements relative to the position of women in sport. The mission of the Brighton Declaration (as well as subsequent declarations) is clearly a mission of social improvement rather than creating financial returns for individuals. Signatories of the Brighton Declaration and advocates of the women and sport movement in general look for long-term social return on their investment in time and advocacy. At the same time those signatories and supporters have a vision of how to achieve gender equality in sport. Processes and models often change as organizations embark on the journey to gender equality. Organizations as signatories of the Brighton Declaration continuously engage in processes of innovation. Adaptation of processes to institutionalize and optimize gender equality in sport without feeling restricted by limited resources is paramount. Signatories of the Brighton Declaration as social change makers should exhibit a sense of accountability for their commitment to create social value. As commercial market forces do not apply to social entrepreneurship and automatically weed out inefficient or

ineffective procedures, signatories should regularly assess their managerial processes in order to reinforce their social missions and institutionalize desired change.

The philanthropic approach to social entrepreneurship, however, holds inherent dangers for the effectiveness and efficiency of managerial processes. Despite considerable progress made towards gender equality in sport, the question remains how to sustain reform in this area. Moser (2005) boldly stated that in general gender mainstreaming and empowering of women have failed, as limited progress is visible a decade after governments of the world endorsed the Beijing platform for action. She argued that gender mainstreaming in all facets of social life rests on four related stages:

- Embracing the concept and terminology of gender mainstreaming;
- Getting gender mainstreaming policies in place;
- Implementing gender mainstreaming in practice; and
- Evaluating or auditing the managerial processes of gender mainstreaming.

Moser (2005) postulated that the ultimate test as to whether or not organizations succeeded in institutionalizing gender mainstreaming efforts can only be provided by measuring the managerial processes and procedures aimed at transforming social intentions to social impact. At the same time designing the indicators for this requirement in the form of quality management processes proved to be the largest challenge to organizations aiming to address gender mainstreaming issues. Gilmore, Pool and Charvat (2002) declared best practices in social change governance and institutionalized social change, regardless of the nature and level of change, managing the desired change by means of quality management processes. Jacobs (2002) reiterated the latter viewpoint and suggested that the institutionalization of organizational change should be considered a cardinal part of the change process. After initial success many change efforts eventually fail. Sustainable change requires a solid framework of processes and procedures that cascade through all management levels and across all functional areas while becoming part of the ongoing activities of the organization.

### 3.6. MANAGING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Organizations are the carriers and facilitators of social change outcomes. Orum *et al*, (1999) classified organizations (in the context of this study the signatories of the Brighton Declaration) on the meso-social level of society with the responsibility of challenging social constraints through appropriate and quality management processes and activities. Neubeck and Glasberg's (2005) bottom-up approach to social change assigned organizations, institutions or social movements with similar responsibilities as facilitators of social change. Change was earlier defined as a process over time, and the mechanisms and activities need to be managed to culminate in the desired change. The social mission of equality of women in sport needs to be transformed over time from the awareness/pre-contemplation/contemplation stage of social change to action and maintenance. Specific organizations become the catalysts driving the preparation/sustained action/maintenance stages of social change. Inefficiency in the management of organizational change processes and procedures locks the social mission into the first stages (awareness/pre-contemplation/contemplation) of social change. Although equality in women and sport is essentially a social issue and social entrepreneurs and social movements play an important role in translating the stated mission into action, it still has to be managed according to business related principles and procedures to achieve the desirable return on investment. A fusion of social and management principles is essential to propel the perceived value of the social mission into sustained action and social change. Lee and Krayer (2003, p. 1) refer to this fusion as "*organizing change*". Their rationale for organized change rests on the assumption that any change initiative (including decreasing inequality in women and sport) can be successful only when it is reflected in and inclusive of all management functions and processes of organizations responsible for affecting change. Organized change processes allow for stability and focused results.

Where the broad process of social change in society has been discussed in the first part of this chapter, it now becomes imperative to analyze the key theoretical elements of the organizational change process and the management thereof in the latter part of this chapter.

### 3.6.1 Organizational change

Organizational change refers to making alterations in the organization's purpose, culture, structure and processes in response to seen or anticipated changes in the external business environment. Management of organizational change is about identifying and embedding in the organization those changes through quality processes that will ensure the long-term survival of the social mission (equality for women in sport). Lee and Krayner (2003) differentiated between seven levels of meaningful change in organizations:

- 1 Effectiveness – *Doing the right things*
- 2 Efficiency – *Doing the right things right*
- 3 Improving – *Doing things better*
- 4 Cutting – *Doing away with things*
- 5 Copying – *Doing things other organizations are doing*
- 6 Different – *Doing things that no other organization is doing*
- 7 Impossible – *Doing things that cannot be done*

He concluded that while all the levels are beneficial, one and two represent normal thinking, three represents continuous improvement, four and five represent interesting thinking and six and seven represent levels where real and meaningful change in organizations occurs. Against the background of Moser's (2005) perception that gender mainstreaming has failed in society, signatories of the Brighton Declaration should, therefore, focus change actions within their organizations on levels 6 and 7; do not aim for effectiveness and efficiency, do not settle for minor adjustments, nor implement what other organizations have been doing. Real change in the position of women in sport will only occur when organizations and decision-makers think differently and believe in and organize for the perceived impossible. Undoubtedly change has to be managed if the often perceived impossible social mission of equality for women in sport is to be achieved. To manage the process of change envisioned by the women and sport movement in general (strategic change) and by signatories of the Brighton Declaration specifically (operational change) becomes the major challenge. Pettigrew and Whipp (1992) stressed this link between strategic and operational change and pointed out that organizations that were successful in linking strategic visions with operational change were those that demonstrated no gaps between vision and actions and had extensive

ranges of management processes in place focusing on achieving particular outcomes. When the above emphasis of Pettigrew and Whipp (1992) is applied in the context of women and sport and the Brighton Declaration, the importance of linking the “*talk shows*” at conferences, declarations and calls for actions to sustained actions in signatory organizations becomes evident. Charlton (2002) refers to this link as internal organizational capabilities to cope with whatever the future mission (equality in women and sport) of a particular industry (sport) requires. According to Charlton (2002), the issue of a future mission focuses on the question of establishing a coherent awareness of a specific matter (in the context of this study achieving equality in women and sport). He equated this awareness stage of organizational change to *soft levers* of change - managers (*elite veneer*) who mostly talk about the intended change at top management level. Commonalities between the views of Charlton (2002), Moser (2005), Gilmore *et al.* (2002) and Jacobs (2002) on this issue as presented in 3.5 above are evident.

The second issue of organizational capabilities poses a more difficult question to Charlton (2002). Organizational capabilities deal with the *hard levers* of change – management mechanisms and processes to sustain and direct desired change, a fundamental requirement echoed in literature on managing organizational change across diverse industries (Kickbusch, 2005; O’Toole & Meier, 2003; Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Klein, 1996). Change is not a natural process in organizations (Pendlebury, Grouard & Meston, 1999). Seminal to the complexity of organizational change is an implementation process that needs to be managed in order to mobilize progress from intention to action in order to facilitate Lee and Kraymer’s (2003) sixth and seventh stages of organizational change. In the next paragraph change management models will be presented.

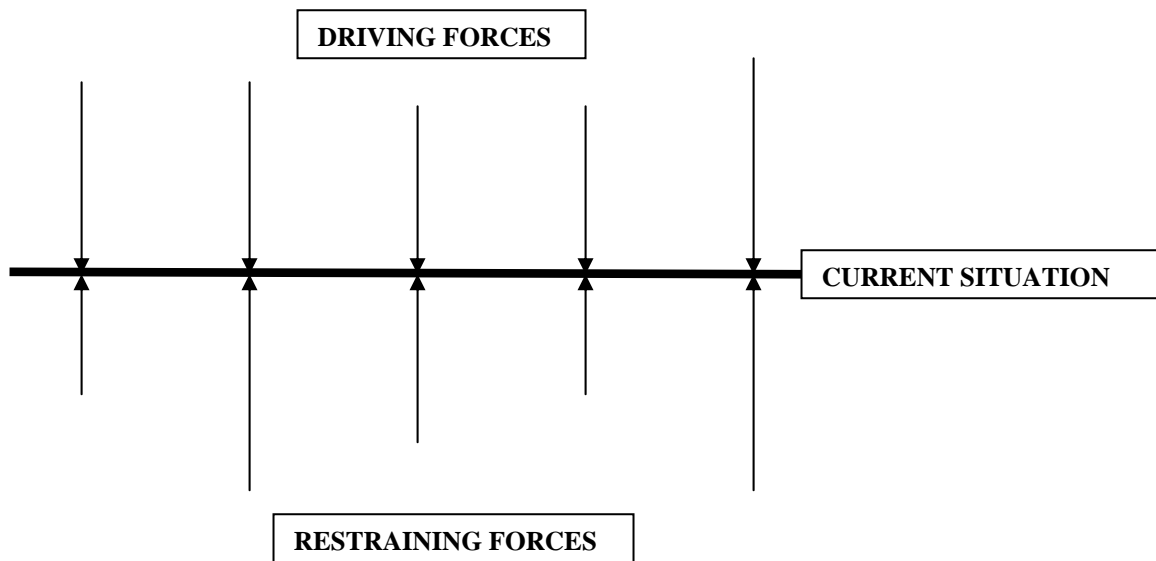
### **3.6.2 Change Management Models**

When people as change makers or change agents are only trained in or are familiar with specific techniques without understanding the theoretical principles behind the techniques, the danger exists that these techniques cannot be applied beyond specific scenarios. Managing change involves complex building blocks and variables. The inter-relationships between these multi-dimensional factors are described in planned change

management models. Management literature demonstrated ample proof of change management models. Models explaining the intricacies of change management range from Lewin's force field analysis (three-step model of change management), Delta analysis model of change management, Senge's learning organizations model of change management to the commitment to change management model developed by the United States Army.

### 3.6.2.1 Lewin's force field analysis (Lewin's three-step model of change management)

Lewin is generally accepted as the father of change management (Robbins, 1998, Dawson, 1994, Fossum, 1989). Lewin developed the first model of change management in 1947 and labeled it *force field analysis* to support his concept that change in organizations was represented by the pressure of opposing forces acting on an existing situation (figure 7).



**Figure 7. Lewin's force field analysis model of change management.**

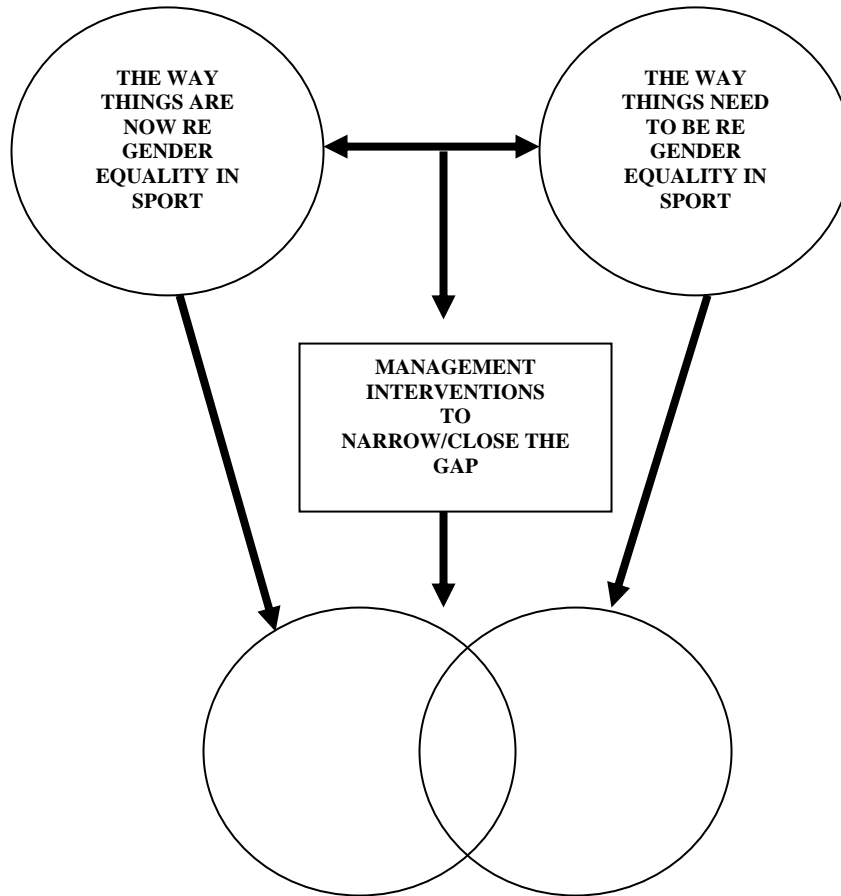
Within organizations, driving forces attempt to drive change in the desired direction away from the status quo or equilibrium, while restraining forces aim to oppose the intended changes away from the status quo. The status quo or current situation is represented by

the middle line. The relative strength of the opposing forces is represented by the length of the line. When change is stabilized in an organization the driving forces are equal to restraining forces. Lewin labeled this dynamic balance of forces as a quasi-stationary equilibrium (Q-SE) (Fossum, 1989). For change to occur the balanced forces in the Q-SE must be changed by strengthening or adding driving forces, removing or reducing restraining forces or changing the direction of some of the forces. Organizational behavior changes through three phases: (1) unfreezing current behavior (e.g. processes, procedures), (2) movement to a new state and (3) refreezing the new behavior (e.g. processes and procedures) to institutionalize the new behavior. Applying the concepts of Lewin's change management model to the context of women and sport entails identifying factors in organizations restraining the achievement of gender equality in sport. In chapter one it has been hypothesized that the lack of quality management processes derails the actions of the women and sport movement and tend to keep it trapped in the intention or awareness stages of change. To unfreeze this management needs to strengthen driving forces by institutionalizing encompassing mechanisms in the form of management processes to propel initiatives through the subsequent stages of change and direct it to accomplishing the social mission of women and sport.

### **3.6.2.2 Delta analysis model of change management (gap analysis)**

In the Delta analysis model of change management (Fossum, 1989), managing change is regarded as closing the gap ( $\Delta$  = Greek symbol for change) between how things are and how things need to be in terms of the stated social mission of the women and sport movement. The process of closing the gap or difference between the two states is illustrated in figure 8 below:





**Figure 8. Delta analysis model of change management (adapted from Fossum, 1989)**

Inherent in narrowing the gap between current and desired states is management intervention. In the context of gender inequality in sport, managerial interventions need to focus on institutionalizing appropriate processes to develop through the stages of change.

### **3.6.2.3 Senge’s learning organization model of change management**

In Orwell’s (1954) *Animal Farm*, the horse, Boxer, always had the same answer to any difficulty: *I will work harder*. At first his diligence inspired everyone, but gradually his hard work started to backfire. The harder he worked the more work there was with little

or no progress. What he did not realize was that the pigs who were running the farm were actually manipulating them all for their own profit, and Boxer's diligence prevented the other animals from realizing what the pigs were doing. Senge (1990, p. 58) labeled this phenomenon *compensating feedback*. He defined compensating feedback as a situation where well-intentioned interventions and actions call forth responses from the system that offset the benefits of the intervention. Learning organizations display five disciplines and, unless these disciplines are understood and managed, the concept of compensating feedback will neutralize hard work and result in organizational stagnation in a particular stage of change. Senge (1990) identified the following five disciplines, emphasizing that these disciplines develop as an ensemble:

- ***Systems thinking***

Systems thinking requires identifying and understanding the inter-relatedness of elements and patterns of change. As organizations and social movements are often part of the fabric of social change it is hard to see the whole intricate pattern of change, and they tend to focus on snapshots of isolated parts of the system (e.g. high profile conferences and declarations on women and sport).

- ***Personal mastery***

For Senge (1990), mastery implied a special level of proficiency rather than dominance over people or things. Personal mastery is the discipline of continuous clarification and deepening personal visions, focusing energies and of seeing reality objectively.

- ***Mental models***

Working with mental models implies turning the mirror inwards on an organization or social issue (e.g. gender inequality in sport) and scrutinizing ingrained pictures and processes. It further implies open thinking and accepting positive criticism to move an organization to higher levels of efficiency.

- ***Shared vision***

A picture of a shared vision of the future and goals is what sustains change. A shared vision causes organizations and people to excel and learn. In this regard Senge (1990) warned against personal visions revolving around charisma and past achievements of leaders that seldom get translated into shared visions including people at all levels.

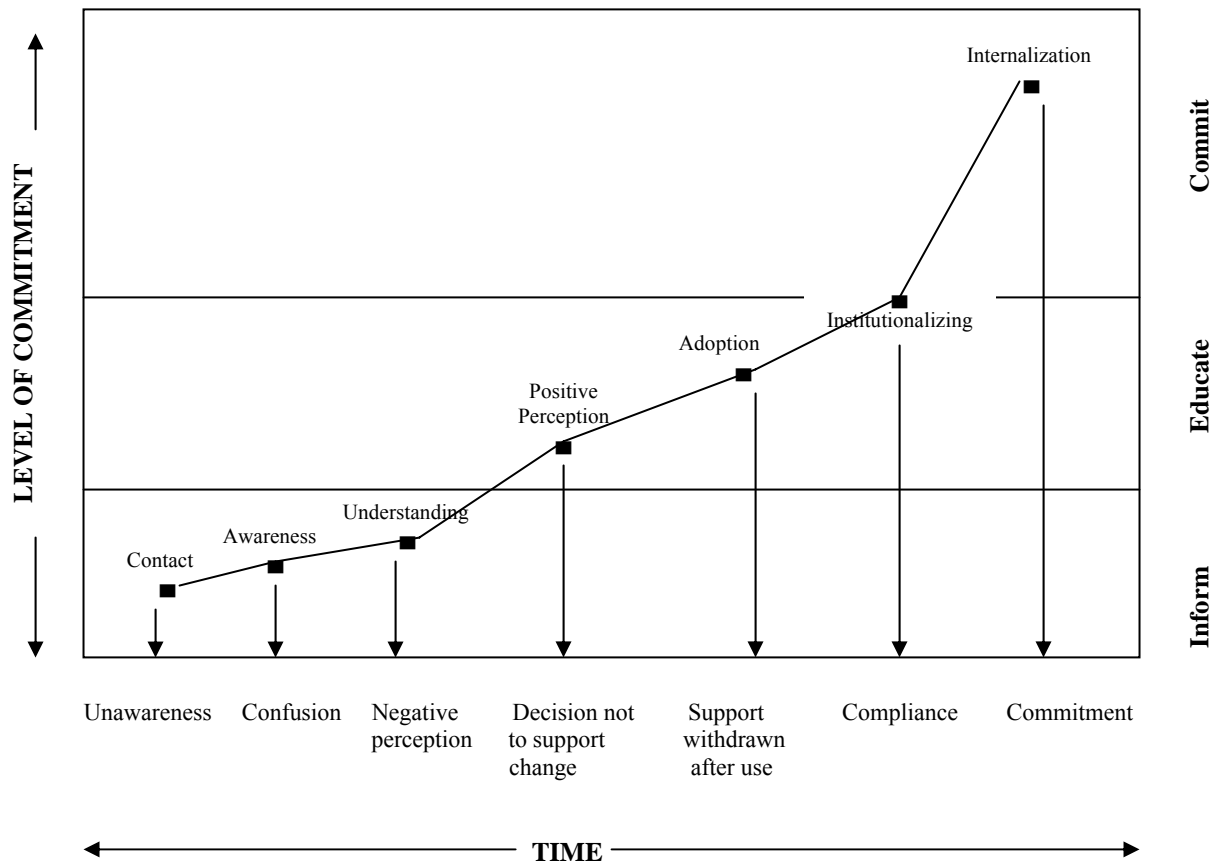
- ***Team learning***

The discipline of team learning starts with dialogue (versus debate), the ability of team members or organizations focusing on a shared vision, to enter into *thinking together* without patterns of defensiveness. Patterns of defensiveness and unwillingness to admit gaps and shortcomings often undermine real change.

Senge (1990) regarded *systems thinking* as the fifth discipline that integrated the disciplines and used as leverage to move organizations to higher achievements. It needs to be stressed that vision (gender equality in sport) without systems thinking ends up painting lovely pictures of the future without an understanding of the forces and mechanisms to be mastered to move from *here* to *there*. Senge (1990) employed another metaphor to illustrate the principle of leverage of the fifth discipline – the *trim tab*. A trim tab is a small rudder on the rudder of a ship, only a fraction the size of the rudder. Its function is to make it easier to turn the rudder, which then makes it easier to turn the ship. What makes the trim tab such a marvelous metaphor for change leverage, according to Senge (1990) is not just its effectiveness but also its non-obviousness. The trim tab has an enormous effect on a huge ship. The entire system (ship, rudder and trim tab) is engineered through the principle of leverage. In the context of the women and sport movement and gender inequality in sport, appropriate management mechanisms in organizations that allow thinking of processes of change rather than snapshots (conferences and declarations) are the high leverage changes.

#### **3.6.2.4 Change management continuum model (United States Army)**

The Enterprise Solutions Competency Center of the United States Army (2003) developed the change management continuum model to manage change through its different stages. Figure 9 depicts the components and rationale of the model.



**Figure 9. Change management continuum model. (Enterprise Solutions Competency Center, 2003)**

According to the above model, building commitment forms an essential part of any change management initiative. Most organizations, however, do not have a clear understanding of how commitment (as the outcome of change management) is generated. The change management continuum provides a cognitive map of the change management process. It is presented in a grid with the vertical axis displaying the degree of support for change and the horizontal axis indicating the time and amounts of effort it may take to move an organization through change. The model distinguishes between three developmental phases – *Inform, Educate and Commit* – and seven progressive

commitment stages over the three phases. Each stage contains critical junctures and actions where commitment to change can be threatened (downward arrows) or advanced (upward curve). Of particular importance are stages 6 (institutionalization) and 7 (internalization). These last two stages in the continuum require formal processes to be incorporated into the routine operating procedures of the organization to internalize the desired change. Failure to do so will result in an organization sliding down the continuum to lower levels of commitment to change.

Common to all the change management models discussed above is the issue of moving through stages of change and active, planned managerial intervention in the form of processes to facilitate, institutionalize and internalize desired change. Desired change does not automatically move from stated intention to institutionalization. Failure to institutionalize change limits the stated social or business vision to the introductory stages of change management.

### **3.6.3 Resistance to change**

Change can cause people within organizations to feel incompetent and powerless and to lose self-confidence. Change within organizations can also create confusion. Change can create loss of meaning and purpose. Change suggests letting go of old processes, procedures and structure. All of this results in resistance to change. Failure to understand the causes for and results of resistance to change often influences the sustained impact of the social mission. In previous paragraphs of this chapter a number of origins of change have been identified (refer to 3.3.). Irrespective of the origins of change, a number of predictable reactions occur in organizations. The influence of restrainers, barriers to change or resisters of change is clearly obvious in the models of change management discussed in 3.6.2. O'Toole and Meier (2003) posited that each of these reactions or resisters to change need to be managed to prevent resisters from turning into pitfalls of change. Pitfalls or resisters to change include:

- ***Intended social change/solution fit***

The proposed solution to achieve gender equality in sport needs to fit the context and challenges associated with it. Solutions have to move social change through all the stages of change and demonstrate appropriateness in each stage.

- ***Failure to overcome the status quo***

Complex social challenges like achieving gender equality in and through sport command collective focused and directed energy from decision-makers as well as organizations. The natural instinct of organizations and individuals alike is to resist change. In order to move from the status quo to the desired outcome of social change, effective process design and implementation are cardinal to the institutionalization of change.

- ***Self-interest and satisfaction***

Change may be good for a whole society but unless decision makers in organizations can see how it will benefit their own self-interests, they likely will not assist the change process and may attempt to derail the change process. Unless social movements and advocates for gender equality in sport can convince and lead all signatories of the Brighton Declaration to the collective benefits, status quo will likely prevail.

- ***Lack of ripeness***

Change occurs only when certain preconditions have been met - an essential precondition that change processes are in place in *driver* organizations. The extended women and sport social movement needs to carefully time and manage implementation of change processes.

- ***Sense of futility***

Many changes are superficial, cosmetic and illusory or designed solely with the purpose of making role models or individual organizations look good by creating the impression that things are changing without evidence-based support.

- ***Lack of knowledge***

Resistance to change is unavoidable if the drivers within organizations are not equipped with managerial knowledge and skills to push the change process through the changes of social change.

- ***Ego-chaining***

Sustainable change requires that decision-makers and organizations admit the previous situation or management approach was ineffective or no longer relevant. If egos are chained to irrelevant processes, change will not materialize.

- ***Myopia and short-term thinking***

Sustainable change in terms of the position of women in sport is impossible when decision-makers cannot see the bigger picture. Sustainable results will not be obtained immediately but is the result of process implementation and management.

- ***Sleepwalking and snow blindness***

According to O'Toole and Meier (2003), groupthink is a killer for change. Individuals as well as organizations fear any change that may divide the movement into adversarial camps, thereby ruining social cohesion and bringing the illusion of change. It is wise to have a devil's advocate to question the evidence of change, management processes and direction of change in terms of gender equality in sport.

- ***Too great a change***

Sustainable change does not proceed haphazardly in leaps and bounds. Incremental and planned change is easier to implement and institutionalize. The first step in institutionalizing change is quality process design to manage change through the different stages.

Poorly identified or managed resistance to change can adversely affect intended outcomes (Business Performance Consultants, 2006). Organizations as change recipients can be categorized into four basic types according to their levels of resistance:

- ***Enthusiasts***

Enthusiasts are within organizations and inherently support change. Enthusiasts will use opportunities to broaden approval for change and will attempt to convince others of the merits of the intended change. Enthusiasts implement process changes early and are willing to coach and monitor other resisters to change. In the context of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport enthusiasts would be those signatories who realize and accept quality management processes as essential to effectively translate the principles of the Brighton Declaration into desired outcomes.

- ***Followers***

Followers range from those signatories who generally prefer to take the path of least resistance to those who are initially reticent to adapt but eventually will do so once they accept the inevitability of the needed change. These signatories of the Brighton Declaration might eventually do what is necessary but no more.

- ***Objectors***

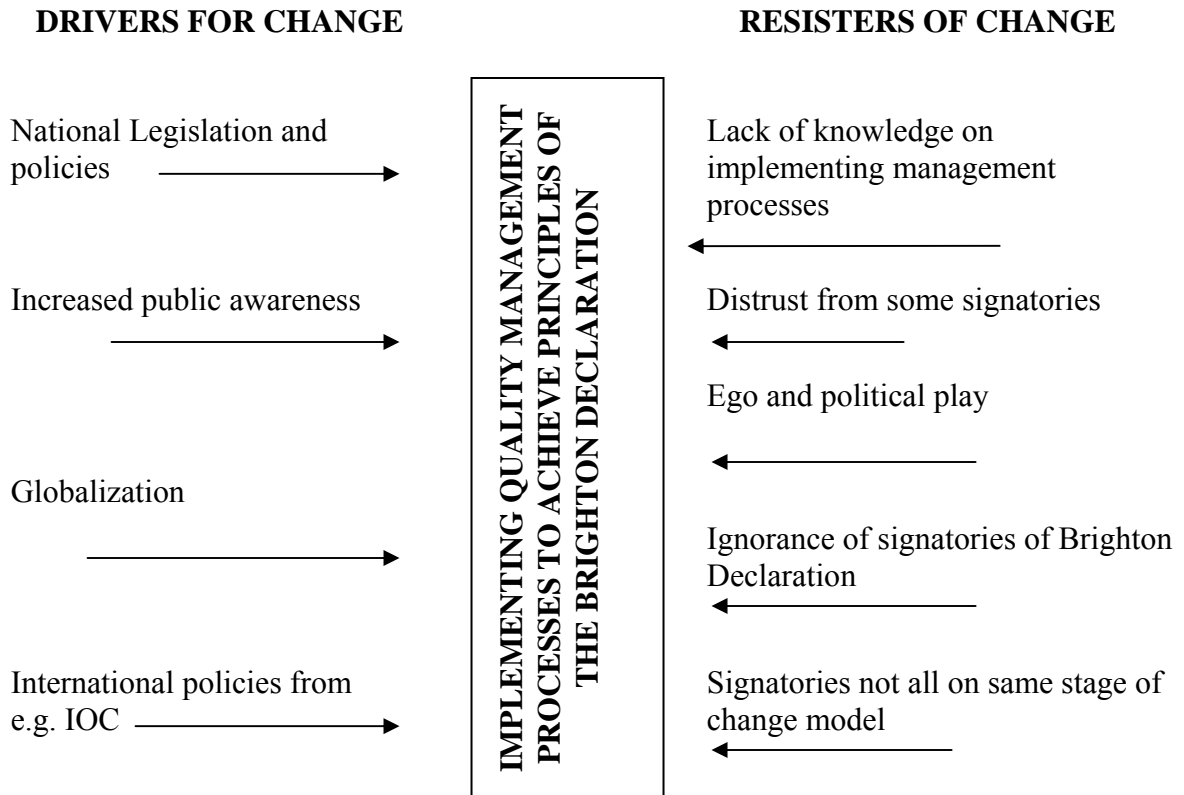
Objectors will display their resistance to implement management processes whenever the opportunity arises. Objectors will continue to deny the necessity for management processes, while followers and enthusiasts have already adopted it and continue to do things they have been doing.

- ***Underground***

Signatories labeled as underground resisters to change will always covertly resist the implementation of quality management processes. The covert behavior can manifest in providing incorrect data on their efforts to implement the principles of the Brighton Declaration, publicly resisting efforts to improve implementation processes.

Identifying the type of resistance is the first step in deciding on a strategy to manage the demonstrated resistance. Managing resistance to change should be founded in the framework of one of the previously discussed change management models. Applying Lewin's force field analysis model of change (as discussed in 3.6.2.1.) (figure 10) to the context of resistance to implementing management processes to achieve the principles of the Brighton Declaration could provide indicators on where to concentrate managerial energy to minimize resistance to change.





**Figure 10. Applying Lewin’s force field analysis to managing resistance to change in implementation of quality management processes to achieve principles of the Brighton Declaration.**

Managing the forces resisting change is a more productive strategy than simply reinforcing the drivers for change. By selecting the most powerful of the restraining forces (e.g. lack of knowledge of implementation management processes) and focusing resources there, resistance of change can be more palatable.

### 3.6.4 Change agents/ change managers

Change agents are regarded as persons who act as catalysts and assume the responsibility for managing change activities (decreasing change resisters and increasing change

drivers). The cardinal importance of people as change agents and change managers in the process of institutionalizing change is underlined by scholars such as Dunphy, Griffiths and Benn, 2007; Nwurah, 2005; Lee and Krayner, 2003; Armenakis and Harris, 2001, Eisenbach, Watson and Pillai, 1999. The common theme through the work of these scholars seems to be in human resources where change makers initiate and steer the change. Dunphy *et al.* (2007) stressed that change in societies and organizations will only progress through the phases of change through the actions of various change agents. They distinguish between internal and external change agents according to the role change agents occupy in institutionalizing change. Internal change agents are regarded as shapers and drivers of change within organizations or social movements and could be labeled as management boards, executive committees, chairpersons, line managers, supervisors, team leaders and general employees or members of social movements. According to Dunphy *et al.* (2007) internal change managers fulfill four kinds of leadership roles in institutionalizing change: (1) motivator; (2) vision setter; (3) analyzer; and (4) taskmaster. These different roles as change agents are directed respectively to people (motivator), the future (vision setter), the operating system (analyzer) and the market (taskmaster). Change agents thriving to combine all four roles accomplish internal sustainable organizational change based on auditing and redesigning organizational processes. As an organization progresses through the stages of sustainable change management there should be an increased emphasis on a holistic and integrated approach to all four above roles. External change agents are identified as politicians, activists as well as future generations having to deal with particular issues in society. External change agents put pressure on organizations to adopt and comply with sustainable management processes to institutionalize change. Internal or external change agents may feel isolated in their efforts to work towards institutionalizing change and form alliances between change agents. Such alliances can build momentum for sustainable change by combining power bases responsibly. In his discussion on the role of change agents in institutionalizing change, Nwurah (2005) stated that change agents shift paradigms through several networks of inter-connectedness, but at the same time he warned that change agents should realize that shifting paradigms takes time and structure.

Lee and Kraymer (2003) reiterated the above views by claiming that without strong drivers in the form of change agents, change can be haphazard and costly. Change agents or change managers as drivers of change must ensure that the change initiative is undertaken in an organized manner. The first requirement for “organized” is regarded as management processes to guide the initiatives. Change managers are responsible for coordinating the processes required to affect organizational or societal change and lead the organization to the sixth level of change (doing things no one else is doing) and seventh level of change (doing things that cannot be done) as discussed in 3.6.1.

For Eisenbach *et al.* (1999) the importance of change agents as leaders of the change management process is underscored by the fact that change, by definition requires creating a new system and then institutionalizing new approaches. The capabilities of change agents as leaders to enact change are noted by Eisenbach *et al.* (1999). Their ability to match espoused and enacted values and actions is described as a pivotal challenge for change managers. Dunphy *et al.* (2007) corroborated with Eisenbach *et al.* (1999) in this regard and noted five key competencies of change agents to bridge the gap between espoused and enacted change initiatives: (1) goal clarity; (2) role clarity; (3) relevant knowledge; (4) competences and resources; and (5) self-esteem. These competencies of change agents can be condensed to:

- As a change agent I know ***what changes or outcomes*** I need to produce.
- As a change agent I know ***what to do to*** produce the change or outcomes.
- As a change agent I have ***the knowledge and skills required*** to produce the change or outcomes.
- As a change agent I ***believe I can*** do it.

The change agent or change manager is responsible for coordinating the activities required to affect organizational change. This person carries the overall responsibility of steering the change initiative forward and in the right direction. Change agents can focus their change initiatives on processes, structures, technology and/or people. A holistic approach will undoubtedly result in more sustainable change. It has to be noted, however, that the relationship between change initiatives and performance (institutionalized

change) is not instantaneous. Change agents provide continuous impetus to organizations to convert intention to action and institutionalize change, but time is needed. Worley and Vick (2005), by reinforcing the basic principles of change management and the contribution of change agents in this regard, declared that change agents should not be expected to produce quick fixes and disregard quality management processes as fundamental tool of sustainable change. Implementing change poorly is often worse than not implementing change at all. Poor implementation of change by change agents poisons people's attitudes toward the desired change and creates additional challenges in the future.

### **3.7 CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

The issue of women (and sport) continuously remains on the agenda of global social change. Sport as a vehicle for social change can cut across borders that divide societies. The convening and integrating power of sport makes it a compelling tool for social advocacy provided its potential is harnessed through sustainable management processes and procedures. Social change, nonetheless, necessitates more than envisioning a utopia where men and women have equal access and opportunity to sport. Implementing the envisioned change depends on understanding the inter-relatedness between triggers of change in the broader social environment and what organizations and individuals need to do to translate intention to sustained action and impact. The golden themes running through this chapter are the inevitability of change in all sectors of society as well as organizations, the critical importance of initiatives and management processes to mobilize and direct planned change and the role of change agents to guide the change process. The success of creating an equitable position for women in sport as a social phenomenon seems to hinge on quality management processes. Drawing on the meta-framework of social change as well as the models of change management, the next chapter will focus on quality process management of the Brighton Declaration as a catalyst for sustained change.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## MANAGING PROCESS QUALITY

### 4.1. INTRODUCTION

The ultimate aim of the Brighton Declaration is social change in terms of gender equality in sport. Social change is nevertheless a complex and dynamic process that requires more than a linear series of events. Different models of change management presented in chapter three emphasized the importance of mapping out desired change through specific actions, functions and processes in order to progress through the respective stages of change. Researchers refer to these specific actions and functions to implement change collectively as *business processes*, *business process mapping* and *process management* (Nair, 2006; Koubarakis & Plexousakis, 2002; Ahire & Dreyfus, 2000; Melao & Pidd, 2000). In Dawson's (1994) process framework for change management, three general timeframes associated with institutionalizing social change are proposed. These comprise (a) conception of a need to change, (b) modelling, mapping and managing the process and activities of organizational transition and (c) long-term operation of new work practices and procedures. Each timeframe encompasses a number of key success factors that need to be managed.

In the second phase of Dawson's (1994) model, key success factors are recognized as:

- Designing and mapping change process activities;
- Quality management of the change process activities;
- Benchmarking of process management activities; and
- Continuous auditing of change process activities against benchmarks and standards.

According to theories of change, change in a societal context is inevitable and becomes increasingly complex. For managers (signatories of the Brighton Declaration) to be competent as change agents rather than victims of change in their respective organizational contexts, these key success factors have to be managed to achieve the stated goals or social mission (gender equality for women and sport). In this chapter a conceptual framework for understanding the above key success factors

will be discussed to build a case for process standards and quality process management in organizations as signatories of the Brighton Declaration. Basic terms in the title of this study had been clarified in the introductory chapter. In this chapter of the study, however, it becomes necessary to elucidate the concept of *process* as the foundation of the conceptual framework. The notions of *process*, *process management*, *business process*, *business process mapping*, *business process management* and *process audit*, need additional clarification.

- ***Process***

A process is a series of operations, systems, methods of doing something, internal practices, actions or steps that results in a service or product stated as a goal of a particular organization. It is a set of conditions that work together within a business or service organization to transform goals and intentions into desired outcomes. Processes are significant in accomplishing the mission-related actions of the organizations and contribute directly to meeting the needs and requirements of customers. Within a business or service organization, a collection of processes make up a system that interact and extend beyond the boundaries of an organization. Sub-systems are often referred to as processes (Elsmar, 2003).

- ***Process management***

Process management denotes the ensemble of activities of planning and monitoring the performance of a process: to transform goals and intentions into desired outcomes. Process management is the application of knowledge, skills, tools, techniques and processes to define, visualize, measure, control, report and improve processes with the goal of meeting customer requirements efficiently. ISO 9001 standards can be one tool to improve the effectiveness of a management process (Becker, Kugeler, & Rosemann, 2004). The hallmark of process management is its focus on business processes. To support the improvement of business processes, business process mapping and process auditing are utilized.

- ***Business process***

Melão and Pidd (2000) noted that a simplistic definition of business processes, namely a set of related activities that are of value to a customer, does not adequately explain the complexity of its application potential. They suggested a useful way to understand business processes is to regard them as multifaceted. Perspectives on business processes differ depending on the type of organization implementing them as

well as the type of service or product available. This assumption led to Melão and Pidd's (2000) four perspectives on business processes as (a) production mechanisms, (b) complex dynamic systems, (c) interacting feedback loops and/or (d) business processes as social constructs. Business processes as production mechanisms are seen as closed technical loops and structures within organizations producing a specific product. Business processes as complex dynamic systems focus on the dynamic and interactive features of business processes that adapts to an open and changing environment in order to survive and fulfil goals and objectives. In terms of this perspective a business process can then be defined as a set of subsystems consisting of people, tasks, standards and technology interacting with each other as well as with the external environment to achieve business goals. Business processes as interacting feedback loops presents a third perspective and highlights the information feedback structure (auditing) as regulator and adapter for business processes. The fourth perspective on business processes emphasized the subjective angle of management. Business processes designed to achieve goals are influenced and determined by social constructs in the external business environment (e.g. gender equality). Generally speaking, business processes in service organizations are mapped or modelled according to the fourth perspective. The view of business processes as a social construct fits well with strategic, less tangible goals in which human activity is the major driver (e.g., health, social, sport and educational services) (Tinaikar, Hartman & Nath, 1995). This approach to business processes has also been labelled as a *soft approach* as it attempts to move away from the mechanistic production to include humanistic applications in service organizations allowing for changing social constructs (Mumford, 1994; Checkland & Scholes, 1990). A humanistic approach to business process mapping does not imply exclusion of structure and technology and a balanced integration of social and mechanistic perspectives are increasingly advocated (Melão & Pidd, 2000).

- ***Business process mapping***

Business process mapping refers to activities involved in defining exactly what an organization or business does, who is responsible, to what standard a process should be completed and how the success or quality of the process can be determined. The first step in gaining control over organization mission and goals is to know and understand basic business processes (Juran, 1988). Mapping processes assist organizations in ensuring their processes are effective and efficient.

- ***Business process management***

Business process management is a method of efficiently aligning the organization with the wants and needs of its customers (gender equality in sport) through business processes. Business process management is utilized by managers to continuously define, measure and improve processes. Business process management often originates within a specific area of an organization (women and sport) identified as an area for improvement (Spanyi, 2005). Business process management has two applications: (1) people; and (2) technology. From a people perspective, human resources within an organization are oriented to make process improvements in order to serve the needs of customers. Activities within business process management span a life cycle of five categories: (1) design; (2) modelling; (3) execution; (4) monitoring; and (5) optimization. The notion of *stages of change* becomes evident from this life cycle.

- ***Process audit***

Change management has been defined as the process by which envisioned changes are planned, organized/scheduled, applied and its effects evaluated or audited. Auditing, therefore, constitutes a key success factor in process management. Organizations can only improve products or services through feedback obtained from auditing processes. Auditing requires measurable performance standards. A lack of clearly defined standards may impede progress. A process audit denotes an organization's processes to achieve stated goals through evaluation and validation (Elsmar, 2003). Processes are sub-parts of a system and, as such, process auditing forms part of the holistic auditing of an organization. It does not, however, imply that a specific process audit cannot be performed on a specific process within an organization.

The significance and necessity of appropriate business processes to manage intended change from intention to goal achievement has been stressed and discussed repeatedly in previous chapters of this study. A business process constitutes the manifestation of what managers and decision-makers in organizations do in order to achieve their mission, goals and objectives. By using business processes to guide actions, a closer alignment between intentional and operational aspects is advocated and achieved. Organizations may conceptually understand and embrace the concept of business



processes, but unless those processes are mapped out in a context of business goals, nothing has been achieved. The next section of this chapter, therefore, explores the four key success factors as proposed by Dawson's (1994) model in aligning intentional and operational processes of change management.

## **4.2 DESIGNING AND MAPPING PROCESS ACTIVITIES**

Although the origins of process design or mapping originated in 1960 in the engineering and manufacturing industry and are primarily applied through software information technology (Aguilar-Savén, 2004), researchers have established that business processes also add value to service organizations (Melão & Pidd, 2000). Due to the increasing popularity and success of business processes in organizations, a growing number of mapping and modelling techniques and tools were developed to support it. The process of selecting the appropriate technique or tools to map business processes can be daunting due to the number of techniques and tools available. Aguilar-Savén (2004) commented that business process mapping is a much-researched field but is neither structured nor classified. Phalp (1998) provided some direction in this regard by classifying process mapping techniques into two main categories: (1) *quantitative* software mapping techniques primarily applied in production organizations (e.g. flow chart technique, business process re-engineering (BPR), role interaction diagrams (RID) and mapping techniques); and (2) *descriptive or qualitative* mapping techniques and tools whose purposes are to provide information for change management in service organizations. Techniques and tools in the latter category include goal-driven business process mapping, total quality management, the integrated capability maturity model and competency approach to mapping management processes. The context of process mapping for signatories of the Brighton Declaration clearly fall into the category of descriptive or qualitative techniques and the latter three techniques will be reviewed in more detail. It must be noted that many more process mapping techniques exist but are beyond the scope of this study to provide a complete literature review on all techniques.

### **4.2.1 Goal-driven Process Mapping**

Kavakli and Loucopoulos (1999) debated the efficiency of a functional approach of managing an organization through a change process approach versus a business process approach. According to traditional practice of managing an organization,

tasks are organized along different functions or areas of work (e.g. women and sport) resulting in a silo-type of management processes. The primary reason for adopting the functional approach seemed to be achievement of maximum performance of individuals within an organization resulting in an *internal performance* rather than *integrated outward efficiency* and achievement of the organization's strategic goals and social mission (e.g. principles of the Brighton Declaration). Kavakli and Loucopoulos (1999) expressed serious concern against the functional approach of managing organizations through periods of complex change and especially when business improvement in the form of strategic and global goal achievement is a key success indicator. Implementing a functional approach tends to lock organizations in initiation/intention stages of change management as important cross-functional interdependencies are ignored. When this conclusion of the noted researchers is superimposed on the context and current impact of the Brighton Declaration it seems to reiterate the problem statement of this particular study, namely that the management of the Brighton Declaration is trapped in the beginning stages of the change management process. To counteract and improve this situation in any organization, Kavakli and Loucopoulos (1999) suggested a *goal-driven business process*. Specific processes and actions across functional management units are designed with an external strategic goal in mind (in this case institutionalizing the principles of the Brighton Declaration). Aguilar-Savén (2004) referred to this as *value-adding management practices* and equated functional silo-type management actions to the early and somewhat outdated techniques of change management. She concluded that successful change management starts with an understanding of the internal business processes of an organization needed to produce the desired external business environmental change.

The goal-driven business process (Kavakli & Loucopoulos, 1999) is appropriate for service organizations (signatories of Brighton Declaration) that demonstrate the following qualities:

- Well-identified services (*programs and projects aimed at improving the position of women in sport*) and stakeholders (*women participating in sport and women and sport organizations*).

- Goals aiming to create value to stakeholders (*accessing opportunities for women in sport*).
- Demonstration of several business activities or functions which collectively achieve defined goals and create value to internal and external stakeholders (programmes, communication networks, strategies, documenting, monitoring, training and education).
- Collaboration between and across functional and organizational boundaries (*collaboration across internal functional areas of human resources, communication, marketing, strategic management and between organization and external stakeholders such as women and sport movements and organizations*).

Goal-driven business process mapping follows an activity approach. Processes are made up of activities. Organizations, therefore, have to document the network of inter-related activities aimed at implementing envisioned changes both internally and externally across functional management areas of planning, organizing, leading, educating, monitoring and controlling. The primary goal of process mapping is to create a business environment noted for efficiency, effectiveness and internal and external stakeholder satisfaction. Kavakli and Loucopoulos, (1999) are convinced that the goal-driven business process mapping approach succeeds in doing this as it brings intentional and operational aspects closer together – the perceived challenge for the signatories of the Brighton Declaration.

#### **4.2.2 Total Quality Management**

The notion of managing quality of the processes of change constitutes a key success factor in Dawson's (1994) process model for change management and will be elaborated on later in this chapter. Organizations and groups focusing on women and sport are increasingly confronted with declarations, calls for action and position papers calling for gender equality in sport. Signatories of the Brighton Declaration, however, need specific techniques or tools to map business processes to facilitate the required change. Total Quality Management (TQM) provides one such technique to map and implement processes resulting in quality goal achievement. Total Quality Management is a philosophy of management that is driven by the constant attainment of customer and stakeholder satisfaction through the continuous improvement of all

organizational processes (Hackman & Wageman, 1995). For Robbins (1998), the implications of TQM rest in the fact that organizational leaders (managers, advocates) constantly have to rethink what they are doing and involve both internal stakeholders (e.g. employees, members of organizations and groups) and external stakeholders (e.g. women, governments) in decisions relating to specific business goals.

Total quality management as process mapping technique is driven by the following principles:

- Intense focus on internal and external customers and stakeholders;
- Concern for continuous improvement – quality can always be improved;
- Improvement in the quality of everything the organization does;
- Accurate measurement of performance against benchmarks or standards; and
- Empowerment of stakeholders and customers to identify problems and contribute to problem solving.

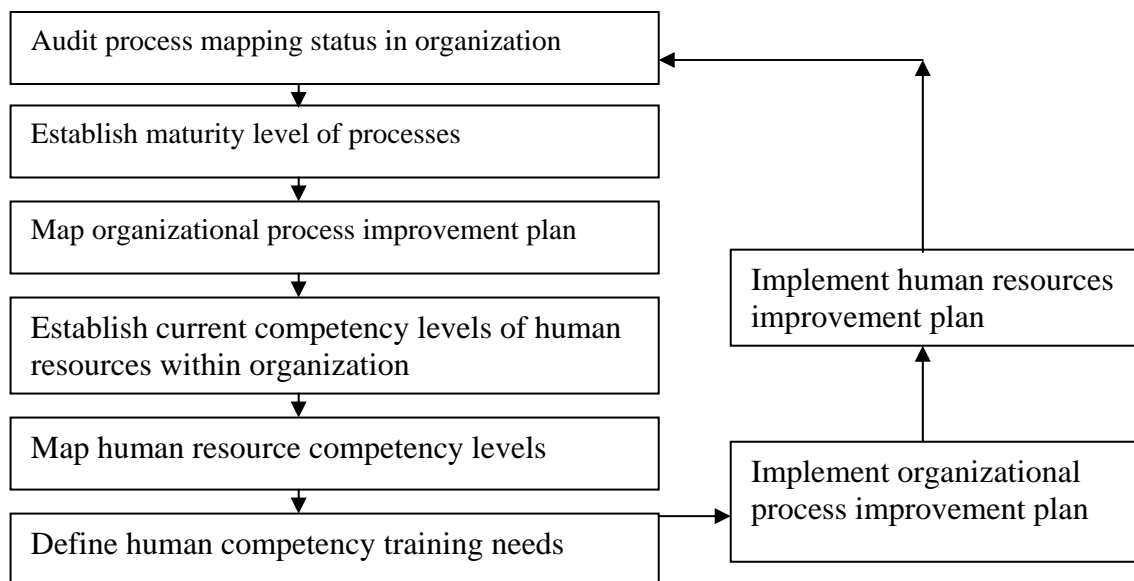
Total Quality Management supports Dawson's (1994) circular (rather than linear) approach to sustainable change in that the continuous (process) element of improvement is emphasized – *good is not good enough*. This attitude is illustrated by Sashkin and Kiser's (In Robbins, 1999) plan-do-check-act cycle. Management *plans* a change, *does* it, *checks* the results and depending on the outcome, *acts* to sustain the change or start the cycle of process improvement again with new information. The methodology of implementing total quality management as a process mapping technique has been implemented extensively widely in both service and production organizations (Perdomo-Ortiz, González-Benito & Galende, 2006). According to the latter researchers, organizations (signatories of the Brighton Declaration) are considered as centers and drivers for accumulating knowledge and capabilities related to achieving specific social missions and business goals. Accumulated knowledge and capabilities are expressed in business processes and activities. From this perspective the quality of processes within organizations is regarded as fore-runners or indicators of the quality of output and sustainable impact of change.

Total quality management, then, is constituted first by identifying management dimensions (areas of business functionality) and second by sub-processes relevant to

the particular management dimension. For signatories of the Brighton Declaration relevant management dimensions could be strategic orientation and vision, communications, education and training, programmes and projects, monitoring and control. Implications of implementing total quality management as a mapping technique for signatories of the Brighton Declaration revolves around the advantage obtained from migrating more swiftly through the planning stage of change to sustainable quality outputs of change.

#### 4.2.3 Integrated Capability Maturity Model and Competency Approach

Gillies and Howard (2003) are concerned with personal competencies within organizations to implement processes aimed at change management. Their perspective on process mapping combined the process improvement approach derived from the capability maturity model with a model of personal competence to handle process improvement. Gillies and Howard (2003) were of the opinion that in order to facilitate change within an organization, both mapping processes and ensuring people have the required capability to execute the mapped processes were required. Generating enthusiasm for change and mapping processes to guide change without equipping people with relevant competencies was a recipe for disaster. They argued that their combination model provided a mechanism for combating this situation. Figure 11 presents a graphic illustration of this integrated model for process mapping:



**Figure 11. Process mapping according to the integrated capability maturity model and competency approach (Gillies & Howard, 2003).**

The first step in this model is defined as auditing the relevancy and appropriateness of processes to organizational mission and goals. Based on the outcome of this, the process maturity level of an organization is established. Five levels of process maturity are identified:

- **Initial level of process maturity** (*organization has undefined business processes and controls*)
- **Repeatable level of process maturity** (*organization has standardized activities facilitating repeatable processes*)
- **Defined level of process maturity** (*organization monitors and improves its business processes*)
- **Managed level of process maturity** (*organization demonstrates advanced controls and feedback*)
- **Optimizing level of process maturity** (*organization uses metrics for optimization purposes*).

Depending on the level of maturity of organizational processes, improvement plans are formulated to address process gaps. The next two stages of the integrated model established and mapped competency levels of current human resources within the organization. The ideal is to coordinate human competence with process maturity levels. Five levels of human competence were equated to the five levels of process maturity:

- **Level 1: Novice** (*individual has no experience and is able to perform activities toward goal achievement only under close instruction or supervision*)
- **Level 2: Learner** (*the individual has some experience and is able to perform with minimal supervision but still requires regular instruction should a new situation arises*)
- **Level 3: Competent** (*the individual is able to perform regularly and contributes efficiently to relevant goal achievement and may need only occasional instruction*)
- **Level 4: Proficient** (*individual is skilful and knowledgeable about the particular goal and functions only with managerial supervision and is capable of leading others*)
- **Level 5: Expert** (*individual is highly skilful and requires no supervision and can act as mentor and process innovator*).

The previous two steps result in prioritized training and education programs to match process maturity level with human resource competency. In the context of signatories of the Brighton Declaration this suggests that incongruence of process maturity level and human knowledge of the Brighton Declaration could be a contributing factor in the failure of implementing the principles of the Brighton Declaration. The significance and necessity of appropriate training and education programs regarding specific business goals are stressed by both Gillies and Howard (2003) and Benner (1984). Processes alone in organizations are not enough to facilitate goal achievement. Implications of this for signatories of the Brighton Declaration are to ensure that human resources are dedicated to the implementation of the Brighton Declaration, and it is not regarded as a coincidental task of an individual. Matching process level and human resource competence creates synergy and promotes goal achievement.

#### **4.2.4. Gender Management System**

The Commonwealth Secretariat (2002) produced a series of publications on the issue of gender mainstreaming to support the realization of the MDGs by 2015. Despite a growing level of global awareness of gender issues, and despite a solid body of policies and declarations, programs and projects continued to show limited effects. A major concern was the limited concern with and reflection of gender management processes in internal organizational business environments. The Gender Management System (GMS) developed by the Commonwealth Secretariat as a set of concepts and methodologies intended to build a comprehensive network of structures, mechanisms and processes for ensuring that a gender perspective is brought to bear on development policies, plans, programs and processes. It suggests that central to the success of 'gender mainstreaming' within organizations is the creation and implementation of a gender action plan that proposes a set of strategic interventions needed to address them, with particular attention to management processes and the institutionalization of a monitoring framework to track progress and promote accountability. In order for this to occur, however, mechanisms and standards need to be developed with the capacity, commitment and political backing to champion social change across different institutions. The GMS is intended to bring about fundamental and lasting change in society as a whole, but it starts with organizational change. Internal organizational arrangements to bring this about include:

- A business unit that takes responsibility for spearheading change;

- A management team that designs management processes and standards to coordinate the implementation strategy and create a network of focal processes; and
- Other organizations supporting the same strategic intent to ensure a two-way flow of information and replication between organizations.

Organizational change requires a number of levers to ensure that it occurs. Three are identified in the context of the GMS:

- ***The awareness lever*** addressing the formal and informal norms, rules, attitudes and behaviors that institutionalize inequalities within an organization. Gender training has been the conventional route to achieve greater awareness on this front. Unless such training, however, becomes a core aspect of organizational development, rather than made up of one-off, discretionary events, it will fall short of its objectives. The awareness lever should be utilised to identify blockages to gender equity on a collective basis in the organization.
- ***The communications lever*** focusing on the timely flow of information and analysis across the system in order that all policies, processes and programs are designed to address the strategic intent relating to a gender perspective. This requires investment in building up gender expertise across an organization so that it becomes an aspect of different sectors rather than the property of a stand-alone group of gender advocates or movements required to address all the concerns.
- ***The incentives lever*** requiring a move towards performance-based standards within the organization as a part of overall building of a critical mass. Organizations are increasingly assessed on their success in achieving the goals of gender equality in their particular domain (women and sport). Gender mainstreaming requires that all performance measures are founded in standards for management processes.

The core essence of the GMS is setting integrated process management standards against which performances are measured.

### **4.3 QUALITY MANAGEMENT OF PROCESS ACTIVITIES**

Dawson (1994) recognized quality management of mapped processes as a second key success factor in his process approach to change management. The construct of



quality process management has been explored by researchers in diverse settings and industries (Harvey, 2004; Sebastianelli & Tamimi, 2003; Park, Hartley & Wilson, 2001; Ahire & Dreyfus, 2000). Process mapping and process management have an equal positive impact on internal efficiency and external quality outcomes. Ahire and Dreyfus (2000) noted that in order to attain better quality outcomes, organizations need to balance process mapping and process management efforts. Process mapping efforts are targeted toward designing processes necessary for goal achievement and involve long-term efforts in the background while process management is more visible in the foreground as it visibly influences quality of outcomes. Although the inherent design and mapping of management processes are important, organizations have to ensure consistent realization of the desired service or product. Consistency is attained through quality management of the processes.

Process quality management essentially involves identifying critical elements of business processes and improving them to ensure quality of services or products. Ahire and Dreyfus (2000) rooted process quality management in a continuing four-step process:

- Selecting key business processes necessary for delivering a service or product;
- Identifying the root causes of problems in selected processes through benchmarking against standards and proposing improvement strategies;
- Implementing corrective measures to improve business processes; and
- Measuring the improvements in the processes through continuous auditing.

Although organizations can influence external stakeholders' perceptions in the short term on quality services through visible initiatives (e.g. declarations and calls for action involving women and sport), their efforts need to be balanced with on-going quality management of internal processes. In the context of the Brighton Declaration it implies that visible declarations, calls for action and statements by high profile individuals and groups in women and sport do not guarantee quality services or programs. Internal quality process management needs to supplement and balance external visible initiatives.

Quality process management as depicted by the four-step process of Ahire and Dreyfus, (2000) is not without challenges. Sebastianelli and Tamimi (2003) noted five underlying obstacles impacting on process quality management:

- Inadequate human resources to drive business processes;
- Lack of planning for quality;
- Lack of leadership for quality;
- Inadequate resources for quality process management; and
- Lack of customer focus.

Ahire and Dreyfus (2000) specifically singled out lack of appropriate training and education as a common obstacle to process quality management – a conclusion correlating with the thoughts of Gillies and Howard (2003) on the significance and contribution of appropriately trained human resources in the mapping and managing of processes. Both Parks *et al.* (2001) and Sebastianelli and Tamimi (2003) explored the benefits of quality process management and identified customer/stakeholder satisfaction as the most significant benefit. Attaining a high level of customer satisfaction in the context of the Brighton Declaration requires more than providing high profile conferences or declarations on women and sport; it requires quality process mapping within organizations, quality strategic process management to benefit and focus on women in sport on grass roots level, quality benchmarking and information analysis by quality human resources. Proposing improvement strategies for quality process management depends on quality information relating to existing processes, levels of customer satisfaction and human resource competencies. Quality can only be determined when benchmarks for efficient performance have been established.

#### **4.4 BENCHMARKING OF PROCESS MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES**

Benchmarking of process management activities is the third key success factor in Dawson's (1994) process model of change management. The American Society for Quality (2006) defined benchmarking as the search for *best practices*, practices that will lead to superior performance of business processes. It is postulated that benchmarking is a critical component in the success of every organization. The use of the term *best practices* may be somewhat controversial in service organizations such as signatories of the Brighton Declaration as benchmarking is influenced by both

internal and external organizational factors. Although external organizational factors can be identified (e.g. ISO Standards), internal factors for example maturity levels of process management and human resource competency as discussed in section 4.3.3, will influence performance measurement processes. The researcher is of the opinion that the term *good practices* is more appropriate, no means of standardization has been achieved to determine the meaning of *best*.

The essence of benchmarking is measuring and improving performance. For Harvey (2004), improved performance indicated *repeatable* performance frameworks. Repeatable performance frameworks are only possible when organizations adopt a management strategy of benchmarking and setting standards for process management. Camp (1989) (*In Longbottom, 2000*) described benchmarking as the search for best practices that will lead to superior performance. The search for best/good practices requires identifying and mapping business processes, measuring results obtained through the mapped business processes and comparing performances across organizations. The notion of comparing requires *measurable standards* against which performances are benchmarked. Longbottom (2000) regards repeatable and sustainable superior performance as the *raison d'être* for benchmarking. It roots benchmarking in the *quality movement* initiated by Japanese corporations in industrial market sectors during the 1980s. Benchmarking of performances has a long history in process management and currently draws considerable interest from both production and service organizations (Bourne, Mills, Wilcox, Neely & Platts, 2000; Longbottom, 2000).

A number of scholars have proposed models for benchmarking (Deming, 1986, Camp, 1995; Codling, 1992, Zairi, 1996) developed from the following principles:

- Know one's organization by accurately determining strengths and weaknesses of management processes relevant to goal achievement;
- Know other organizations operating in the same field, focusing on the same goals, compare and align your performance to good practices of leaders in the field to obtain collective power and a critical mass to influence social change;
- Incorporate good practices from leaders in the field and emulate their strengths to achieve repeatable good performances; and

- Gain superiority by auditing one's own performances and incorporate the best of the good practices.

Longbottom (2000) identified four major stages and a number of critical elements that appear to be common to benchmarking models:

- **Planning** (*analyzing strengths and weaknesses of current processes, internal mapping of processes*);
- **Analysis** (*measuring internal performance of processes, comparing performance to other organizations*);
- **Implementation** (*adapting processes, setting standards*); and
- **Review** (*auditing performances against benchmarked standards, feedback of results into planning stage for continuous improvement*).

In essence, these four common stages correlate with Deming's (1986) seminal quality cycle of *plan-do-check-act*. Advocates of benchmarking regard it as a management tool for building long-term and sustainable competitive goal achievement. Harvey (2004) described benchmarking as a vehicle to change business processes, as benchmarking loads the process to be mapped or improved and takes it to its destination: sustainable competitive goal achievement.

Although benchmarking is widely recognized as a tool for process improvement there are critics challenging its methods (Longbottom, 2000). The quintessence of critique is twofold: the incremental nature of process improvement and resulting change as well as the notion of playing catch-up with best practices. Critics of benchmarking tend to propose Business Process Re-engineering (BPR) as a technique for process improvement. BPR is a radical approach aimed at erasing all previous processes and starting with a clean slate as opposed to benchmarking focusing on incremental improvements. Advocates of BPR base their arguments on the rapidly changing social and business environment making benchmarking too slow and incremental to affect sustainable change. Critics of benchmarking contend that benchmarking is not suited to western culture, as it advocates following standards rather than innovation. Cultural differences may complicate performance assessment, comparisons and transfer of processes on a global basis. Signatories of the Brighton Declaration represent a broad spectrum of cultures and should take notice of this potentially complicating factor.

Regardless of critique against benchmarking, organizations in the service industry have recognized and implemented benchmarking as a viable method for process management. Benchmarking implies measuring and comparing performances against best/good practices. A critical factor in successfully moving benchmarking through the planning to the review stage is the transfer of best/good practices across all functional units of an organization. Both Bourne, *et al.* (2000) and Longbottom (2000) advocated *standards* as viable mechanisms for repeatable and replicable performance measurement. Standards provide answers to the question “what should be measured?”

#### **4.4.1 International Standards Organization (ISO) Standards**

During the late 1970s and early 1980s general dissatisfaction with backward looking performance systems was expressed. This led to the development of new multi-dimensional performance frameworks that placed emphasis not only on financial performance but included all areas of organizational management and focused on setting standards as future looking performance mechanisms. This enabled organizations to proactively design and map business processes in all areas of organizational management (Bourne, *et al.* 2000).

In an effort to develop standards for replicable and sustainable business processes and external benchmarking, the International Standards Organization (ISO) in Geneva established the ISO 9000 standard in 1987 (Naveh & Marcus, 2005). ISO 9000 is a generic name given to a family of standards developed to provide a framework for the quality management of business processes and systems. Although the ISO standards originated in the manufacturing industry, they are employed across a wide range of organizations. In terms of ISO vocabulary, a product can refer to a physical object, software or services. According to ISO in 2004, service sectors applying ISO 9000 standards accounted by far for the highest number of organizations (International Standards Organization, 2004). Signatories of the Brighton Declaration as service organizations could, therefore, apply ISO 9000 standards to attain quality management of their business processes.

The ISO 9000 family of standards have continually evolved and have been refined over time and now include specific standards for managing business processes. ISO 9001-2000 are standards intended for benchmarking any organization that designs,

develops and provides any service. It provides a number of requirements and guidelines which an organization should implement in order to achieve customer and stakeholder satisfaction through consistent services that meet their (customers/stakeholders) expectations (International Standards Organization, 2000).

Implementing ISO 9001-2000 standards entail designing and mapping business processes according to standards and strategic intent. For some organizations it might imply considerable effort to align processes with strategic intent and, therefore, the question arises: “How will the organization benefit from implementing ISO 9001-2000 standards?” Both Naveh and Marcus (2005) as well as Terziovski, Power, and Sohal (2003) are convinced that service organizations will benefit from implementing and managing their business processes according to ISO 9001-2000 standards. Naveh and Marcus reported a considerable advantage for organizations in terms of customer and stakeholder satisfaction. At the same time, however, they warned against short-term expectations. ISO 9001-2000 standards have to be implemented and used in daily practice to attain increased performance results and to act as a quality catalyst for change. Replicable quality is the underlying foundation of ISO 9001-2000 standards; producing quality requires a longer-term vision. Over time this approach translates into overall quality management and goal achievement. Terziovski *et al.* (2003) conducted research on the longitudinal effects of ISO 9001-2000 standards on business performance. Their findings indicated improved organizational performance especially in the area of customer focus and satisfaction. The motive for adopting the ISO 9001-2000 standards as well as the maturity of quality culture in organization were, however, found to be significant predictors of the benefits derived from ISO 9001-2000. Considering that the primary focus of signatories of the Brighton Declaration is on customers/stakeholders (improving the position of women in sport), adopting ISO 9001-2000 standards could benefit organizations, provided that organizations adopt it voluntary. Customers and stakeholders of services (e.g. programs and projects to promote gender equality in sport) are becoming increasingly quality conscious. Implementing ISO 9001-2000 standards could demonstrate the organization’s commitment to quality (implementing the principles of the Brighton Declaration) and customer satisfaction as well as continuously improving quality processes.

Using the ISO 9001-2000 standards is a management strategy that managers use. The interaction between these processes as well as the inputs and outputs are the glue that hold these processes together. A quality management process is a network of processes and a process is made up of, for example, people, work, activities, tasks, records, documents, forms, resources, information, materials and equipment. Standards are set for all activities within relevant management processes in order to replicate quality output. Implementation of ISO 9001-2000 standards in a broader context could create greater homogeneity and harmonization among signatories of the Brighton Declaration thus building a critical mass so necessary for institutionalizing the principles of the Brighton Declaration. Although ISO 9001-2000 standards is advocated in this study as benchmarks for quality process management for signatories of the Brighton Declaration, the notion of standard setting for service organizations in sport is not uncommon. Chelladurai and Chang (2000) proposed a framework for analysis of quality in sport services. In their research, they recommended a segmental approach where service management processes are broken down into smaller discrete and distinct elements (standards) and the quality of management processes evaluated against these distinct elements (standards). Even though setting standards seems to be a common factor between ISO 9001-2000 and the work of the latter researchers, the primary difference rests in the consistency of the proposed standards that allows for concerted and focused efforts to build up critical mass for the envisioned social change.

Identifying relevant management processes and standards for each process are but the first steps in implementing ISO 9001-2000 standards. Auditing quality of implementation is the final requirement for continuous quality process management. Although production and service organizations can acquire ISO 9001-2000 certification through external auditing, Barnes (2000) suggested that even without certification, service organizations should utilize the ISO 9001-2000 model as a benchmark for quality services that would result in improved stakeholder and customer satisfaction and goal achievement. ISO 9001-2000 audit process quality in six management areas: (1) management process design; (2) documenting the management process; (3) implementing the management process; (4) supporting the management process; (5) monitoring and controlling the management process; and (6) improving the management process. As it is applicable to both production and service

organizations, ISO 9001-2000 standards are accepted as replicable audit instrument for the signatories of the Brighton Declaration.

#### **4.4.2 Montreal Toolkit**

The Montreal Toolkit produced as the legacy of the 2002 World Conference on Women and Sport (Montreal Toolkit, 2002) attempted to provide business process standards to organizations promoting the principles of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. Four *Tools* are offered by the Toolkit:

- Tools for Advocating Change;
- Tools for Changing Organizations, Systems and Structures;
- Tools for Individual Development; and
- Tools for Action.

Although it is presented as a management tool for organizations to create a common direction to focus different partners and groups on the same path, management guidelines on how to narrow the gap between the desired future and current operations are vague. Performance measures, performance indicators and a so-called *road map* to arrive at the desired future were suggested. The suggested road map or performance logic, however, merely states headings of functions to be performed; for example, activities, operational planning, tasks, responsibilities, timelines and resources. A significant gap between strategic intentions (improving the position of women in sport and implementing the principles of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport) and desired future outcomes (gender equality in sport) exists. *Standards* for managing processes from intent to outcome are clearly missing in the Montreal Toolkit and could be a contributing factor to the problem statement of this particular study.

Comparing the Montreal Toolkit to ISO 9001-2000 standards as discussed in section 4.4.1. suggests a higher utility of ISO 90001-2000 in addressing the problem statement of the study. ISO 9001-2000 standards bridge the gap between strategic intention and desired outcome in a homogenous replicable way.



#### 4.5 AUDITING PROCESS MANAGEMENT

Continuous auditing of the change management process activities against benchmarks and standards constitutes the fourth key success factor in quality process management (Dawson, 1994). The encompassing goal of a process audit is to collect objective evidence to permit an informed judgment about the status and effectiveness of the management processes utilized to provide a service or product. Continuous auditing allows for continual improvement of management practices and processes and make it possible to implement sharper and more pertinent programmes and projects to impact gender equality in sport. In addition, audits detect areas of non-conformity triggering corrective and preventive actions. Audit results ensure *management by fact rather than emotion* as results are objective, verifiable and should not be influenced by emotion or prejudice. The growing expectations of stakeholders and customers on signatories to deliver on the principles of the Brighton Declaration 14 years after its conception placed an increased focus on standards and the auditing of signatories' compliance and performance in this regard. Elsmar (2003) distinguished between desk audits and floor audits. The scope of a desk audit is first to determine if organizations have quality management processes in place and second, to assess compliance with standards of management processes. A floor audit assesses knowledge of employees on processes and standards.

Kanji (1998) described the scope of a quality management process audit against ISO 9000-2000 standards as either:

- **First party** auditing where organizations (signatories) internally declare that their services conform to the standards. This implies a type of self-certification and has the disadvantage that signatories may falsify compliance;
- **Second party** auditing refers to stakeholders or customers performing an audit to determine whether or not the services comply with standards; and
- **Third party** auditing takes place independently of both the organization and stakeholders by an independent body verifying compliance.

Auditing in service organizations is often regarded as negative control, yet Humphrey and Owen (2000) drew on arguments cited in Power's book on the audit society (Power in Humphrey & Owen, 2000) regarding positive aspects of auditing. Auditing,

particularly in organizations in the service industry, was increasingly pushed to the forefront by a number of contributing factors: a growth in interest in the pillars of corporate governance, an increasingly prominent role of internal control systems, the rise of quality process management and mounting pressure to decrease the gap between expectations of customers and stakeholder and capabilities of the organization.

The role and significance of auditing in the change management process and process management are evident. Change is dependent on objective reliable and valid information for decision-making on the scope and direction of change activities. Audit results enable signatories of the Brighton Declaration to be competent in the change management process rather than victims of change management, as it provides needed inputs for benchmarking and pro-active interventions. In essence, auditing determines whether or not quality process management activities and results comply with set standards and whether the set standards for process management are suitable to achieve envisioned goals.

#### **4.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

The common denominator between the work of women and sport movements and groups is to facilitate dialogue on gender issues in sport, undertake activities to bring about systematic change that leads to women's empowerment in and through sport. In this chapter, the research question has been posed if signatories as representatives of women and sport groups have the necessary business processes in place to align strategic intent with operational processes. It is postulated that the major challenge facing women and sport groups will be to translate strategic intent into measurable and replicable business process standards. Designing quality management processes and setting process standards can be the mechanism or pathway to realize strategic intent and progress signatories through the stages of change management. Designing business processes and setting standards are principally a cognitive exercise based on the theoretical framework of process management. The aim of this chapter was to explore the conceptual framework of process management through Dawson's key success factors for process management and to build a case for mapping business processes, managing quality of the processes and continuously auditing processes and outputs. The linchpin of quality process management is setting replicable standards

that can be transferred between signatories of the Brighton Declaration in order to create the needed critical mass to impact positively on women's position in sport.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the research methodology used in this investigation. Methodology can be described as the application of various methods, techniques, and principles in order to create scientifically based knowledge by means of objective methods and procedures within a particular discipline (Welman & Kruger, 1997). It can also be described as a developmental process by which problems can be solved through monitoring and fact-finding to address issues investigating relationships between variables in order to draw meaningful conclusions and contribute recommendations for further investigation (Harris, 2006). It is focused on specific ways and methods that can be applied to better understand a field and scope of study, which refers to the various methods and principles used in the general research process.

The core aim underlying the framework of this investigation is that of achieving gender mainstreaming in global and regional sport. In order to achieve this aim, a questionnaire was constructed, based on available literature and international standards (ISO 9001, 2000), which formed the theoretical basis in the description of the institutionalization of the Brighton Declaration into the management process of those organizations having signed it. The questionnaire was constructed to include a Likert-type scale and open-ended questions for additional reporting. The information obtained in both sections of the questionnaire was utilized in this empirical study.

The aims of this study were:

- To audit the perceived quality of the management processes utilized by signatories to implement the principles of the Brighton Declaration;
- To identify weaknesses/barriers in the management processes of the signatories;
- To identify perceived best/good practices of implementation followed by the signatories;

- To provide appropriate process management guidelines to signatories for implementing the Brighton Declaration to facilitate the stated principles of the Declaration.

This chapter includes a variety of aspects related to specific research methods and techniques utilized in this investigation. It includes information about the research design, sample and sampling procedure, data collection, and the administration of the questionnaires. It also provides justification for the use of specific statistical procedures in this study.

## **5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Research design has been described (Tull & Hawkins, 1993) as a specific process which is adopted in the collection and analysis of data necessary to address an issue. This investigation addresses the fact that there is no instrument available to adequately audit the quality of management processes relevant to the implementation of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport (1994). It also addresses the effectiveness of the management process as it relates to the implementation of the declaration.

The underlying design of this research is descriptive. The study was approached from a qualitative perspective, as the opinions of decision makers relative to the effectiveness of the management process have been evaluated. The trilogy of evaluation/auditing set for qualitative studies, *criteria*, *evidence* and *judgment*, have been applied in this study. Henderson and Bialeschki (1995) stated that the above three components must be present for evaluation and enlightened decision making on collected data. *Criteria* refer to standards or practices upon which something is evaluated. Developing criteria often appears to be the easiest aspect of the auditing process but, in reality, may be the most difficult. In the case of this investigation, criteria for auditing did not exist and had to be developed to collect data. *Evidence* implies data. Data are pieces of information that are collected to determine whether criteria have been met. Data in the ambit of this study are qualitative as they refer to words used to describe or explain what is perceived. The *validity* of the data depends upon the criteria that were established. Judgment implies the

determination of the value of the collected data based on the stated criteria. Judgment forms the final step of the auditing/evaluation trilogy and forms the basis for conclusion and recommendations. As this study deals with auditing management processes to facilitate the implementation of the principles of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport, formative auditing or evaluation has been used. Formative auditing implies the systematic examination of steps of components in the development and implementation of a program (Brighton Declaration).

Descriptive designs provide empirical data that are observable. Their purpose is to determine existing conditions. The designs can be further differentiated by methods such as questionnaires, interviews, observations, and other unobtrusive measures. In the context of this study, a survey approach was used qualitatively and quantitatively to determine management process quality. Follow up interviews were conducted with 10 organizations to gain additional insights into how organizations were conducting projects related to the declaration.

The procedure for drawing a sample in this investigation is based on the model developed by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002). This model includes the identification of the population, the definition of the target population, the identification of the sampling frame, the selection of the sampling procedure, the determination of the sample size, the selection of sampling elements, and the collection of data.

### **5.2.1 The population**

In general, the population available for a particular investigation is the entire group of people about whom the researcher desires to gain information (Boyce, 2002). This population can also be termed the “universe” that is available. For purposes of this study, the population or universe refers to all those organizations that could have signed on to the Brighton Declaration. They include governments, non-governmental non-profit organizations, non-governmental for-profit organizations, and any other organizations that affirm the principles involved.

### **5.2.2 Target population**

Using Boyce's definition (2002), a target population is a clearly defined group of individuals that have some characteristics, relevant to the investigation, in common. It is, therefore, important that the target population be identified accurately in order for the results to be meaningful.

The target population for this study involved all those organizations that signed on to the Brighton Declaration. The list of signatories was identified from a list compiled by the IWG (2007). This is the most accurate list available worldwide. The list has been generated since 1994 and updated annually by the Secretariat of the IWG. Those organizations that adopt the Brighton Declaration provide a self-disclosure statement to the Secretariat when the adoption becomes formal.

### **5.2.3 Sample frame**

Once the target population has been determined, Churchill and Iacobucci (2002) recommend that a list must be established that includes all those eligible to be utilized in the investigation. The sample frame consists of all those in the population that fit the profile determined by the investigator according to criteria set to limit the population.

The sampling frame that was used in this study consisted of the IWG list, which is categorized into five areas: (a) international and regional government organizations and/or coalitions; (b) international multi-sport organizations; (c) international physical education organizations and fora; (d) international and regional women and sport groups; and (e) national sports organizations.

To date, there are 246 functioning organizations, 8 less than the 254 presented on the IWG list. To ensure an accurate list, the investigator conducted a thorough perusal of the internet and contacted key stakeholders via email in each country to determine which organizations presently exist.

#### **5.2.4 Research sample**

Sampling is a technique by which the investigator can study a part of the population rather than the entire population, thereby gaining a representation that can be time-saving, cost effective, and reasonably accurate (Vincent, 2005). A sample, therefore, is inclusive and representative of the larger group.

In this investigation, the following criteria were used to specify the research sample:

- The organization had to be present on the IWG list as of April, 2007;
- The Chief Executive Officer, President, or designated individual employed in each organization served as the contact and formed the sample to be investigated;
- All existing organizations on the list were included in the study.

#### **5.2.5 Sampling procedure**

A non-random sampling process (purposeful sampling) was used to select participants for this study. The questionnaire was distributed to all 246 organizations that presently exist and had notified the IWG that they have adopted or endorsed the Brighton Declaration as of April, 2007. These organizations have been categorized by IWG in the following groups:

- International and Regional Government Organizations and/or Coalitions
- International Multi-Sport Organizations
- International Physical Education Organizations and Fora
- International and Regional Women and Sport Groups
- National Sports Organizations

Several organizations have ceased to exist since 1994. An asterisk (\*) has been placed at the end of the organization's name to indicate its cessation. The organizations included on the IWG list are:

##### **International and Regional Government Organizations or Coalitions:**

- Arab Ministers of Youth and Sport
- Caribbean Heads of Government
- Caribbean Ministers of Sport
- Commonwealth Heads of Government
- Commonwealth Ministers for Women's Affairs



- Conference of Ministers for Youth and Sport of Countries sharing French language (CONFEJES)
- Council of Europe Committee for the Development of Sport
- European Ministers of Sport
- European Sports Conference
- Sports Ministries of Southern Africa (Zone 6)
- Supreme Council for Youth and Sport in Africa

#### **International Multi-Sport Organizations:**

- Commonwealth Games Federation (CGF)
- International Olympic Committee (IOC)
- International Paralympic Committee (IPC)

#### **International Physical Education Organizations and Fora:**

- Congreso Panamericano de Educación Física (CPEF)
- European Non-Governmental Sport Organisations (ENGSO)
- Federation Internationale d'Education Physique (FIEP)
- International Council for Health and Physical Recreation Sport and Dance (ICHPER-SD)
- International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education (ICSSPE) + member organizations
- International Society for the History of Physical Education and Sport (ISHPES)
- Leisure Studies Association (LSA)
- The World Forum on Physical Activity and Sport \*

#### **International and Regional Women and Sport Groups:**

- Arab Women and Sport Association (SAAW)
- Asia Women and Sport (AWS)
- African Women in Sport Association (AWSA)
- European Women and Sport Group (EWS)
- International Association for Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women (IAPESGW)
- International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG)
- WomenSport International (WSI)

#### **International Sports Federations:**

- European Squash Federation
- Federation Aeronautique Internationale (FAI)
- International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF)
- International Archery Federation (FITA)
- International Badminton Federation (IBF)

- International Cyclists Union (UCI)
- International Federation of Netball Associations (IFNA)
- International Hockey Federation (FIH)
- International Lifesaving Federation (ILS)
- International Sailing Federation (ISF)
- International Table Tennis Federation (ITTF) + 12 national associations
- International Triathlon Union (ITU)
- International Weightlifting Federation (IWF)
- Royal Life Saving Society (ILS)
- World Squash Association (WSF)

### **National Organizations:**

#### **Africa**

- |                                |  |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Algeria                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry for Youth and Sport</li> <li>• Algerian Association for Women's Sport Development</li> </ul>   |
| Benin                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Association des Femmes Béninoises pour le Sport</li> </ul>  |
| Botswana                       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Botswana Sports Council</li> </ul>  |
| Congo                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National Olympic and Sport Committee (CNOSC)</li> </ul>   |
| Cote d'Ivoire<br>(Ivory Coast) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Comite National Olympique de Cote d'Ivoire</li> </ul>   |
| Egypt                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Supreme Council for Youth and Sport</li> <li>• Faculty of Physical Education for Girls, Alexandria</li> <li>• University Sport Society of Egyptian Women</li> </ul> |
| Gambia                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Ghana                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Women's Sports Association of Ghana</li> </ul>  |
| Lesotho                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Madagascar                     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women and Sport *</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>   |
| Mali                           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Mauritius                      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National Commission on Women and Sport</li> <li>• 16 National Sports Federations</li> </ul>   |

Morocco	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Moroccan Association of Sport &amp; Development (AMSD)</li> <li>• National Association Women Physical Activity and Sport (ANFAPS)*</li> </ul>
Namibia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li> <li>• Ministry of Land, Resettlement and Rehabilitation</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture</li> <li>• Ministry of Women's Affairs and Child Welfare</li> <li>• Namibian Sports Commission</li> <li>• National Sports Council Tertiary Institution Sport</li> <li>• Association of Namibia School Sports Union</li> <li>• 11 Regional Governors</li> </ul>
Nigeria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nigerian Association of Women in Sport</li> </ul>
Republic of Guinea	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li> </ul>
Senegal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Seychelles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Seychelles Government</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Sierra Leone	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Association of Women in Sports (SLAWS)</li> </ul>
South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Commonwealth Games Association</li> <li>• Women Sports Foundation*</li> <li>• National Department of Sport and Recreation</li> <li>• National Sports Council</li> </ul>
Swaziland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Home Affairs</li> <li>• Olympic and Commonwealth Games Association</li> <li>• National Sports Federations</li> </ul>
Uganda	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Uganda Sports Women's Association</li> </ul>
Zimbabwe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sport and Recreation Commission</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Women in Sport Foundation Zimbabwe*</li> </ul>

## **Asia and the Middle East**

- |                |  |
|----------------|--|
| Bahrain        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• General Organization for Youth and Sport</li></ul>   |
| Cambodia       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Cambodian Commission of Women and Sport</li></ul>  |
| Chinese Taipei | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul>  |
| Hong Kong      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Hong Kong Sports Development Board<br/>(presently referred to as the Hong Kong Sports Council)</li></ul>   |
| Indonesia      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li><li>• Indonesia Sports Committee</li><li>• Indonesian Association of Physical Education and Sports for Girls and Women (PERWOSI)</li></ul> |
| Japan          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Japan Association of Physical Education for Women (JAPEW)</li><li>• Japanese Association for Women in Sport (JWS)</li><li>• Japanese Olympic Committee (JOC)</li></ul>     |
| Malaysia       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li><li>• Women's Sports and Fitness Foundation</li><li>• Olympic Council of Malaysia</li></ul>  |
| Philippines    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Philippine Sports Commission</li><li>• Women's Sports Foundation</li></ul>   |
| Singapore      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Singapore Sports Council</li></ul>   |
| Syria          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• General Sports Federation</li></ul>  |

## **Europe**

- |                        |  |
|------------------------|--|
| Albania                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport</li><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul> |
| Austria                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Department of Sport</li></ul>  |
| Bosnia and Herzegovina | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Sports Association</li></ul>   |
| Bulgaria               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul>  |
| Cyprus                 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• The Cyprus National Olympic Committee</li></ul>                            |

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Cyprus Sports Organization</li> </ul>
Czech Republic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Finland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Education</li> <li>• Ministry of Culture</li> <li>• Finnish Sport Federation</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Germany	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• German Sports Federation</li> <li>• German Union of Sports and Sciences</li> <li>• National Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Iceland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Icelandic Sports Federation</li> </ul>
Ireland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li> </ul>
Israel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport</li> </ul>
Lithuania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• PE and Sport Department</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Lithuanian Women in Sport Association</li> <li>• Lithuanian Sports Congress</li> </ul>
Malta	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Malta Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Netherlands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dutch Catholic Sports Confederation</li> </ul>
Northern Ireland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sports Council for Northern Ireland</li> </ul>
Norway	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Portugal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Women and Sport Commission Departamento de Desporto</li> </ul>

- Switzerland
  - Olympic Committee
  
- Ukraine
  - Ministry of Physical Education and Sport
  
- United Kingdom
  - The Government
  - British Olympic Association
  - UK Sports Council
  - Sports Council for Scotland
  - Sports Council for Northern Ireland
  - English Sports Council\*
  - Women's Sports Foundation
  - 24 National Governing Bodies of Sport

### **North America and the Caribbean**

- Antilles
  - Olympic Committee
  
- Aruba
  - Olympic Committee
  
- Bahamas
  - Olympic Committee
  - National Sports Council
  
- Barbados
  - Olympic Committee
  
- Canada
  - Department of Heritage
  - Sport Canada
  - Canadian Association for the Advancement of Women and Sport
  - Commonwealth Games Association
  - Province of Ontario
  - Province of British Columbia
  - Province of Alberta
  
- Cuba
  - Olympic Committee
  
- Grenada
  - Government
  
- Gyana
  - Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport
  
- Jamaica
  - Olympic Committee
  
- Puerto Rico
  - Department of Recreation and Sport

- |                          |   |
|--------------------------|---|
| Trinidad and Tobago      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li> </ul>  |
| United States of America | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National Association for Girls and Women in Sport</li> <li>• Olympic Woman Project*</li> <li>• Women's Sports Foundation</li> <li>• USA Volleyball</li> <li>• USA Sailing</li> </ul> |

### **Central and South America**

- |             |  |
|-------------|--|
| Argentina   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Bolivia     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Brazil      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Chile       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Colombia    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Government</li> <li>• National Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Coldeportes</li> </ul>              |
| Ecuador     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National Olympic Committee</li> </ul>   |
| El Salvador | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Guatemala   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Honduras    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Mexico      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National Sports Commission</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Ministry of Sport</li> </ul> |
| Panama      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Paraguay    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Peru        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Uruguay     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |
| Venezuela   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>  |

## Oceania

- |                  |  |
|------------------|--|
| Australia        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Australian Sports Commission</li><li>• Sport and Recreation Ministers Council</li><li>• Standing Committee on Recreation and Sport*</li><li>• State and Territory Governments</li><li>• Olympic Committee</li><li>• Women's Sports Foundation of Western Australia*</li><li>• Womensport Australia</li></ul> |
| Cook Islands     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Cook Islands Sports and Olympic Association</li></ul>  |
| New Zealand      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Hillary Commission</li><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul>   |
| Palau            | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul>  |
| Papua New Guinea | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Papua New Guinea Sports Commission</li></ul>   |

### 5.2.6 Sample size and respondents

Sample size and number of respondents are determined by several variables, namely the type of sample, the homogeneity of the population, the cost, the energy, and the personnel available to conduct the investigation. The rate of response for questionnaires is difficult to predict. Mangione (1995) rated responses in this way:

- Over 85 % - excellent
- 70 – 85 % - very good
- 60 – 69 % - acceptable
- 50 – 59 % - barely acceptable
- Below 50 % - not acceptable

The non-random (purposeful) sample included all 246 signatories existing on April 2007. A response rate of n=125 (50.80%) was obtained and according to Mangione's (1995) rating the obtained response rate falls into the "barely acceptable" range thereby making the sample size valid.



### 5.2.7 Data collection

A number of structures can be used to design a survey. According to Thomas, Nelson and Silverman (2005), three types of structures and scales can be used: (1) open-ended; (2) partially close-ended quantitative; and (3) closed-quantitative with forced choices and unordered response choices.

For this study, the survey was constructed using a combination of forced-choice 5-point Likert-type scale response possibilities and open-ended responses. The survey had a matrix type design with statements on the left and anchored responses on the right. Each statement was scored with the most positive response receiving the highest point value. Answer categories were exclusive so that answers fell into only one category. These were systematically divided into sections. A pilot test consists of a small sample, generally five to ten (Vincent, 2005) who are similar to those who will eventually receive the survey. In this investigation, five organizations were targeted to complete the survey. They represented each of the categories of organizations designated in the questionnaire. Each was also asked if all the items were clear and understandable, particularly if those completing the survey had English as a second or third language.

#### 5.2.7.1 Research instrument

Surveys or questionnaires have advantages and disadvantages. Table 2 (adapted from Hendersen and Bialeschki, 1995) represents them:

**Table 2. Advantages and disadvantages of survey methods**

<b>ADVANTAGES</b>	<b>DISADVANTAGES</b>
Most commonly used	Obtrusive or reactive
Generally inexpensive and easy	Dependent on instrument
May allow face-to-face encounter	Misinterpretation possible
Determine existing conditions	Require training

Discovery of quantitative/qualitative relationships	Require respondent cooperation
Useful for validity checks, triangulation	Evaluator affects
Goal-attainment model applied	Highly dependent on evaluator's abilities
Use methods protocols and statistics	

An empirical investigation was conducted through the development of a questionnaire, followed by telephone interviews were selected as appropriate research instruments for this descriptive research design. A questionnaire to audit the quality of management processes relevant to the implementation of the Brighton Declaration was developed based upon the ISO 9001:2000 process oriented quality management guidelines for service organizations and the criteria proposed in the Montreal Toolkit constructed as a result of the Women and Sport Conference held in Montreal in 2002, under the auspices of the IWG.

The questionnaire was structured in two primary sections:

- **Section One: Demographics and general perceptions of signatories**

The demographics and general perceptions section sought information involving the context of the organization, the individual's job title, the awareness and familiarity with the Brighton Declaration, the overall significance of the Brighton Declaration since inception, the principle making the greatest impact in a global context, the principle making the least impact in a global context, the greatest success regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration, the identification of contributing factors to this success, the greatest challenge regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration in the organization, at which IWG world conference on women and sport was the organization represented, what three primary expectations regarding the impact of the principles during the next 5 years, and how did the organization plan to manage the expectations.

- **Section Two: Quality of process management.**

The second section of the questionnaire audited quality of process management. According to the International Standards Organization (ISO) (2000; 2004; 2006) quality of process management in service organizations are categorized in five primary dimensions:

- Design of the management process aimed at translating strategic intent into actions;
- Documenting (mapping/structuring) the management processes;
- Supporting the management processes;
- Monitoring and controlling the management process; and
- Improving the management process.

Specific standards for each of the dimensions were set to benchmark quality of performance in respective dimensions within the questionnaire (Appendix A). In general, the second section investigated how the organization designed management processes aimed at the implementation of the Brighton Declaration; how signatories map out the implementation processes by providing printed documentation about the management process of the Brighton Declaration; how each organization developed documents that were used, provided infrastructure to manage implementation, evaluated performance criteria, and provided regular audits of the Brighton Declaration in the management vernacular; how signatories managed the identification of training and awareness needs of staff, the delivery of appropriate training programs and the implementation and delivery of appropriate awareness programs as well as monitoring and controlling of the management process. The amount of involvement of top management in monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of training programs, and records on the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration and their accessibility were also investigated. Strategies to expose improvement measures and corrective actions through feedback to achieve planned results of the Brighton Declaration and best management practices regarding the monitoring of progress, main performance criteria of the management process, the dissemination of information, training programs, awareness programs, and the content of planning documents were audited. The last part of section two of the questionnaire sought to flush out good practices of implementing the principles of the Brighton Declaration.

The questionnaire included open-ended questions as well as closed questions, closed questions utilizing a 5-point Likert scale-type response. Follow-up telephone calls for six of the signatories of the Brighton Declaration included in the sample was conducted to finalize answers to the questionnaire that was not completed via email.

#### **5.2.7.2 Piloting the questionnaires**

Despite the experience of the constructor of a questionnaire, a pilot must be conducted in order to ensure that the questionnaire communicates the information appropriately and accurately to the respondent. Some questions may be vague, while others may be too specific. Some may involve words or phrases that are biases for the age group, the culture, the gender, or other grouping of individuals. Thomas *et al.* (2005) pointed out the importance of piloting a questionnaire that captures the essence of the information sought by the investigator.

A pilot study was conducted with 3 international and 2 national organizations that were similar to those on the list of signatories to test and refine the questionnaire. The objectives of the study were explained and the time taken to complete the questionnaire was noted by each respondent. The respondents were asked to comment regarding clarification of terms and concepts. These comments were considered by the investigator, and relevant changes were made prior to the dispersal of the questionnaire to the signatories.

Data stemming from the results of the pilot investigation provided a level of confidence from which data from the official investigation was gleaned. To ensure accuracy, data must be obtained through the use of measurement procedures that are valid and reliable. Validity and reliability are important when assessing any type of measuring instrument (Thomas, *et al.* 2005). It is important for the instrument to be a valid measure, as this ensures that it measures what it is intended to. For purposes of this study, reliability and validity are important constructs to consider.

### 5.2.7.3 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which empirical measures that represent a theoretical construct are accurate and stable when used for the study in several investigations (Vincent, 2005). Internal consistency was used in this study, as it required only one administration of the instrument and is reported to be the most effective (Sureschander, Rajendran & Anantharaman, 2002). Hair, Bush, and Ortinau (2002) stated that Likert-type scales are most appropriate when seeking information about multidimensional constructs such as process quality management. Constructs can be measured by an entire scale rather than just one component. Split-half tests and coefficient alpha are two popular techniques to measure internal consistency. Reliability analysis can be used to determine if items in a questionnaire are related to each other. It also enables the investigator to identify items that should be excluded from a questionnaire or factor.

The Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was used to test the reliability of the questionnaire. The coefficient alpha is a technique that can be used for determining the internal consistency of the instrument by averaging the possible ways of splitting the items and then examining the degree of relationship. The coefficient values range from 0 to 1. A questionnaire with a high reliability will have a score near 1, while a questionnaire with low reliability will have a score near zero. It is generally accepted that a score of 0.7 and above is an indication that the questionnaire is reliable. To determine this, the SPSS Version 16.0 was used to determine the inter-correlations that exist among the sets of items. Table 3 reflects the Cronbach's Alpha for each of the dimensions.

**Table 3. Reliabilities of dimensions for Brighton Declaration signatories.**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
All variables	0.978
Demographics and general perceptions	0.986
Management process design	0.976
Documenting management processes	0.957
Implementing management process	0.983

Supporting management process	0.944
Monitoring and controlling management process	0.927
Improving management process	0.925
Examples of perceived best management process practices	0.947

A reliability analysis was run on Questions 8, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, and 21. A separate reliability analysis was then done on each set of questions within each of the eight identified factors. High Cronbach's Alpha scores were obtained on the analysis for the complete set of questions, as well as the analysis for Factor 1 to Factor 8. As the Cronbach's Alpha scores are already very high, there would be no real benefit in excluding any of these questions from the questionnaire. The reliability of the questionnaire would not really improve.

#### **5.2.7.4 Validity**

The most common types of validity for questionnaires are content, construct, and criterion-related (Vincent, 2005). These will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

**Content validity** refers to the degree to which each question of the questionnaire has a logical connection with the object of interest (Boyce, 2002). In this investigation, the object of interest is the Brighton Declaration. According to Shao (2002), the content validity of each question can be established by the use of professionals or experts in the field to evaluate the scale used. As with all measurements involving judgment, content validity can be quite subjective. In this study, content validity was determined by pretesting the questionnaire with organizations similar to those who endorsed or adopted the Brighton Declaration.

**Construct validity** can be established by the degree to which the measure used corroborates a network of related hypotheses produced from a theory based on the concept (Zikmund, 2000). Construct validity questions the nature of the underlying

variables or constructs measured by the scale (Parasuraman, 1991). Because constructs are abstract in nature, they must be measured indirectly. Construct validity attempts to assess how well ideas or theories are translated into real measures. Construct validity of the questionnaire was calculated by means of a factor analysis.

Factor analysis is a statistical technique that is often used to identify underlying structures, or factors, that explain the pattern of correlations within a set of observed variables. A factor would reflect a set of variables that correlate with one another, but are largely independent from another set of variables that is combined into another factor. Factor analysis can thus be used to answer the question “What constructs are being measured”? (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

For this factor analysis, Principal Component Analysis was used as extraction method, with Varimax Rotation. Questions included in the factor analysis reflected respondents’ levels of agreement to several statements and included the series of questions in Questions 8, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21.

Eight factors were identified. The largest percentage of variance is explained by the first two factors. Factor 1 explains 56% of the variance, and Factor 2 explains 17% of the variance.

**Criterion-related validity** is related to the degree of effectiveness with which performance on a test or procedure predicts performance in a real-life situation. In criterion-related validity, a prediction is made about how the operationalization will perform based on the theory of the construct (Vincent, 2005).

#### **5.2.7.5 Administration of questionnaires**

After its construction and its piloting, questionnaires were sent out by electronic mail to 246 organizations. Initial distribution was followed up by three bi-weekly reminders, also through electronic mail. Upon request from six organizations, the questionnaires were

sent by facsimile, and 10 were mailed hard copies which were sent as registered items via the South African postal service. They were provided with an explanation of the purpose of the research as well as the criteria employed to identify the respondents.

The questionnaire included a cover letter on the University of Pretoria letterhead explaining the rationale for the investigation (Appendix C). The initial response rate after 4 weeks was 18.7 % (n = 46). In order to get a higher response rate, a follow up questionnaire was again sent to those who had not yet responded. In some cases, a telephone call was made to complete questionnaires that were returned incomplete. After 12 weeks, the response rate had risen to 50.8 % (n = 125). The questionnaires were administered over a 3-month period of time: September to November, 2007.

### **5.3 THE MEASUREMENT PROCESS**

Measurement is fundamental in any research project (Boyce, 2002). It is an integral process to determine the relationship to a defined problem and its constructs, concepts or objects of interest. The measurement process in this study consists of two development processes: the construct development (factors) and the scale development (attributes or items that contribute to the factors).

#### **5.3.1 Construct development**

Construct development involves researcher focus on identifying the properties for which the data should be collected for investigation of the research question. In this study, factors for the assessment of the Brighton Declaration were developed (Churchill, 2001). The data collection method used was a Likert-type questionnaire with several open-ended questions. An important activity in construct development is that of assessing the validity of the construct. Construct validity is an after-the-fact activity, as the researcher must create a set of scale measurements for each of the constructs and then collect data on these constructs. In order to do this, the researcher must perform statistical analysis to test for content validity.



### **5.3.2 Scale development**

According to Hair, *et al.* (2002), a variety of data types can be collected during the primary research phase. In this investigation, state-of-being (verifiable facts such as demographic data), state-of-intentions data (planned future behavior), and state-of-mind data (mental thoughts and emotional feelings) were collected. The Likert-type scale questions included state-of-mind data, while state-of-being and state-of-intentions data appeared in open-ended questions.

## **5.4 PERCEPTION SCALES USED IN THE STUDY**

Several methods are used by researchers to measure perceptions. Generally, there are three categories of scales that can be used: the semantic differential scale, the staple scale and the Likert-type scale (Vincent, 2005).

The 5-point Likert scale, which has also been referred to as the summated rating scale, was used in this investigation. Likert-type scales are relatively simple to construct and easy to administer. Signatories were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with a series of statements about a given construct such as documenting the management process.

## **5.5 DATA PROCESSING AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Data were analyzed through cross-tabulation to determine whether respondents were aware of the Brighton Declaration or not. Chi Square analysis was further used to establish if significant relationships existed between the respondents' knowledge of the Brighton Declaration and statements on different aspects of the Declaration. While such relationships can sometimes be predicted through rational deduction, it is important to test all hypotheses using statistical techniques for verification purposes, as it can contribute to a more in-depth understanding of underlying structures within and between variables. Open-ended questions were categorized according to common concepts conveyed through answers. The construct validity of the questionnaire was also calculated by means of a factor analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha score was used to establish the reliability of the questionnaire. The score for all variables was 0.978.

## **5.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the research process was detailed, including methodology used, the empirical research design, and the process by which data were measured. Justification for each part of the process was also provided. According to the model by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002), the target population was delimited and an appropriate sample frame was found. A preliminary questionnaire was developed through the use of ISO standards. The questionnaire was then piloted and relevant data were collected via a set of statistical programs, coded and analyzed. Methods to determine validity were also used. The next chapter reveals the analysis and interpretation of empirical data.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter it has been argued that ISO 9001-2000 standards are appropriate to audit quality of process management of signatories of the Brighton Declaration as it provides a valid instrument to produce replicable and repeatable processes, a necessary condition to build a critical mass for impacting positively on the position of women in sport. The research methodology underlying the results was discussed in chapter 5. In this chapter the results of the questionnaire will be presented and interpreted. Results are first presented according to the categorization of the research questionnaire (Appendix A) and then interpreted in the latter part of the chapter according to conceptual frameworks discussed in previous chapters.

Statistical analysis of data was through cross-tabulation to determine whether respondents were aware of the Brighton Declaration or not. Chi Square analysis was further used to establish if significant relationships existed between the respondents' knowledge of the Brighton Declaration and statements on different aspects of the Declaration. While such relationships can sometimes be predicted through rational deduction, it is important to test all hypotheses using statistical techniques for verification purposes, as it can contribute to a more in-depth understanding of underlying structures within and between variables. Detailed Chi Square results are presented as Appendix D to the study but only significant relationships on the 95% and 90% level of significance will be highlighted in this chapter.

#### **6.2 RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

##### **6.2.1 Section 1: General perceptions of signatories**

The aim of the first section of the questionnaire was to collect information on general perceptions of respondents in an effort to determine overall levels of awareness on the

Brighton Declaration as well as views on the potential impact of the declaration as instrument of social change within the context of women and sport.

### 6.2.1.1 Context of the signatory’s organization

Table 4 presents a profile of the 125 signatories of the Brighton Declaration who participated in the study. From this table it is clear that almost half of the respondents (47.2%) indicated that they were from an international physical education organization or forum. There were 12.8% that work for a national sports organization and 8% for international government organizations. Only one representative from an international multi-sport organization participated in the study.

**Table 4 - Context of respondent organization (n=125)**

<b>CONTEXT OF ORGANIZATION</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
International physical education organization or forum	59	47.2
National sports organization	16	12.8
International government organization	10	8
National Olympic Committee	9	7.2
National government	9	7.2
International or regional women and sport organization	7	5.6
International sports federation	5	4
State/Provincial government	5	4
National women and sport organization	4	3.2
International multi-sport organization	1	0.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

### 6.2.1.2 Job title of the respondent within the signatory organization

The larger percentage of respondents held the job title of “*President*” (21.6%), followed by 18.4% that were in an “*administrative*” position. The job title of “*secretary*” was mentioned by 14.4% and “*CEO*” by 12%. All other mentions were less than 10% each. Table 5 presents an overview of designations within the respondent organizations.

**Table 5 - Job title within the organization (n=125)**

<b>JOB TITLE WITHIN THE ORGANIZATION</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
President	27	21.6
Administrative Assistant	23	18.4
Secretary	18	14.4
CEO	15	12.0
Board Member	12	9.6
Policy Officer	9	7.2
Executive Director	5	4.0
Secretary General	5	4.0
CFO	3	2.4
Vice President	3	2.4
Executive Committee Member	2	1.6
General Secretary	2	1.6
Coordinator	1	0.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

### **6.2.1.3 Level of awareness of Brighton Declaration**

Question 3 measured the level of awareness of signatories of the Brighton Declaration as seminal declaration in the context of women and sport. According to results in Table 6 the majority of respondents (85.6%) indicated that they were aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994. The other 14.4% of respondents indicated that they were not aware of this declaration despite holding positions within organizations that were signatories on the declaration.

**Table 6 - Level of awareness of Brighton Declaration (n=125)**

<b>ARE YOU AWARE OF THE BRIGHTON DECLARATION ON WOMEN AND SPORT?</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	107	85.6
No	18	14.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

#### 6.2.1.4. Familiarity with content of Brighton Declaration

**Table 7** - Familiarity with content of Brighton Declaration (n=125)

<b>ARE YOU FAMILIAR WITH THE CONTENTS OF THE BRIGHTON DECLARATION ON WOMEN AND SPORT?</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Yes	78	62.4
No	47	37.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

Although 85.6% of respondents were **aware** of the **Brighton Declaration**, a smaller percentage (62.4%) was actually **familiar** with the contents of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994. More than a third of respondents (37.6%) were thus unfamiliar with its contents.

#### 6.2.1.5. Overall significance of the Brighton Declaration on decision-making

Respondents were asked to rate how they perceived the overall significance of the Brighton Declaration on decision-making relating to women and sport. Table 8 presents the results in this regard.

**Table 8** - Overall significance of Brighton Declaration on women and sport decision-making (n=125)

<b>OVERALL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE BRIGHTON DECLARATION IN DECISION-MAKING</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Low	85	68.0
Average	31	24.8
High	9	7.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

Respondents (68%) were of the opinion that the Brighton Declaration had a low impact on decision-making in their organizations. Only a few respondents (7.2%) believed that this declaration had a high impact on decision-making related to women and sport.

Respondents were asked to provide reasons for their answers provided in Table 9 on the significance of the Brighton Declaration on decision-making related to women and sport.

Table 9 reflects the categorization of reasons provided:

**Table 9 - Reasons for rating of Brighton Declaration’s significance (n=125)**

<b>REASONS</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Cannot comment without study	96	76.8
Not main agenda item	14	11.2
Many organizations did not incorporate women into different roles	10	8.0
Department supported BD and IWG since inception through board member support; hosted secretariat	3	2.4
Department uses BD in decision making on women and sport issues in context with other policy instruments	2	1.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

It is obvious from Table 9 above that more than three-fourths of the respondents felt unable to comment without additional study as to the rating of the significance of the Brighton Declaration since its inception in 1994. It appears that the vast majority was not familiar enough with the current global status of women and sport to determine explanations. Over 10% of the respondents declared the declaration as not part of their organizations’ primary agenda. Less than 10% perceived that women were not incorporated into various leadership roles in many organizations. Three organizations actually supported the Declaration by officially hosting the Secretariat of IWG. Two organizations utilized women and sport issues within other policy documents of the organization but did not indicate the nature or scope of these “other” policy documents.

### 6.2.1.6 Impact of principles of Brighton Declaration

Respondents were requested to indicate which of the ten principles of the Brighton Declaration made the most impact in a global context and then provide reasons for their perceptions (Tables 10 and 11).

**Table 10-** Principle making the most impact in a global context (n=125)

<b>PRINCIPLE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Cannot comment without study	76	60.8
Equity/equality	15	12.0
International cooperation	15	12.0
Developing participation	14	11.2
Hard to say which one	5	4.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

It is interesting to note that more than 60% (60.8%) of those responding were unable to identify one principle they believed made the most impact in a global context without performing additional study. No mention was made of principles involving facilities, school and junior sport, high performance sport, leadership, educational training and development, sport information and research, or resources.

**Table 11 –** Rationale for principle making the most impact in a global context (n=44)

<b>RATIONALE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Developing mass participation	18	41.0
Equity/equality plans of action developed by sport science and physical education organizations	13	29.6
Declarations where BD is referenced: Punta del Estes, Athens, Brazil, recommendations of IOC Women and Sport Commission	7	15.8
International cooperation awareness by ministers and senior officers of sport and importance of advancement of women in sport	6	13.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>100</b>

The majority of respondents (41.0%) proposed mass participation as the primary rationale for the Brighton Declaration's impact on equity/equality in sport. Parallel to the rationale of mass participation are the issues of equity/equality policies (29.6%) of organizations as



well as support generated from other declarations (15.8%) and international awareness created by politicians and advocates for women in sport (13.6%).

The same question was posed regarding their perceptions of the principle making the least impact (Tables 12 and 13).

**Table 12 – Principle making the least impact in a global context (n=125)**

<b>PRINCIPLE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Cannot comment without study	102	82.6
Facilities	16	12.8
Resources	3	2.4
Domestic and international cooperation	2	1.6
Leadership in sport	2	1.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

The same tendency as noted in Table 11 emerged from the results in Table 12. The majority of respondents (82.6%) felt unable to identify the principle making the least impact in a global context. The principle related to facilities was rated by 12.8% of respondents as the specific aspect making the least impact.

**Table 13 – Rationale for principle making the least impact in a global context (n=23)**

<b>RATIONALE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Lack of appropriate facilities for men, let alone for women	8	34.7
Lack of appropriate facilities for women	5	21.7
International/national receive, but resources do not get to local levels	3	13.3
Few international organizations create strong bonds with local/national organizations; easier to work with people you know locally	2	8.7
Few linkages made; good for statistics but none last longer than initial project or grant	2	8.7
International organizations do not know how to target some areas of world	1	4.3
Academics must be the focus of work with students and future professionals	1	4.3
20% still not attained in women's leadership representation in IOC	1	4.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 13 reflects the rationale for perceptions indicated in Table 12. A correlation between facilities as the principle making the least impact and the rationale indicated by respondents is evident. Lack of facilities for both men (34.7%) and women (21.7%) were proposed as underlying rationale for lack of impact.

#### **6.2.1.7. Impact of World Conferences on gender mainstreaming in sport**

Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on the statement that world conferences on women and sport perpetuated the academic debate on gender mainstreaming in sport and have very little impact on improving the position of women in sport at grass roots level. A majority of 42.4% of respondents had a high level of agreement with the statement that world conferences on women and sport perpetuate the academic debate on gender mainstreaming in sport and do not significantly impact the grass roots level. Equivalent percentages had an average level of agreement (28%) or low level of agreement (29.6%) with this statement.

**Table 14** - Level of agreement on impact of World Conferences on Women and Sport (n=125)

<b>LEVEL OF AGREEMENT</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Low	37	29.6
Average	35	28.0
High	53	42.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

#### **6.2.1.8 Reflection of principles of the Brighton Declaration in signatory organizations**

Respondents were tested on their perceptions if the principles of the Brighton Declaration are “*alive and well*” in their organization. In general, respondents did not feel that the principles of the Brighton Declaration were “*alive and well*” in their organization (68.8%). Just over one-fifth of the respondents (22.4%) had strong level of agreement with this statement.

**Table 15** - Principles of the Brighton Declaration are “alive and well” in signatory organizations (n=125)

<b>LEVEL OF AGREEMENT</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Low	86	68.8
Average	11	8.8
High	28	22.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### **6.2.1.9 Prominence of the Brighton Declaration**

On the question if the words *Brighton Declaration* appear prominently on policy documents and in strategic management sessions on women and sport almost all respondents (93.6%) indicated that the words “Brighton Declaration” **seldom** appeared prominently on policy documents and were generally **not** used in strategic management sessions in their organizations. Only 5.6% indicated that this is taking place to some degree.

**Table 16** - Level of agreement on the prominence of the Brighton Declaration (n=125)

<b>LEVEL OF AGREEMENT</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Low	117	93.6
Average	1	0.8
High	7	5.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

### **6.2.1.10 Greatest success of Brighton Declaration**

Question 9 of the research instrument evaluated respondents’ perceptions on the greatest successes achieved through the Brighton Declaration.

**Table 17** – Greatest success regarding implementation of Brighton Declaration in your organization (n=44)

<b>SUCCESS</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Discussions related to women’s sports participation began	25	56.8
Research initiated on women’s sport participation	10	22.7
Increased international cooperation	5	11.4
Approval of gender equality plan	3	6.8
Hosted World Conference on Women and Sport	1	2.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>100</b>

According to the results in Table 17 signatory organizations perceived the start of discussions regarding women’s sport (56.8%) as the greatest success following the implementation of the Brighton Declaration. Initiated research (22.7%) and increased international cooperation (11.4%) collectively seem to indicate that increased awareness of women’s position in sport is perceived as the greatest successes.

#### **6.2.1.11 Factors contributing to successful implementation of the Brighton Declaration**

Table 18 reflects the factors perceived to contribute to the success of the Brighton Declaration.

**Table 18** – Factors contributing to successful implementation of Brighton Declaration (n=44)

<b>FACTORS</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Increased awareness and organizational development in different countries	20	45.5
Individuals who return from international conferences bring information; introduce topics at national conferences	15	34.1
Government policies to promote women’s participation in different areas	5	11.4
Joint efforts of women and men in our organization	3	6.7
Support from senior management to host conference; cooperation between government and NGOs, political will	1	2.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>100</b>

The perceived importance of attending world conferences on women and sport (45.5%) as well as international networking (34.1%) emerged as primary factors contributing to the successful implementation of the Brighton Declaration.

#### **6.2.1.12 Greatest challenges regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration**

Table 19 presents an overview of the greatest challenges perceived by the respondents regarding the implementation of the principles of the Brighton Declaration.

**Table 19** – Greatest challenges regarding implementation of Brighton Declaration in organizations (n=125)

<b>CHALLENGES</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Frequent turnover and reorganization of senior department leaders reduces “corporate memory” of BD and its implementation	32	25.6
Encourage females to take decision making roles	26	20.8
Gender equality in general	23	18.4
More women participating	13	10.4
Lack of regular high profile opportunities to show concrete progress provides insufficient political incentive	12	9.6
Ensure implementation at all levels of organization and all levels of society	10	8.0
Motivate scholars to research topic and participate in conferences	9	7.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

Retaining corporate memory regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration is perceived as the biggest challenge (25.6%), followed by convincing and encouraging females to take leadership roles in signatory organizations (20.8%).

#### **6.2.1.13 Factors contributing to the challenges of implementation**

Table 20 on the next page presents the factors perceived to contribute to the challenges identified in Table 19. Lack of funding (60%) as primary contributing factor to the challenges of implementation can be related to the loss of corporate memory identified as major challenge in Table 19. The concern expressed regarding the profile of the Brighton

Declaration (10.4%) also relates to the general levels of awareness on the Brighton Declaration expressed in Tables 6 and 7.

**Table 20** – Factors perceived as contributing to implementation challenges of Brighton Declaration in organizations (n=125)

<b>CONTRIBUTING FACTORS</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Funding	75	60.0
BD needs higher profile domestically and internationally	13	10.4
Credibility of organizational gains and losses	12	9.6
Independent thought and democratic decision making	10	8.0
IOC and International Federations could help recreate awareness	10	8.0
Media coverage totally insufficient and unwilling to assist in implementation	5	4.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

#### **6.2.1.14 Continual representation at world conferences on women and sport**

Respondents were asked to indicate at which of four stipulated world conferences on women and sport their organizations were represented. The same percentages of respondents of just over a third each (36.8%) indicated that their organizations were present at the Brighton conference 1994 and/or the Windhoek conference 1998 and/or the Montreal conference 2002. Almost the same percentage of respondents specified that their organizations were represented at the Kumamoto conference 2006 indicating fairly equal patronage of all of these specified events.

**Table 21** - Representation at World Conferences (n=125)

<b>REPRESENTATION AT WORLD CONFERENCES</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Attended the Brighton Conference 1994	46	36.8
Attended the Windhoek Conference 1998	46	36.8
Attended the Montreal Conference 2002	46	36.8
Attended the Kumamoto Conference 2006	44	35.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

### 6.2.1.15. Primary expectations of the Brighton Declaration

Although respondents were requested to indicate three primary expectations regarding the impact of the Brighton Declaration during the next five years, all respondents listed only one primary expectation as indicated in Table 22.

**Table 22** – Primary expectations regarding impact of principles of the Brighton Declaration during next 5 years (n=125)

<b>PRIMARY EXPECTATIONS</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Nothing special	38	30.4
Equity/equality issues and actions carried out	19	15.2
Support research to know about other realities	15	12
More data available to measure progress	12	9.6
Similar developments in political arena	10	8
Communicate in languages other than English	8	6.4
Publish situation of women’s participation in different countries	6	4.8
Equal opportunity for all in education	5	4
Incorporate more females from different parts of the world	5	4
Return of quality physical education	3	2.4
UNESCO Observatory on women, sport and physical education	3	2.4
Sport ministers and senior officials reaffirm commitment to BD, agreeing to concrete actions and dedicating resources within a 5-year framework	1	0.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>

The majority of respondents (30.4%) indicated that they expect nothing special to emerge from the Brighton Declaration in the next five years yet at the same time they expect equity/equality issues to be carried out and implemented (15.2%). The issues of supportive data and research needed to implement and assess progress also emerged as an expectation.

### 6.2.1.16 Proposed management strategies

Table 23 indicates management strategies that respondents proposed to utilize to realize the primary expectations stated in Table 22 above. Forming strategic partnerships (18.3%) seem to be the most preferred strategy followed by a commitment to institute new strategic plans (16.1%). Although respondents indicated their intention to participate

in events (13.8%), it is not clear which events are referred to. It could be taken as an intention to attend world conferences as indicated in Table 21.

**Table 23 – Strategies to manage expectations in next 5 years (n=87).**

<b>STATEMENT</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Develop strategic partnerships with government officials and politicians	16	18.3
Institute new strategic plans	14	16.1
Participate in events	12	13.8
Motivate research and publication in own country	12	13.8
Advocate for a reflection of many of principles reflected in country's revised policy instrument on women in sport	9	10.3
Motivate young scholars and professors to teach and research leadership	8	9.0
Determine how to sustain movement financially, organizationally, philosophically	4	5.0
Organize events	4	5.0
Motivate young scholars to research women, sport and social change	3	3.4
Work with international agencies like UNESCO	2	2.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100</b>

Tables 4 to 23 presented the results obtained from the first section of the research questionnaire. The interpretation of these results follows in 6.3.1.

The aim of the second part (sections 2 to 8) of the research questionnaire was in essence to audit the quality of management processes of the respondents in the following dimensions:

- Management process design
- Documenting management processes
- Implementing management processes
- Supporting mechanisms to management processes
- Monitoring and controlling management processes
- Improving management processes



In the second part of the research questionnaire respondents were also requested to provide examples of good practices regarding the management of the Brighton Declaration.

### **6.2.2 Section 2: Management process design**

Eighteen standards were set for auditing quality of process design. A Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.976 indicates that results obtained in this dimension are reliable. Respondents' perceptions were analyzed in comparison to their awareness of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. It has to be noted that only 14.4% (n=18) respondents indicated that they were not aware of the Brighton Declaration. Results presented in this section therefore only reflect the perceptions of the respondents (n=107) that were aware of the declaration. Perceptions in this section were evaluated according to respondents' level of agreement with statements reflecting 18 standards on a 5-point Likert scale (totally disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, totally agree). The 5-point scale was collapsed into a 3-point scale for statistical analysis purposes (totally/somewhat disagree, neither disagree/nor agree, totally/somewhat agree). Table 24 presents results obtained from question 16 of the research questionnaire.

**Table 24 - Perceptions on quality of management process design (n=107)**

		<b>Totally/somewhat disagree</b>		<b>Neither disagree nor agree</b>		<b>Totally/somewhat agree</b>		<b>TOTAL</b>	
	<b>STATEMENT</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
241	Organization developed a specific management process to achieve the principles of the Brighton Declaration	90	84.1	13	12.1	4	3.7	107	100
24.2	Organization designed management processes in collaboration with internal stakeholders	91	85.0	12	11.2	4	3.7	107	100
24.3	Organization designed management processes in collaboration with external stakeholders	103	96.3	0	0	4	3.7	107	100
24.4	Specific person in organization has authorization to implement principles of BD	90	84.1	13	12.1	4	3.7	107	100
24.5	Specific person in organization maintains management processes relevant to BD	103	96.3	0	0	4	3.7	107	100
24.6	Specific person/section within organization regularly reviews management processes relevant to BD	102	95.3	1	0.9	4	3.7	107	100
24.7	The words “Brighton Declaration” appear in organizational planning documents and strategies	102	95.3	1	0.9	4	3.7	107	100
24.8	Organization made a public high-profile commitment to the principles of the BD	90	84.1	12	11.2	5	4.7	107	100
24.9	Organization has a management review process in place to monitor implementation of BD	103	96.3	0	0	4	3.7	107	100
24.10	Organization’s management system generates decisions and actions to improve the effectiveness of BD	103	96.3	1	0.9	3	2.8	107	100
24.11	Organization examines feedback on the implementation process of the BD	102	95.3	1	0.9	4	3.7	107	100
24.12	Organization takes regular corrective action regarding the BD based on feedback from external stakeholders	103	96.3	4	3.7	0	0	107	100
24.13	Organization has strategic sessions to plan management processes regarding	103	96.3	1	0.9	3	2.8	107	100

	implementation of BD								
24.14	Organization plans how to provide resources for implementation process of BD	102	95.3	2	1.9	3	2.8	107	100
24.15	Organization plans how to provide information for management processes relevant to implementation of BD	91	85.0	13	12.1	3	2.8	107	100
24.16	Organization plans how to monitor management process performance relevant to BD	102	95.3	2	1.9	3	2.8	107	100
24.17	Organization plans how to measure management process performance relevant to BD	102	95.3	2	1.9	3	2.8	107	100
24.18	Organization develops records to support management process of BD	101	94.4	1	0.9	5	4.7	107	100

24.1 - The greater majority of respondents (84.1%) indicated that their organization did not develop a specific management process to achieve the principles of the Brighton Declaration. There were only 3.7% that indicated that their organizations did develop such a management process. As can be expected, the four affirmative responses (3.7% of the total sample of respondents) were necessarily aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994.

24.2 - Similar percentages of agreement/disagreement as was evident in 25.2 can be seen in the results for this question. The majority of respondents (85.0%) disagreed with the statement that their organization designed this management process in collaboration with internal stakeholders. All four respondents that agreed to evidence of stakeholder collaboration were also aware of the Brighton Declaration.

24.3 - Almost all respondents (96.3%) indicated that their organization did not design a management process in collaboration with external stakeholders. There were once again only 4 respondents that indicated that they agreed with this statement. All four of these respondents were aware of the Brighton Declaration.

25.4 - More than four-fifths of the respondents (84.1%) stated that there was not a specific person or section within their organization that had the authority to implement the principles of the Brighton Declaration. 12.1% had a neutral stance or did not know of an entity within the organization responsible for implementation.

24.5 - With the exception of 4 respondents, all other respondents (96.3%) indicated that there is nobody within their organization that maintains the management process relevant to the Brighton Declaration.

24.6 - Almost the same percentage (95.3%) as the previous question on process maintenance said that there is not a specific person or section within their organization that regularly reviews the management processes relevant to the Brighton Declaration. This result is in line with other findings in this study that show that more than 90% of signatories do not publicly display, actively implement or have dedicated resources focused on the tenets of the Brighton Declaration.

24.7 – Exactly the same picture is reflected here as has previously been shown where 95.3% said that the words “Brighton Declaration” did not appear in their planning documents and strategies. There were only 4 respondents that indicated that these words did appear in the planning documents and strategies. All four of these respondents were aware of the Brighton Declaration. Within the group of respondents that were not aware of the Brighton Declarations, all disagreed with this statement. This signifies an internal consistency within the answers from this group of respondents in that those individuals not aware of the declaration also have no experience of this declaration within their organizational environments.

24.8 - The majority of 84.1% of respondents disagreed with the statement that their organization made a public high-profile commitment to the principles of the Brighton Declaration and a further 11.2% did not agree nor disagree with this statement. There were 5 respondents (4%) that agreed that their institutions made a public commitment to the principles. Once again, all respondents that agreed with the statement were aware of the Brighton Declaration.

24.9 - Almost all respondents (96.3%) felt that their organizations do not have a management review process in place to monitor the Brighton Declaration. Only 4 respondents agreed that there was indeed a management review process in place for

monitoring within their organization. Within the group of respondents that were not aware of the Declaration, there were no respondents that agreed with the presented statement.

24.10 - 2.8% of respondents agreed with the statement on their organization's management system having generated decisions and actions to improve the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration, with almost all respondents (96.3%) disagreeing. One respondent had a neutral stance.

24.11 - Respondents did not feel that their organizations examined feedback on the implementation process of the Brighton Declaration (95.3%). All of the respondents that did not know of the Brighton Declaration disagreed with this statement. Of the respondents that were aware of the declaration, only 4 agreed with the statement (3.7%) with one respondent (0.9%) having no opinion either way.

24.12 - Not one of the 107 organizations that responded agreed to regularly taking corrective action based on the views of their external stakeholders. Specifically, 96.3% indicated that their organizations do not take regular corrective action regarding the Brighton Declaration. The remaining 4 respondents (3.7%) neither agreed nor disagreed.

24.13 - It does not appear as if organizations had strategic sessions to plan management processes concerning the Brighton Declaration (96.3%).

24.14 - Plans on how to provide resources for the implementation process of the Brighton Declaration were also absent (95.3%). Only 3 respondents (2.8%) agreed with the statement, while a further 2 respondents (1.9%) neither disagreed nor agreed.

24.15 - While the majority (85.0%) felt that their organization did not have plans on how to provide information for the management process, 12.1% had a neutral stance on this subject and only 3 respondents indicated that they do have plans to provide information.

24.16 - It does not seem as if organizations planned how to monitor their management process performance relative to the Brighton Declaration (95.3% disagreed with the presented statement). Only 3 respondents (2.8%) agreed that this is taking place, with 2 respondents (1.9%) remaining neutral on the issue.

24.17 - The same percentages are reflected on the measuring of management process performance as was reflecting on the monitoring of it. The majority of 95.3% disagreed that such measuring was taking place, with only 3 respondents (2.8%) agreeing that they have seen forms of this within their institutions.

24.18 - In 94.4% of cases respondents disagreed that their organization develops records to support management processes of the Brighton Declaration. Only 5 respondents (4.7%) agreed that this was the case.

### **6.2.3 Section 3: Documenting the management process**

Six standards were set for documenting of the management process. A Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.957 indicated that results obtained in this dimension are reliable. Respondents' perceptions were again analyzed in comparison to their awareness of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. It has to be noted again that 14.4% (n=18) respondents indicated that they were not aware of the Brighton Declaration. Results presented in this section therefore only reflect the perceptions of respondents (n=107) that were aware of the declaration. Perceptions were evaluated according to respondents' level of agreement with statements reflecting 6 standards on a 5-point Likert scale (totally disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, totally agree). The 5-point scale was collapsed into a 3-point scale for statistical analysis purposes (totally/somewhat disagree, neither disagree/nor agree, totally/somewhat agree). Table 25 presents results obtained from question 17 of the research questionnaire.

**Table 25 - Perceptions on documenting the management process (n=107)**

		Totally/somewhat disagree		Neither disagree nor agree		Totally/somewhat agree		TOTAL	
STATEMENT		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
25.1	Notable change in organizational structures to implement the BD	99	92.5	1	0.9	7	6.5	107	100
25.2	Notable change in the set of values and norms of organization regarding gender mainstreaming since the signing of the BD	24	22.4	4	3.7	79	73.8	107	100
25.3	Management processes to implement BD interacts with other quality system processes in organization	96	89.7	4	3.7	8	6.5	107	100
25.4	Organization has a management manual/document describing how the BD should be implemented	104	97.2	0	0	3	2.8	107	100
25.5	This management manual/document is reviewed regularly	100	93.5	0	0	7	6.5	107	100
25.6	Clear benchmarks for process effectiveness are stated in the management manual relative the BD	104	97.2	0	0	3	2.8	107	100

25.1 - In general (92.5% of cases) respondents felt that changes in organizational structures to implement the Brighton Declaration did not take place within their organizations. There were 7 respondents (6.5%) that felt that these changes were taking place. All 7 of these respondents were aware of the Brighton Declaration.

25.2 - Contrary to the majority of the findings in this paper where little to no action has taken place as a result of the Declaration, almost three-quarters (73.8%) of respondents agreed that there has been a notable change in the set of values and norms regarding gender mainstreaming in their organization since the signing of the Brighton Declaration. One fifth (22.4%) of respondents disagreed with this statement. The majority of

respondents (73.8%) that were not aware of the Brighton Declaration agreed that changes in gender mainstreaming are taking place at their institutions.

25.3 - Results from the Chi Square test showed that a statistically significant relationship existed between respondents' awareness of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994 and their level of agreement on whether the management process to implement the Brighton Declaration interacts with other quality system processes in their organization (Degrees of freedom =2,  $p = 0.008$ ). A majority of 89.7% of respondents disagreed that management processes to implement the Brighton Declaration interacted with other quality system processes in their organization. There were only 6.5% that felt this was the case, with 3.7% neither agreeing nor disagreeing. None of the respondents that were not aware of the Brighton Declaration agreed with the presented statement.

25.4 - Almost all (97.2%) respondents disagreed that their organization had a management manual or document that described how the Brighton Declaration should be implemented. Only three (2.8%) agreed that they were aware that such a manual was present in their organizations.

25.5 - The previous result indicated 3 respondents (2.8%) that agreed that their organization had a management manual that described how the Brighton Declaration should be implemented. In response to this statement a slightly higher number of respondents ( $n=7$ ; 6.5%) indicated that such a management manual is reviewed regularly. It is possible that the additional 4 respondents were referring to management manuals in general and not in the context of the Brighton Declaration.

25.6 - Three respondents (2.8%) agreed that clear benchmarks for process effectiveness were present in the manuals relative to the Brighton Declaration. The remaining 97.2% of respondents disagreed with the presented statement.



#### 6.2.4 Section 4: Implementing the management process

Nine standards were set for implementing the management process. A Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.983 indicated that results obtained in this dimension are reliable. Respondents' perceptions were again analyzed in comparison to their awareness of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. It also has to be noted that only 14.4% (n=18) respondents indicated that they were not aware of the Brighton Declaration. Results presented in this section therefore reflect the perceptions of the n=107 respondents that were aware of the declaration. Perceptions were evaluated according to respondents' level of agreement with statements reflecting 9 standards on a 5-point Likert scale (totally disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, totally agree). The 5-point scale was collapsed into a 3-point scale for statistical analysis purposes (totally/somewhat disagree, neither disagree/nor agree, totally/somewhat agree). Table 26 presents results obtained from question 18 of the research questionnaire.

**Table 26 - Perceptions on implementing the management process (n=107)**

	STATEMENT	Totally/somewhat disagree		Neither disagree nor agree		Totally/somewhat agree		TOTAL	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
26.1	Organization develops documents that can be used to implement the management process of the BD	93	86.9	3	2.8	11	10.3	107	100
26.2	Organization provides infrastructure to manage the implementation of the BD	93	86.9	3	2.8	11	10.3	107	100
26.3	Organization ensures that top management apply the management process for the BD	93	86.9	2	1.9	12	11.2	107	100
26.4	Organization regularly evaluates performance criteria of the management system for the BD	93	86.9	1	0.9	13	12.1	107	100
26.5	Organization regularly audits the impact of the BD	93	86.9	4	3.7	10	9.3	107	100

26.6	Organization regularly commissions research on the BD	103	96.3	1	0.9	3	2.8	107	100
26.7	The term “Brighton Declaration” appears on the organization website	88	82.2	1	0.9	18	16.8	107	100
26.8	New staff members are formally familiarized with the role and value of the BD in the organization	93	86.9	1	0.9	13	12.1	107	100
26.9	The BD is mentioned in the foundation documents of the organization relative to gender mainstreaming	94	87.9	1	0.9	12	11.2	107	100

26.1. - When testing the significance of relationships by means of the Chi Square test, results are often evaluated on the 95% level of significance. The 90% level of significance can, however, still give some indication of underlying relationships between variables and thus this significance level has also been used within this study. When looking at the 90% level of significant, a statistically significant relationship is suggested between respondents’ awareness of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994 and their level of agreement that their organization developed documents that can be used to implement the management process of the Brighton Declaration (degrees of freedom =2, p =0.105). There were 86.9% of respondents that disagreed that documents that can be used to implement the management process of the Brighton Declaration were being developed by their organizations. Only 10.3% felt that these documents were being developed by their organizations, with 2.8% not agreeing nor disagreeing.

26.2. – About one-tenth of respondents (10.3%) agreed that their organizations provided infrastructure to manage the implantation of the Brighton Declaration. The majority (86.9%) disagreed with this statement. Three respondents (2.8%) were neutral on this statement.

26.3. - There was a statistically significant relationship between respondents’ awareness of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994 and their level of agreement that their organization ensures that top management apply the management process for the Brighton Declaration (degrees of freedom =2, p =0.046). While 86.9% indicated that their organization does not ensures that top management apply the management process

for the Brighton Declaration, only 11.2% indicated that this was taking place. Only 1.9% took a neutral stance on this issue.

26.4 - According to respondents (86.9% held this opinion) organizations did not regularly evaluate the performance criteria of the management system for the Brighton Declaration. Only 12.1% are in agreement that this was taking place.

26.5. - There were 9.3% of respondents that said that their organization regularly audits the impact of the Brighton Declaration. 86.9% indicated that this was not taking place, with 3.7% not agreeing nor disagreeing.

26.6. - Almost all respondents (96.3%) indicated that his or her organizations do not regularly commission research on the Brighton Declaration. Only 3 respondents (2.8%) said that such research took place on a regular basis.

26.7. - In relation to the rest of the research, there were a higher number of respondents (16.8%) that indicated that the term “Brighton Declaration” appeared on their organization’s website. A high percentage (82.2%) however still disagreed with this statement showing that little information seems to be publicly available directly from these organizations via any communication channels.

26.8. - While 86.9% disagreed that new staff members were formally familiarized with the role and value of the Brighton Declaration in their organizations, 12.1% agreed that this does take place. Only one respondent (0.9%) was unaware of such initiatives in his/her organization.

26.9. – About one-tenth of respondents (11.2%) indicated that the Brighton Declaration is mentioned in the foundation documents of their organizations relative to gender mainstreaming. The majority (87.9%), however, indicated that this is not the case.

### 6.2.5 Section 5: Supporting the management process

Three standards were set for auditing standards supporting the management process. A Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.944 indicated that results obtained in this dimension are reliable. Respondents' perceptions were again analyzed in comparison to their awareness of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. Results presented in this section therefore reflect the perceptions of the respondents (n=107) that were aware of the declaration. Perceptions were evaluated according to respondents' level of agreement with statements reflecting 3 standards on a 5-point Likert scale (totally disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, totally agree). The 5-point scale was collapsed into a 3-point scale for statistical analysis purposes (totally/somewhat disagree, neither disagree/nor agree, totally/somewhat agree). Table 27 presents results obtained from question 19 of the research questionnaire.

**Table 27 - Perceptions on standards supporting the management process (n=107)**

		Totally/somewhat disagree		Neither disagree nor agree		Totally/somewhat agree		TOTAL	
	STATEMENT	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
27.1	Organization regularly identifies the training and awareness needs of members/staff regarding the BD	100	93.5	4	3.7	3	2.8	107	100
27.2	Organization delivers appropriate training programs on how to manage the implementation of the BD	103	96.3	1	0.9	3	2.8	107	100
27.3	Organization delivers appropriate awareness programs on the BD	93	86.9	11	10.3	3	2.8	107	100

27.1. - The majority of respondents (93.5%) felt that their organization did not regularly identify the training and awareness needs of their members and staff regarding the

Brighton Declaration. 3.7% of respondents had a neutral stance to this statement while 2.8% agreed with it.

27.2. - Almost all respondents (96.3%) disagreed that their organization delivered appropriate training programs on how to manage the implementation of the Brighton Declaration.

27.3. - While 86.9% felt that their organization did not deliver appropriate awareness programs on the Brighton Declaration, 10.3% had a neutral stance and 3 respondents (2.8%) agreed that this was taking place.

#### **6.2.6 Section 6: Monitoring and controlling the management process**

Twelve standards were set for monitoring and controlling the management process. A Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.927 indicated that results obtained in this dimension are reliable. Respondents' perceptions were again analyzed in comparison to their awareness of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. Results presented in this section reflect the perceptions of respondents (n=107) that were aware of the declaration. Perceptions were evaluated according to respondents' level of agreement with statements reflecting 12 standards on a 5-point Likert scale (Totally disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, totally agree). The 5-point scale was collapsed into a 3-point scale for statistical analysis purposes (totally/somewhat disagree, neither disagree/ nor agree, totally/somewhat agree). Table 28 presents results obtained from question 20 of the research questionnaire.

**Table 28 - Perceptions on monitoring and controlling the management process (n=107)**

		Totally/somewhat disagree		Neither disagree nor agree		Totally/somewhat agree		TOTAL	
STATEMENT		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
28.1	Top management of the organization regularly mentions the importance of the BD in gender mainstreaming campaigns	92	86.0	3	2.8	12	11.2	107	100
28.2	Organization has baseline information on the status of gender mainstreaming in 1994	98	91.6	4	3.7	5	4.7	107	100
28.3	Organization has valid information on the progress of the implementation of the BD since 1994	100	93.5	0	0	7	6.5	107	100
28.4	Organization can provide reliable qualitative management process information on the implementation of the BD	101	94.4	3	2.8	3	2.8	107	100
28.5	Organization monitors the management process of the BD	100	93.5	4	3.7	3	2.8	107	100
28.6	Organization only monitors the quantitative outputs of the BD	104	97.2	0	0	3	2.8	107	100
28.7	Organization defines acceptable levels of competency for staff involved in the implementation management of the BD	98	91.6	6	5.6	3	2.8	107	100
28.8	Organization evaluates the effectiveness of training programs related to the management of the BD	104	97.2	0	0	3	2.8	107	100
28.9	Organization evaluates the effectiveness of awareness programs related to the management of the BD	99	92.5	2	1.9	6	5.6	107	100
28.10	Organization creates methods to evaluate the impact of the BD	99	92.5	2	1.9	6	5.6	107	100
28.11	Records on the effectiveness of the BD are accessible to the public	96	89.7	1	0.9	10	9.3	107	100
28.12	Records on the effectiveness of the BD are only accessible to members/staff of the organization	104	97.2	0	0	3	2.8	107	100

28.1 - The majority (86.0%) felt that the top management of their organization did not regularly mention the importance of the Brighton Declaration in gender mainstreaming campaigns. Twelve respondents (11.2%) felt that this is, however, taking place. (All twelve of these respondents were aware of the Brighton Declaration).

28.2 - Almost all respondents (91.6%) disagreed that their organization had baseline information on the status of gender mainstreaming in 1994. There were 4 (3.7%) that had a neutral or unsure stance on this and 5 respondents (4.7%) that agreed that their organizations did have baseline information on the status of gender mainstreaming at that time.

28.3 - It did not seem as if most respondents (93.5%) thought that their organizations had valid information on the progress of the implementation of the Brighton Declaration since 1994. Only 7 (6.5%) respondents agreed that their organization did have this information at hand.

28.4 - According to most respondents (94.4%), their organizations were unable to provide reliable qualitative management process information on the implementation of the Brighton Declaration. An equal percentage (3 respondents; 2.8% in each case) had a neutral opinion on this or felt that organization could provide this information.

28.5 - It seems as if in general (93.5% of respondents had this opinion) organizations did not monitor the management process of the Brighton Declaration.

28.6 - Three respondents (2.8%) agreed that their organizations only monitor the quantitative outputs of the Brighton Declaration while the majority (97.2%) indicated no monitoring.

28.7 – 91.6% of respondents indicated that their organization did not define acceptable levels of competency for staff involved in the implementation management of the Brighton Declaration. Only 2.8% agreed with this statement.

28.8 - Almost all respondents (97.25) felt that their organization did not evaluate the effectiveness of training programs related to the management of the Brighton Declaration. Only 3 respondents (2.8%) agreed with this statement

28.9 - There were 6 respondents (5.6%) that agreed that their organizations were evaluating the effectiveness of awareness programs related to the management of the Brighton Declaration. The majority of 92.5% indicated that this was not taking place.

28.10 – Similar percentages are reflected on the organization’s methods to evaluate the impact of the Brighton Declaration, where 5.6% indicated that these methods were being created and a majority of 92.5% felt that it was not taking place.

28.11 – Ten respondents (9.3%) indicated that records on the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration are accessible to the public. All 10 of these respondents were aware of the Brighton Declaration. The majority (89.7%) still felt that these records were not accessible to the public.

28.12 - Almost all respondents (97.2%) stated that records on the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration were only accessible to members or staff of their organization. As the majority also indicated that these records are not accessible to the public, one can conclude that in many cases, these records are not accessible at all.

### **6.2.7 Section 7: Improving the management process**

Two standards were set for improving the management process. A Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient of 0.925 indicated that results obtained in this dimension are reliable. Respondents’ perceptions were again analyzed in comparison to their awareness of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. Results presented in this section therefore reflect the perceptions of respondents (n=107) that were aware of the declaration. Perceptions were evaluated according to respondents’ level of agreement with statements reflecting 2 standards on a 5-point Likert scale (totally disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, totally agree). The 5-point scale was



collapsed into a 3-point scale for statistical analysis purposes (totally/somewhat disagree, neither disagree/nor agree, totally/somewhat agree). Table 29 presents results obtained from question 21 of the research questionnaire.

**Table 29** - Perceptions on standards improving the management process (n=107)

		Totally/somewhat disagree		Neither disagree nor agree		Totally/somewhat agree		TOTAL	
STATEMENT		n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
29.1	Organization has a management process improvement strategy regarding the implementation of the BD	98	91.6	6	5.6	3	2.8	107	100
29.2	Organization takes corrective action whenever feedback on management processes fail to achieve planned results regarding BD	98	91.6	6	5.6	3	2.8	107	100

29.1 - Almost all respondents (91.6%) were in disagreement with the statement on whether their organization had a management process improvement strategy regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration. Six (5.6%) neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement. Only 3 respondents (2.8%) expressed agreement that their organizations did have such a management process improvement strategy.

29.2 – Almost all respondents (91.6%) once again indicated that their organizations did not take corrective actions whenever the feedback on their management processes fails to achieve planned results on the Brighton Declaration.

### 6.2.8 Section 8: Examples of best/good management process practices

In this section respondents who indicated that they were aware of the Brighton Declaration (n=107) were requested to provide examples of best/good management practices relating to the Brighton Declaration in six areas of quality management processes:

- Monitoring progress
- Main performance criteria
- Information dissemination
- Training programs
- Awareness programs
- Content of planning documents.

**Table 30-** Best/Good practices related to monitoring progress

<b>BEST/GOOD PRACTICE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
None	50	46.7
Gather materials for IWG Progress Report for Conferences on Women in Sport	15	14.1
Monitor progress of participation figures	15	14.0
Review how awareness of BD has impacted organization	12	11.2
Encourage research in area of women's issues	6	5.6
Regular reports of member organizations and how they are implementing BD	5	4.7
Research clusters begun	4	3.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>100</b>

Respondents' inability to indicate good practices is a tendency identified in all six areas of quality management processes (Tables 30 to 35). In terms of good practices relating to monitoring progress, respondents rated gathering materials for progress reports (14.1%) and monitoring progress on participation figures (14.0%) almost equal as most important good practices.

**Table 31** – Best/good practices related to main performance criteria of the management process

<b>BEST/GOOD PRACTICE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
None	65	60.1
Inclusion of women in all activities: e.g. conference speakers, leadership	18	16.8
Organization has nothing – things done personally	14	13.8
Keep monitoring and including topic as compulsory at national/international conferences/events	8	7.4
Extensive performance criteria related to own umbrella – results-based management accountability framework, but does not focus on BD	2	1.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>100</b>

Inclusion of women in all dimensions of sport is regarded as a good practice by 16.8% of respondents. The inability of respondents to identify good practice is also evident from the statement that individuals are responsible for good practice as none could be identified on organizational level. It is interesting to note that signatories perceive the compulsory inclusion of the topic of equality in sport (7.4%) on conference agendas as good practice yet within organizations no good practices could be identified.

**Table 32** – Best/Good practices related to dissemination of information

<b>BEST/GOOD PRACTICE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
None	70	65.4
Disseminated information on importance to promote women’s participation, not directly following BD principles	16	15.0
Newsletters, bulletins, publications, cooperation with partners	12	11.2
Through IWG Progress Report, bilateral and multilateral engagements, federal/provincial and territorial activities, international initiatives, communications with domestic sport community	9	8.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 33** – Best/Good practices related to training programs

<b>BEST/GOOD PRACTICE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
None	99	93.0
Not been related to BD; promoted research issues on women	6	5.1
Integrated in all activities; theory to practice	2	1.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>100</b>

The fact that 93.0% of respondents could not identify good practice relating to training programs is alarming.

**Table 34** – Best/Good practices related to awareness programs

<b>BEST/GOOD PRACTICE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
None	89	83.2
Collection, dissemination of information, distribution of good practice	14	13.1
Pass on information related to women's participation in Spanish-not much available	4	3.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>100</b>

Respondents perceive collection, dissemination of information and distribution of good practice (13.1%) as a contribution to creating awareness yet there is a consistent inability to identify good practice (refer to Tables 30-35).

**Table 35** – Best/Good practices related to content of planning documents

<b>BEST/GOOD PRACTICE</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
None	92	86
Montreal Toolkit	6	5.6
International, national and local documents used	6	5.6
Motivating researchers and female students to participate in activities	3	2.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>100</b>

The Montreal Toolkit and international, national and local documents guiding equality in sport are equally (5.6%) perceived as good practice in terms of planning documents.

## 6.3 INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

### 6.3.1 General perceptions of signatories on the Brighton Declaration

Three primary tendencies emerged from the results presented in 6.2.1:

- The majority of respondents (85.6%) were **aware** of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport;
- A smaller percentage (62.45%), however, were **familiar** with the content of the Brighton Declaration ;
- Respondents were **not convinced** of the potential impact of the Brighton Declaration as so-called seminal work in the context of women and sport.

The Brighton Declaration established guidelines to affect social change in and through sport. This implies that managers as change agents within signatory organizations need to drive the process through the stages of change management as conceptualized in change management models (refer to chapter two in this regard) Considering that the majority (21.6%) of respondents indicated their organizational designations as “*President*”, the questions arises whether they can demonstrate competency to act as change agents in this overall lack of belief in the Brighton Declaration’s potential to improve the position of women in sport, is alarming and does not bode positively on its future impact. In her work Subrahmanian (2005) pointed out that the most significant challenge facing the desired outcome of social change efforts is translating a conceptual framework and intention into quantitative indicators and benchmarks of success. Pre-requisites for this, however, are high levels of commitment to the cause by the drivers of the desired change (change agents) coupled with corresponding competency levels and a firm belief in the potential of the social change instrument (Brighton Declaration). From the results obtained in section one of the questionnaire it seems as if these important pre-requisites are absent when presidents of organizations as representatives of the Brighton Declaration, are not convinced of its potential. The role and contribution of signatories as carriers and drivers of desired change in the position of women in sport are paramount to sustainable impact. Interpreting this result from the perspective of Orum *et al.* (1999) relative to the nested hierarchical model of social processes, substantiate this deduction. Organizations and their leaders constitute the driving force for social change on the meso-

social level. Should there be a void on this level a gap exists between the desired outcome on the macro-social level and realities on the micro social-level. The fact that after fourteen years of campaigning and advocacy very little has been accomplished in terms of the benchmarks set for success in gender equality in sport (e.g. equal media coverage, increased leadership positions of women in sport) substantiates this argument. The same common theme of commitment and competency of human resources as a prerequisite for sustainable social change is evident in the work of Dunphy, *et al.* (2007), Nworah (2005), and Armenakis and Harris (2001).

A number of scholars emphasized the significance of fusing intent with operational success in chapter 3 (Moser, 2005; Lee & Krayner, 2003; Charlton, 2002; Pettigrew & Whipp, 1992). Attending conferences on women and sport is not an indication of internal organizational commitment and capability to realize the required fusion. Charlton (2002) equated this tendency of managers and decision makers within organizations to talk about change rather than enacting change to *soft levers* of change – change processes are coated with an *elite veneer* with very little substance underneath the veneer coating. The consistent attendance (36.8% since 1994) of conferences on women and sport can, however, also be interpreted as a positive sign, as it does suggest a continual awareness of the construct of gender mainstreaming in society. The relatively high agreement (74.4%) of respondents on the statement “*There has been a notable change in the set of values and norms regarding gender mainstreaming in our organization since the signing of the Brighton Declaration*” is taken as an indication that signatories are locked in the *awareness stage* of change management. As discussed in chapter three, change management is a process and progresses through different stages. To progress from one stage to the next requires focused managerial interventions. An absence of such interventions traps organizations in the awareness stage of change management. The results from section one seem to indicate that signatories are trapped in the *awareness stage* of change management. Awareness is, of course, the first step in change management, but unless organizations move along to higher levels along the continuum of change management, the principles of the Brighton Declaration will not be realized in a sustainable manner. In this regard O’Toole and Meier (2003) cautioned against being

locked in the awareness stage of change management and regard it as a resister to change that needs to be managed. High profile world conferences, declarations and calls for action might be interpreted as superficial, cosmetic and illusionary changes in the position of women in sport unless they are backed up by replicable and repeatable management processes to impact substantially on gender equality in sport. It seems appropriate at this point to take note of Saavedra's (2006) warning that unless the so called elite veneer base and actions of a few high profile groups and or individuals at world conferences are extended to include stakeholders on the grass roots level, sustainable change in the position of women in sport will not materialize. Bursts of energy at world conferences will not affect sustainable change in the position of women in sport.

Although the majority of respondents (85.6%) indicated an awareness of the Brighton Declaration, an alarming inability to pinpoint specific principles of the declaration having the most/least impact in a global context, became evident. This inability might suggest a lack of focus of signatories on implementing the ten principles of the Brighton Declaration. The fact that a considerable number of signatories (30.4%) do not expect anything special flowing from the Brighton Declaration is indicative of this lack of focus. Signatories' intention to develop strategic partnerships with government institutions and politicians is praiseworthy, but unless it is substantiated by quality management processes to guide strategic partnerships, it will sadly remain an intention. This particular lack of expectations flowing from the Brighton Declaration coupled with signatories' inability to identify specific principles of the declaration impacting the most and least in a global sport context, can turn into pitfalls of intended change as posited by O'Toole and Meier (2003). A sense of futility is detected from signatories' apathy towards implementation of particular principles of the declaration as well as the overwhelming perception (93.6%) of the low level of prominence of the Brighton Declaration.

In the next section results reflecting the quality of signatories' management processes will be interpreted.

### **6.3.2 Quality of management processes**

In a way, results reported on in 6.2.1, pre-empted the results recorded in 6.2.2. to 6.2.8. From the collective results on quality of management processes it became apparent that signatories of the Brighton Declaration demonstrated a serious lack of awareness and competency to fuse the emotion of the social mission with concrete management processes. In this regard Lee and Krayner (2003) directly stated that desired change has to be organized and structured and its sustainable success is dependent on relevant management processes and standards. Signatories of the Brighton Declaration are undoubtedly lacking *organized change*. The perceptions of signatories that nothing special is expected to spawn from the Brighton Declaration in the immediate future (next 5 years) is indicative of this serious lack of organized change.

Collective results recorded on the quality of management processes utilized by the Brighton Declaration signatories will be interpreted according to five primary conceptual concerns:

- Building a critical mass
- Role of signatories as change agents
- Stage of change
- Quality of management processes
- Leadership competencies of signatories to drive change

#### **6.3.2.1 Building a critical mass**

The Brighton Declaration is labeled as the seminal document aimed at positively changing the position of women in sport. Fundamentally the Brighton Declaration aims to act as a change agent in a sport context by attempting to create organizational changes within signatories of the Declaration. The desired change in terms of the position of women in sport will only materialize when a critical mass is achieved to tip the scale in the direction of gender equality. Building a critical mass is dependant on replicable collective results of signatories. Replicable collective results, in turn, rest on quality management processes to collectively guide all signatories from the current position to



the desired position. According to Orum *et al.* (1999) obtaining a critical mass distinguishes a loose collection of individuals or organizations from a focused social movement. When the obtained results in all five dimensions of management processes (Tables 25 to 30) are benchmarked against Alvord's *et al.* (2002) criterion of combining management skills and knowledge to achieve social missions (realizing the principles of the Brighton Declaration), it becomes evident that signatories are not particularly successful in creating the required critical mass. Building a shared vision as proposed by Senge (1990) also contributes to creating a critical mass given organizations can produce replicable and repeatable results – a condition lacking in the signatories' management processes when taking into account the inability of signatories to identify good practices related to the implementation of the Brighton Declaration. Creating a critical mass implies promoting the Brighton Declaration publicly and visibly at all levels of the organization. When considering the absence of the actual words “Brighton Declaration” on organizational planning documents (95.3%) and a lack of public high-profile commitment (84.1%) by signatories to the declaration outside of regular world conferences (84.1%) the potential of critical mass building for gender equality in sport becomes doubtful. The potential for critical mass building diminishes even more when only 7.2% of signatories of the Brighton Declaration are convinced that it has a high impact on decision-making related to women and sport. It became evident that signatories do not have management information on the impact of the principles readily available when the majority indicated that they cannot comment on impact without further study and did not have any baseline information available to benchmark impact against. It does, however, seem that some signatories (18.3%) realized the importance of creating a critical mass as pre-requisite for sustained improvement in the position of women in sport when considering their intention to develop strategic partnerships with external stakeholders and role players.

#### **6.3.2.2 Role of signatories as change agents**

The Brighton Declaration as a document as well as signatories of the declaration can be regarded as instruments or agents of social change. The actual declaration was the instigating catalyst in 1994 and the respective signatories had to drive the change process

and assume responsibility for managing change activities. The strategic importance of organizations as change agents is emphasized by numerous scholars as discussed in chapter three of this study. The common theme running through the work of these scholars is the organized and structured way in which change agents have to approach change. Signatories of the Brighton Declaration as agents of social change drive change and act as conduits between grass roots level stakeholders (girls and women participating in sport) and high profile individuals and groups (e.g. “*elite veneer*”, world conferences). Signatories as agents of change facilitate progression through the respective stages of change by implementing appropriate management processes. Collective results on the quality of management processes (Tables 24 to 30) clearly indicated an ignorance of appropriate management processes. Dunphy, *et al.* (2007) specifically refer to the importance of change agents to consult with and involve internal as well as external stakeholders in the design of appropriate management processes. Results, however, indicated that 85.0% and 96.3%, respectively, of the signatories did not consult with either internal or external stakeholders, thereby creating the dangerous myopic type of thinking identified by O’Toole and Meier (2003) as non-conducive to change. Collective results seem to illustrate the inherent paradox of change: signatories want to change the position of women in sport but few are competent and willing enough to manage it according to replicable management processes. Dees (2001) rightly stated that a core challenge facing change agents (especially in a social context) seems to be integrating the passion of a social mission (improving the position of women in sport) with business-like disciplines, processes and techniques commonly associated with business enterprises. Poor and unstructured change implemented by social change agents poisons attitudes toward change and that, according to Worley and Vick (2005), is worse than not implementing change at all.

### **6.3.2.3 Stage of change**

It became abundantly clear that signatories are locked in the initial awareness stage of change management due to an almost total absence of quality management processes to drive the process. A significant gap exists between strategic intentions of signatories advocated on high profile international platforms like world conferences and the desired

outcomes of the principles of the Brighton Declaration. The absence of management processes benchmarked against replicable standards is undeniably restraining the sustainable implementation of the principles of the Brighton Declaration. Common to all the change management models discussed in chapter 3 of this study is the issue of moving through stages of change and active planned managerial intervention in the form of management processes to facilitate, institutionalize and internalize desired change. According to the change management continuum model of the United States Army (2003) failure to institutionalize quality management processes will trap the stated social vision of the Brighton Declaration in the introductory stages of change management. This statement is without a doubt illustrated by the collective findings on quality of management processes in this study. A disturbing reality that contributes to the inability to progress to higher levels of change management centers is the finding that only 2.8% of signatories regularly review their implementation strategies and take corrective action if required. This could be an indication that the majority of signatories are not even aware that they are trapped in the introductory stages of change management.

#### **6.3.2.4 Quality of management processes**

The fundamental concern underlying this study is the quality of management processes employed by signatories of the Brighton Declaration. Scholars (Moser, 2005; Gilmore, Pool & Charvat, 2002; Jacobs, 2002) extensively labored the importance of a solid management process framework to transform the social mission into desired change. Quality of management processes is benchmarked against standards set for management design, mapping, implementing, supporting and monitoring. Without these standards, signatories' efforts to implement the principles of the Brighton Declaration become superficial. A consistent picture of lack of a solid management process framework emerged from the results captured in Tables 25 to 30. Signatories collectively scored extremely low on all the standards set for quality management processes. It is evident that signatories demonstrated a serious lack of management skills and knowledge when it comes to planning, organizing, leading and controlling the implementation of the principles of the Brighton Declaration. It can be argued that signatories of the Brighton Declaration are primarily service organizations and therefore are not subject to setting

standards for quality management processes. This attitude, though, holds inherent danger for the potential impact of the Brighton Declaration as a substantial body of evidence (Harvey, 2004, Sebastianelli & Tamimi, 2003; Park et al., 2001; Ahire & Dreyfus, 2000) exists on the relevance of management process standards (especially ISO 9001-2000) in service organizations. Fundamental key performance indicators for quality management processes leading to competitive advantage and goal achievement are repeatability and transferability of results. This is only achievable when signatories have value-adding management standards in place. In earlier chapters social change has been defined as significant change in attitudes, behaviors, practices and conditions over time (Neubeck & Glasberg, 2005). The notion of change over time necessitates a framework of management process standards to provide benchmarks and levers for change. Unfortunately, the collective results obtained from this study revealed a total absence of management process standards. Although signatories can influence external stakeholders' perceptions in the short term through declarations and calls for action on women and sport, efforts need to be supported and balanced with internal quality process management and standards. The essence of benchmarking against management process standards is measuring and improving performance over time. Harvey (2004) equated improved performance to repeatable performance frameworks based on measurable standards. This obviously involves regular monitoring of progress through commissioned research projects, auditing of management performance criteria, and evaluating the impact of the Brighton Declaration. Again signatories demonstrated alarmingly low agreements on the necessity and significance of these standards: commissioned research projects (2.8%); auditing of management performance criteria (12.1%) and evaluating impact (9.3%). Ignorance of the necessity of regular auditing results in the dangerous situation of management by emotion rather than fact. Signatories should pay serious attention to this in view of growing expectations of stakeholders on the grass roots level to deliver on the principles of the Brighton Declaration 14 years after their conception. Both Bourne, *et al.* (2000) and Longbottom (2000) advocated the importance of transferring performances between organizations focusing on a collective mission to create the required critical mass necessary for sustainable social change. Signatories lacking management process standards lose the advantage of a long-term vision, building

critical mass, creating internal synergy between management processes as well as creating homogeneity and harmony among all signatories. Collective results on the quality of management processes exposed a significant gap between the desired future and current management processes, procedures and actions – a scenario not conducive to implementing the principles of the Brighton Declaration.

### **6.3.2.5 Leadership competencies of signatories**

Competency of internal and external human resources responsible for implementation of the principles of the Brighton Declaration is fundamental to the sustained success of management efforts (Sebastianelli & Tamimi, 2003; Gillies & Howard, 2003; Parks, *et al.*, 2000). Gillies & Howard (2003) specifically referred to the synergy between maturity level of management processes and competency levels of human resources within the organization. Obtained results again signaled grave ignorance about the importance of competent human resources to drive the implementation process from intent to action. Only 2.8% of signatories required some level of competency and awareness of staff involved in the implementation management of the declaration as well as evaluating the effectiveness of human resources training programs related to the declaration. The same tendency was echoed through signatories' almost non-existent (2.8%) efforts regarding corrective actions to improve management processes (including training programs) and the absence of specific persons within organizations authorized and mandated to manage the implementation of the declaration (3.7%). These particular findings were not unexpected given signatories' relative unfamiliarity (37.6%) with the contents of the Brighton Declaration. When these results are interpreted further in the context of Sebastianelli & Tamimi's (2003) underlying obstacles to quality process management and Gillies and Howard's (2003) integrated capability maturity and competency approach, it becomes abundantly clear that in terms of maturity level of management processes, signatories collectively can be categorized in the initial level of process maturity due to their undefined management processes. It is debatable if the current leadership competencies within signatory organizations should be categorized on level 1 or 2 of competency. The fact that substantial ignorance of management processes was recorded together with an absence of readily available management information and no

human resources were dedicated to specifically manage the implementation of the Brighton Declaration seem to favor categorization on level 1 of Gillies & Howard's (1992) scale. The seriousness of these findings is compounded when taking into account that 47.2% of the responding signatories are international physical education organizations or forums. Building a critical mass for achieving positive change in the position of women in sport becomes increasingly difficult without leadership competent in management processes. The major challenge (25.6%) signatories identified regarding frequent turnover of leadership and the subsequent loss of corporate memory in terms of the Brighton Declaration without a doubt also contributes to the dilemma of low levels of leadership competency.

#### **6.4. BEST/GOOD PRACTICES OF SIGNATORIES**

The fact that the majority of signatories were unable to identify examples of good practices relating to monitoring progress (46.7%), main performance criteria (60.1%), dissemination of information (65.4%), training programs (93.0%), awareness programs (83.2%) and content of planning documents (86.0%) is understandable in the context of the collective results. Signatories do not have management processes in place and can, therefore, not identify good practices associated with it. The consequences of this unfortunate situation are mirrored in the lack of progress in terms of achieving the social vision of the Brighton Declaration.

#### **6.5. CHAPTER CONCLUSION**

In this chapter the findings of the study were first presented and then interpreted. From the collective results on quality of management processes it became apparent that signatories of the Brighton Declaration demonstrated a serious lack of awareness and competency to fuse the emotion of the social mission with concrete management processes. The study will be concluded in the following chapter with conclusions and recommendations based upon the results presented in this chapter.

# CHAPTER SEVEN

## CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter one it was postulated that the development of gender equality and equity programs and proactive work aimed at addressing historical imbalances of women in all sectors of society, have become the staple of most international meetings with a concern for human rights. From a sport perspective, a number of organizations are keeping this critical issue alive at global, regional, and national levels. The Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport signed by 250 signatories shaped future initiatives in this regard and provided women in sport with an important peg for gender mainstreaming in sport. Yet, despite years of campaigning and numerous policy documents, legislation and world conferences on women and sport, a marked gender imbalance in sport still persists. The research question for this study was formulated as:

*Do signatories of the Brighton Declaration have appropriate management processes and standards in place to translate the principles of the declaration into sustainable practice?*

Flowing from this research question, two hypotheses were stated:

*H0: The quality of management processes followed by signatories of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport (1994) to achieve the principles of the stated declaration is satisfactory.*

*H1: The quality of management processes followed by signatories of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport (1994) to achieve the principles of the stated declaration is unsatisfactory.*

A research questionnaire based on ISO 9001-2000 standards for quality management processes was administered to all 246 signatory organizations that still exist. An

overall reliability analysis recorded a collective Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.978 for the research instrument. Acceptable Cronbach's Alphas were also recorded in all eight dimensions of the research instrument (refer to chapter five for details). Results are, therefore, reliable and conclusions and recommendations flowing from the results are also reliable.

In chapter one, the aims of the study were:

- To audit the perceived quality of management processes of the signatories of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994;
- To identify weaknesses and barriers in the management processes of signatories;
- To identify perceived best/good practices relating to management processes;
- To provide appropriate managerial guidelines to signatories to facilitate implementation of the principles of the declaration.

Conclusions and recommendations will, therefore, be presented according to the above four aims.

## **7.2 CONCLUSIONS**

It can be concluded from the overall results of the study that H1 was confirmed: *The quality of management processes followed by signatories of the Brighton Declaration on Women and sport (1994) to achieve the principles of the stated declaration is unsatisfactory.*

The confirmation of H1 is substantiated by the conclusions below.

### **7.2.1 Perceived quality of management processes**

- The position of women in sport represents a significant issue within the broader context of gender equality in society and deserves continual focused attention from all stakeholders.
- In essence, the Brighton Declaration is an initiative to affect social change in the context of sport as it aims to improve the position of women in sport. Efforts to achieve the desired social change have to be managed and benchmarked according



to change management models and processes to retain credibility and attain replicable and repeatable results.

- The ISO 9001-2000 is a reliable instrument to determine quality of management processes of signatories. Acceptable levels ( $\geq 0.08$ ) of Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were recorded in all eight dimensions of the research questionnaire. Results are, therefore, reliable and can serve as rationale for conclusions, recommendations and managerial guidelines presented below.
- Signatories have not institutionalized gender mainstreaming efforts in a sport context. Collective results on quality of management processes provided empirical evidence that signatories of the Brighton Declaration demonstrated a serious lack of awareness and competency to fuse the emotion of the social mission with concrete management processes. The majority of signatories demonstrated no evidence of a solid framework for quality management processes. Within the context of this investigation, the majority of governmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, and professional organizations simply did not institutionalize management processes to manage and guide the impact of the Brighton Declaration. This lack of management processes confirms Moser's (2005) concern that the ultimate test as to whether or not organizations succeed in institutionalizing gender mainstreaming efforts is the presence and implementation of appropriate managerial processes.
- The same serious lack of management processes was noted in relation to the non-compliance to standards set for the specific areas of management process design, documenting management processes, implementing management processes, supporting the management process, monitoring and controlling management processes, and improving management processes. In all of the above areas of management processes only 4 (2.8%) respondents indicated that they managed the implementation of the Brighton Declaration according to the standards set for quality process management. From this finding it is concluded that signatories demonstrated a serious lack of understanding of management skills and processes.

- The lack of management skills and knowledge about management process design and implementation results in a significant gap between strategic intent of the Brighton Declaration and the reality of implementation because of the absence of quality management processes that may act as a roadmap to guide signatories from the current reality to the desired future.
- Although the Brighton Declaration is regarded and promoted as the seminal document in the efforts to achieve gender equality in sport, a substantial number of signatories (37.6%) were not familiar with the contents and principles of the Brighton Declaration and subsequently 68.0% of the signatories rated the overall significance of this seminal declaration as low.
- Signatories lack organized change, as they do not have particular expectations regarding the impact of the principles of the Brighton Declaration over the next five years.
- The majority of signatories agreed that world conferences on women and sport perpetuated the academic debate on gender mainstreaming in sport while having very little impact on improving the real position of women in sport on grass roots level. This leads to the conclusion that the issue of gender mainstreaming in sport feeds on emotion rather than replicable management processes. World conferences are showcases for the elite veneer in the women in sport movement where bursts of emotional support are regarded as sufficient to drive the gender equality in sport agenda.
- The Brighton Declaration will not impact substantially on achieving gender equality in sport, as signatories have not succeeded in creating the critical mass necessary to tip the scale in the direction of gender equality.
- Signatories of the Brighton Declaration lack clout as change agents primarily because of their inability and/or unwillingness to consult with either external or internal stakeholders on the issue of women in sport.

- Signatories of the Brighton Declaration are locked into the introductory stages of change management because of the lack of organized change as reflected by the absence of value-adding management processes. Signatories do not understand the change management process and appear to approach it from a hit or miss perspective mainly at high profile events like world conferences. The small number of signatories that perceived the collection and dissemination of information on the Brighton Declaration and emphasized declarations and calls for action as examples of good practice substantiates this conclusion. The plethora of declarations and calls for action on international and regional levels provides additional corroboration for this conclusion. It is further concluded that the majority of signatories are oblivious to this situation because of the absence of regular feedback and corrective actions in their management processes.
- Signatories demonstrated an alarming lack of management information upon which to base management decisions regarding the position of women in sport. The lack of management information can be attributed to the wide-spread absence of monitoring standards in signatory organizations.
- Signatories do not have management standards in place to benchmark management performances against and guarantee replicable performances between organizations. It is concluded that this results in losing the advantage of a long-term vision, creating critical mass as well as internal synergy between management processes.
- Signatories seriously lack competent leadership to implement the principles of the Brighton Declaration because of the absence of dedicated human resources responsible for managing the implementation process. Low levels of competent leadership are attributed to a frequent turnover of leadership in signatory organizations with a resulting loss of corporate memory regarding the principles of the Brighton Declaration.

### **7.2.2. Weaknesses/barriers in the management processes of signatories**

The primary weakness in the management processes of signatories is the almost total absence of quality management processes. Specific weaknesses or barriers that should be highlighted include:

- Misalignment of strategic intent with actions because of the absence of quality management processes to translate intent into actions;
- Absence of a long-term vision and commitment to the potential impact of the Brighton Declaration to improve the position of women in sport;
- Serious lack of management information to propel signatories to higher stages of the change management process;
- Lack of understanding and knowledge of the significance of quality management processes as leverage to realize the principles of the Brighton Declaration;
- Lack of corporate memory regarding the significance and content of the Brighton Declaration;
- Low levels of leadership competence regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration;
- Absence of standards against which to benchmark performance of management processes and to generate replicable results;
- Low perceptions of the importance of the Brighton Declaration as a seminal document in the context of women and sport; and
- Inability to create a critical mass across signatories to impact the issue of women and sport.

### **7.2.3. Best/good practices of signatories regarding implementation**

Gilmore, Pool and Charvat (2002) declared the ultimate best practice in social change governance is to manage the desired change by means of quality management processes. The majority of respondents, however, were unable to identify any good practice regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration – as was expected because of the almost total absence of management processes. Perceived best practices that were, however, identified by the signatories primarily focused on:

- Collecting and disseminating information on the position of women in sport;
- Utilizing the Montreal Toolkit as a guiding document; and

- Referring to other declarations and calls for actions to advocate improvement in the position of women in sport.

### **7.3. RECOMMENDATIONS AND MANAGERIAL GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION**

In line with the aims of this study the following managerial guidelines are proposed to facilitate effective implementation of the principles of the Brighton Declaration:

- Signatories, together with stakeholders at all levels, should *revisit the significance* of the seminal Brighton Declaration as well as subsequent declarations and relevant documents since 1994.
- In order to retain credibility, managerial focus and build critical mass, signatories as well as the broader base of stakeholders, need to consolidate the myriad of intentions on women and sport into one *Universal Declaration on Women and Sport* that could serve as a nexus for all efforts to improve the position of women in sport. This universal declaration should collectively be emphasized, revisited and audited at world conferences rather than producing reiterating declarations and calls for action at each conference.
- As social entrepreneurs and representatives of social movements, signatories should adopt a *managerial approach* to the implementation of the Brighton Declaration rather than a social philanthropic awareness approach to move forward. A managerial approach combines the passion of a social mission with managerial structure, discipline, continuous innovation, adaptation, learning and determination – an approach necessary to accomplish social purposes and missions in modern times.
- The underlying principle of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport is gender mainstreaming. A number of *managerial models, tools and techniques* underpin effective mainstreaming strategy. Signatories should take cognizance of such available models and techniques and select and implement those appropriate within their respective cultural and social contexts.

- Within the context of this investigation the majority of signatories simply did not institutionalize procedures for assessing the holistic impact of the Brighton Declaration. *Rigorous and regular auditing* of not only the so-called end impact (e.g. media coverage of women's sport, number of women in leadership positions) but also the transformation process (management processes) needs to be audited by each signatory. Evaluating management processes is particularly important when developing critical mass, as it provides replicable and repeatable benchmarks.
- Signatories should design and map internal management processes according to *ISO 9001-2000 standards* for quality management processes. ISO 9001-2000 standards are applicable to service organizations striving to translate social missions into quality management processes that will contribute to gender equality in sport. These standards could be the *trim tab* to leverage the management processes of signatories.
- World conferences should include workshops on the significance of benchmarking and standards for quality management processes to introduce and reinforce the concept and magnitude of organizing and managing desired change. The Montreal Toolkit could be used as a starting point, as some signatories seem to be familiar with this particular document. The weak point of the Montreal Toolkit, though, is the lack of management process standards to benchmark management performance against.

#### **7.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

The findings of this investigation raised several questions regarding the management of gender mainstreaming in sport and presented the following additional research opportunities:

- Investigate possible performance management systems in order to refine or supplement the recommended ISO 9001-2000 standards for quality management processes;

- Probe the effectiveness of workshops and seminars for leadership in women and sport based on management science and advocacy leading to policy development;
- Probe the effectiveness of world conferences on women and sport;
- Longitudinally audit quality management processes at international and regional levels;
- Probe the possibility of formulating a *Universal Declaration on Women and Sport* to accelerate critical mass building;
- Develop the Montreal Toolkit through collective input of a broad spectrum of internal and external stakeholders; and
- Probe the feasibility of use of the DVM in the change process for organizations.

## **7.5 FINAL STUDY CONCLUSION**

This study attempted to audit the quality of management processes and provided baseline information on the quality of management processes applied by signatories of the Brighton Declaration. It has to be stressed again that this investigation was approached from a management perspective and does not claim to evaluate the social impact of the Brighton Declaration in any way.

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# APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

### RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE AND DECLARATION

#### BRIGHTON DECLARATION ON WOMEN AND SPORT: MANAGEMENT AUDIT OF PROCESS QUALITY

Your organization is one of the signatories of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport (1994). Thirteen years after its release, an analysis of its implementation is being undertaken. Attached to this questionnaire is a copy of the original declaration's scope, aims and principles

The aims of this questionnaire are to determine general perceptions relative to the impact of the Brighton Declaration on the position of women in sport as well as the **quality of management processes** implemented by signatories of the Brighton Declaration. Please complete this questionnaire without providing your own name or that of your organization. Your anonymity is guaranteed, and results will only be reported on collectively.

Please provide your answers to the questions in the manner relevant to each question, e.g. a short description or explanation or by marking the appropriate box with an X.

Your willingness to complete this questionnaire is sincerely appreciated.

#### SECTION 1: GENERAL PERCEPTIONS

1. Please indicate the CONTEXT of your organization – **CHOOSE ONLY ONE:**

International multi-sport organization (e.g., IPC, IOC, CGF)	1
International government organization (e.g., CONFEJES, CHG)	2
International physical education organization or forum (e.g., CPEF, ENGSO, ICSSPE, ICHPERSD)	3
International or regional women and sport organization (e.g., AWS, IAPESGW, WSI)	4
National women and sport organization (e.g., WSF-USA, Nigerian AWS, JAPEW)	5
International sports federation (e.g., IAAF, UCI, IWF)	6
National sports organization (e.g., USA Volleyball, USA Sailing, UK Swimming)	7
National Olympic Committee (e.g., Antilles OC, Barbados OC)	8
National government (e.g., UK government, Grenada government)	9
State/Provincial government (e.g., Province of Ontario, Province of Alberta)	10

2. Please indicate your **job title** within the organization stated in Question 1 above.



3. Are you **aware of** the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994?

YES	1
NO	2

4. Are you **familiar with** the contents of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994?

YES	1
NO	2

*(If YES, continue to Question 5; if NO, please read the attached Brighton Declaration's scope, aims, and principles before proceeding to Question #5.)*

5. On a scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high), how would you rate the overall impact of the Brighton Declaration on decision making in your organization?

1 (low)	2	3	4	5 (high)
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Provide a **brief** justification for your answer:

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6. In your opinion, which principle of the Brighton Declaration has made the **most** impact in a **global context**?

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Provide a brief reason for your answer.

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7. In your opinion, which principle of the Brighton Declaration has made the **least** impact in a **global context**?

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Provide a brief reason for your answer.

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8. On a scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high), indicate your agreement with the following statements:

Statement	1 (low)	2	3	4	5 (high)
World Conferences on Women and Sport perpetuate the academic debate on gender mainstreaming in sport and do not significantly impact the grass roots level	8.1				
The principles of the Brighton Declaration are “alive and well” in my organization	8.2				
The words “Brighton Declaration” appear prominently on policy documents and are used in strategic management sessions in my organization	8.3				

9. What do you regard as the greatest success regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration in your organization?

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10. What do you identify as the contributing factors to this success?

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11. What do you regard as the greatest challenge regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration in your organization?

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12. What do you identify as contributing factors to this challenge?

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13. At which of the following World Conference(s) on Women and Sport was your organization represented? (X all that apply.)

Brighton Conference 1994	13.1
Windhoek Conference 1998	13.2
Montreal Conference 2002	13.3
Kumamoto Conference 2006	13.4

**14.** What are 3 of your primary expectations regarding the impact of the principles of the Brighton Declaration during the next 5 years?

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**15.** How do you plan to manage the expectations stated in Question 14?

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**SECTION 2: MANAGEMENT PROCESS DESIGN**

**16.** On a scale of 1 (**totally disagree**) to 5 (**totally agree**), indicate your agreement with the following statements:

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
	Totally disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Totally agree
Our organization has developed a specific management process to achieve the principles of the Brighton Declaration	16.1				
Our organization designed this management process in collaboration with internal stakeholders	16.2				
Our organization designed this management process in collaboration with external stakeholders	16.3				
A specific person/section within our organization has the authority to implement the principles of the Brighton Declaration	16.4				
A specific person/section within our organization maintains the management process relevant to the Brighton Declaration	16.5				
A specific person/section within our organization regularly reviews the management processes relevant to the Brighton Declaration	16.6				
The words “Brighton Declaration” appear in our planning documents and strategies	16.7				
Our organization made a public high-profile commitment to the principles of the Brighton Declaration	16.8				
Our organization has a management review process in place to monitor the Brighton Declaration	16.9				
Our organization’s management system generates decisions and actions to improve the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration	16.10				
Our organization examines feedback on the implementation process of the Brighton Declaration	16.11				

<b>Statement</b>	<b>1 Totally disagree</b>	<b>2 Somewhat disagree</b>	<b>3 Neither disagree nor disagree</b>	<b>4 Somewhat agree</b>	<b>5 Totally agree</b>
Our organization takes regular corrective action regarding the Brighton Declaration based on the feedback from <b>external</b> stakeholders	16.12				
Our organization has strategic sessions to plan our management process regarding the Brighton Declaration	16.13				
Our organization plans how to provide <b>resources</b> for the implementation process of the Brighton Declaration	16.14				
Our organization plans how to provide <b>information</b> for the management process	16.15				
Our organization plans how to <b>monitor</b> our management process performance relative to the Brighton Declaration	16.16				
Our organization plans how to <b>measure</b> our management process performance relative to the Brighton Declaration	16.17				
Our organization develops records to support our management process of the Brighton Declaration	16.18				

### SECTION 3: DOCUMENTING THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

17. On a scale of 1 (**totally disagree**), 2 (**somewhat disagree**), 3 (**neither disagree nor agree**), 4 (**somewhat agree**) to 5 (**totally agree**), indicate your agreement with the following statements by making an X in the appropriate box:

Statement	1 Totally disagree	2	3	4	5 Totally agree
There has been a notable change in organizational structures in our organization to implement the Brighton Declaration	17.1				
There has been a notable change in the set of values and norms regarding gender mainstreaming in our organization since the signing of the Brighton Declaration	17.2				
The management process to implement the Brighton Declaration interacts with other quality system processes in our organization	17.3				
Our organization has a management manual/document that describes how the Brighton Declaration should be implemented	17.4				
This management manual is reviewed regularly	17.5				
Clear benchmarks for process effectiveness are stated in the management manual relative to the Brighton Declaration	17.6				

### SECTION 4: IMPLEMENTING THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

18. On a scale of 1 (**totally disagree**), 2 (**somewhat disagree**), 3 (**neither disagree nor agree**), 4 (**somewhat agree**) to 5 (**totally agree**), indicate your agreement with the following statements by making an X in the appropriate box:

Statement	1 Totally disagree	2	3	4	5 Totally agree
Our organization develops documents that can be used to implement the management process of the Brighton Declaration	18.1				
Our organization provides infrastructure to manage the implantation of the Brighton Declaration	18.2				
Our organization ensures that top management apply the management process for the Brighton Declaration	18.3				
Our organization regularly evaluates the performance criteria of the management system for the Brighton Declaration	18.4				
Our organization regularly audits the impact of the Brighton Declaration	18.5				
Our organization regularly commissions research on the Brighton Declaration	18.6				
The term "Brighton Declaration" appears on our organization's website	18.7				

<b>Statement</b>	<b>1 Totally disagree</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5 Totally agree</b>
New staff members are formally familiarized with the role and value of the Brighton Declaration in our organization	18.8				
The Brighton Declaration is mentioned in the foundation documents of our organization relative to gender mainstreaming	18.9				

## **SECTION 5: SUPPORTING THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS**

**19.** On a scale of 1 (**totally disagree**), 2 (**somewhat disagree**), 3 (**neither disagree nor agree**), 4 (**somewhat agree**) to 5 (**totally agree**), indicate your agreement with the following statements by making an X in the appropriate box:

<b>Statement</b>	<b>1 Totally disagree</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5 Totally agree</b>
Our organization regularly identifies the training and awareness needs of our members and staff regarding the Brighton Declaration	19.1				
Our organization delivers appropriate training programs on how to manage the implementation of the Brighton Declaration	19.2				
Our organization delivers appropriate awareness programs on the Brighton Declaration	19.3				

## **SECTION 6: MONITORING AND CONTROLLING THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS**

**20.** On a scale of 1 (**totally disagree**), 2 (**somewhat disagree**), 3 (**neither disagree nor agree**), 4 (**somewhat agree**) to 5 (**totally agree**), indicate your agreement with the following statements by making an X in the appropriate box:

<b>Statement</b>	<b>1 Totally disagree</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5 Totally agree</b>
Top management of our organization regularly mentions the importance of the Brighton Declaration in gender mainstreaming campaigns	20.1				
Our organization has baseline information on the status of gender mainstreaming in 1994 (on the acceptance of the Brighton Declaration)	20.2				
Our organization has valid information on the progress of the implementation of the Brighton Declaration since 1994	20.3				
Our organization can provide reliable qualitative management process information on the implementation of the Brighton Declaration	20.4				
Our organization monitors the management process of the Brighton Declaration	20.5				

<b>Statement</b>	<b>1 Totally disagree</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5 Totally agree</b>
Our organization only monitors the quantitative outputs of the Brighton Declaration	20.6				
Our organization defines acceptable levels of competency for staff involved in the implementation management of the Brighton Declaration	20.7				
Our organization evaluates the effectiveness of training programs related to the management of the Brighton Declaration	20.8				
Our organization evaluates the effectiveness of awareness programs related to the management of the Brighton Declaration	20.9				
Our organization creates methods to evaluate the impact of the Brighton Declaration	20.10				
Records on the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration are accessible to the public	20.11				
Records on the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration are only accessible to members or staff of our organization	20.12				

### **SECTION 7: IMPROVING THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS**

**21.** On a scale of 1 (**totally disagree**), 2 (**somewhat disagree**), 3 (**neither disagree nor agree**), 4 (**somewhat agree**) to 5 (**totally agree**), indicate your agreement with the following statements by making an X in the appropriate box:

<b>Statement</b>	<b>1 Totally disagree</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5 Totally agree</b>
Our organization has a management process improvement strategy regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration	21.1				
Our organization takes corrective actions whenever the feedback on our management processes fail to achieve planned results regarding the Brighton Declaration	21.2				

*Note: To better understand management process practice, please provide brief outlines of examples relative to the following questions in Section Eight.*

### **SECTION 8: EXAMPLES OF BEST/GOOD MANAGEMENT PROCESS PRACTICES**

**22.** Please provide examples of **your best/good management process practices** regarding the following:



**22.1** How you **monitor progress** related to the principles of the Brighton Declaration?

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**22.2** What is your **main performance criteria of your management process** related to the implementation of the Brighton Declaration?

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**22.3** What ways does your organization **disseminate information** regarding the management and implementation of the Brighton Declaration?

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**22.4** What are the main elements of **training programs** used in your organization related to the management of the Brighton Declaration?

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**22.5** What are the main elements of **awareness programs** used in your organization related to the management of the Brighton Declaration?

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**22.6** What is the **content of planning documents** utilized to manage the implementation of the Brighton Declaration?

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**Your completion and return of this questionnaire are extremely important. Thank you for taking the time to do so.**

**Please return via email by **September 15, 2007** to:**  
**Darlene A. Kluka, Ph. D.**  
**[darlene.kluka@up.ac.za](mailto:darlene.kluka@up.ac.za) OR [eyesport@aol.com](mailto:eyesport@aol.com)**

**OR via fax by **September 15, 2007** to:**  
**University of Pretoria, Department of Biokinetics, Sport and**  
**Leisure Sciences, South Africa**  
**FAX: +27 12 420 6099 Attention: Professor Kluka**

# **THE BRIGHTON DECLARATION ON WOMEN AND SPORT (1994)**

## **SCOPE AND AIMS OF THE DECLARATION**

### **1. Scope**

The Declaration is addressed to those governments, public authorities, organizations, businesses, education and research establishments, women's organizations and individuals who are responsible for, or who directly or indirectly influence the conduct, development or promotion of sport or who are in any way involved in the employment, education, management, training, development or care of women in sport. This declaration is meant to complement all sporting, local, national and international charters, laws, codes, rules and regulations relating to women or sport.

### **2. Aims**

The overriding aim is to develop a sporting culture that enables and values the full involvement of women in every aspect of sport. It is in the interests of equality, development and peace that a commitment be made by governmental, non-governmental, organizations and all those institutions involved in sport to apply the principles set out in this Declaration by developing appropriate policies, structures and mechanisms which:

- Ensure that all women and girls have the opportunity to participate in sport in a safe and supportive environment which preserves the rights, dignity and respect of the individual;
- Increase the involvement of women in sport at all levels and in all functions and roles;
- Ensure that the knowledge, experiences and values of women contribute to the development of sport;
- Promote the recognition of women's involvement in sport as a contribution to public life, community development and in building a healthy nation; and
- Promote the recognition by women of the intrinsic value of sport and its contribution to personal development and healthy lifestyle.

## **THE PRINCIPLES**

### **1. EQUITY AND EQUALITY IN SOCIETY AND SPORT**

a. Every effort should be made by state and government machineries to ensure that institutions and organizations responsible for sport comply with the equality provisions of the Charter of the United Nations, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

b. Equal opportunity to participate and be involved in sport whether for the purpose of leisure and recreation, health promotion or high performance, is the right of every woman, regardless of race, color, language, religion, creed, sexual orientation, age, marital status, disability, political belief or affiliation, national or social origin.

c. Resources, power and responsibility should be allocated fairly and without discrimination on the basis of sex, but such allocation should redress any inequitable balance in the benefits available to women and men.

## **2. FACILITIES**

Women's participation in sport is influenced by the extent variety and accessibility of facilities. The planning, design and management of these should appropriately and equitably meet the particular needs of women in the community, with special attention given to the need for child care provision and safety.

## **3. SCHOOL AND JUNIOR SPORT**

Research demonstrates that girls and boys approach sport from markedly different perspectives. Those responsible for sport, education, recreation and physical education of young people should ensure that an equitable range of opportunities and learning experience, which accommodate the values, attitudes and aspirations of girls, is incorporated in programs to develop physical fitness and basic sport skills of young people.

## **4. DEVELOPING PARTICIPATION**

Women's participation in sport is influenced by the range of activities available. Those responsible for delivering sporting opportunities and programs should provide and promote activities which meet women's needs and aspirations.

## **5. HIGH PERFORMANCE SPORT**

a. Governments and sports organizations should provide equal opportunities to women to reach their sports performance potential by ensuring that all activities and programs relating to performance improvements take account of the specific needs of female athletes.

b. Those supporting elite and/or professional athletes should ensure that competition opportunities, rewards, incentives, recognition, sponsorship, promotion and other forms of support are provided fairly and equitably to both women and men.

## **6. LEADERSHIP IN SPORT**

Women are under-represented in the leadership and decision making of all sport and sport-related organizations. Those responsible for these areas should develop policies and programs and design structures which increase the number of women coaches, advisers, decision makers, officials, administrators and sports personnel at all levels with special attention given to recruitment, development and retention.

## **7. EDUCATION, TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT**

Those responsible for the education, training and development of coaches and other sports personnel should ensure that education processes and experiences address issues relating to gender equity and the needs of female athletes, equitably reflect women's role in sport and take account of women's leadership experiences, values and attitudes.

## **8. SPORT INFORMATION AND RESEARCH**

Those responsible for research and providing information on sport should develop policies and programs to increase knowledge and understanding about women and sport and ensure that research norms and standards are based on research on women and men.

## **9. RESOURCES**

Those responsible for the allocation of resources should ensure that support is available for sportswomen, women's programs and special measures to advance this Declaration of Principles.

## **10. DOMESTIC AND INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION**

Government and non-government organizations should incorporate the promotion of issues of gender equity and the sharing of examples of good practice in women and sport policies and programs in their associations with other organizations, within both domestic and international arenas.

## **APPENDIX B**

### **List of organizations that have adopted or endorsed the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport since 1994**

Categories of organizations as determined by IWG (2007):

- International and Regional Government Organizations and/or Coalitions
- International Multi-Sport Organizations
- International Physical Education Organizations and Fora
- International and Regional Women and Sport Groups
- National Sports Organizations

Several organizations have ceased to exist since 1994. An asterisk (\*) has been placed at the end of the organization's name to indicate its cessation. The organizations included on the IWG list are:

#### **International and Regional Government Organizations or Coalitions:**

- Arab Ministers of Youth and Sport
- Caribbean Heads of Government
- Caribbean Ministers of Sport
- Commonwealth Heads of Government
- Commonwealth Ministers for Women's Affairs
- Conference of Ministers for Youth and Sport of Countries sharing French language (CONFESJES)
- Council of Europe Committee for the Development of Sport
- European Ministers of Sport
- European Sports Conference
- Sports Ministries of Southern Africa (Zone 6)
- Supreme Council for Youth and Sport in Africa

#### **International Multi-Sport Organizations:**

- Commonwealth Games Federation (CGF)
- International Olympic Committee (IOC)
- International Paralympic Committee (IPC)

### **International Physical Education Organizations and Fora:**

- Congreso Panamericano de Educación Física (CPEF)
- European Non-Governmental Sport Organisations (ENGSO)
- Federation Internationale d'Education Physique (FIEP)
- International Council for Health and Physical Recreation Sport and Dance (ICHPER-SD)
- International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education (ICSSPE) + member organizations
- International Society for the History of Physical Education and Sport (ISHPES)
- Leisure Studies Association (LSA)
- The World Forum on Physical Activity and Sport \*

### **International and Regional Women and Sport Groups:**

- Arab Women and Sport Association (SAAW)
- Asia Women and Sport (AWS)
- African Women in Sport Association (AWSA)
- European Women and Sport Group (EWS)
- International Association for Physical Education and Sport for Girls and Women (IAPESGW)
- International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG)
- WomenSport International (WSI)

### **International Sports Federations:**

- European Squash Federation
- Federation Aeronautique Internationale (FAI)
- International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF)
- International Archery Federation (FITA)
- International Badminton Federation (IBF)
- International Cyclists Union (UCI)
- International Federation of Netball Associations (IFNA)
- International Hockey Federation (FIH)
- International Lifesaving Federation (ILS)
- International Sailing Federation (ISF)
- International Table Tennis Federation (ITTF) + 12 national associations
- International Triathlon Union (ITU)
- International Weightlifting Federation (IWF)
- Royal Life Saving Society (ILS)
- World Squash Association (WSF)

## **National Organizations:**

### **Africa**

- |                                |  |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Algeria                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Ministry for Youth and Sport</li><li>• Algerian Association for Women's Sport Development</li></ul>  |
| Benin                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Association des Femmes Béninoises pour le Sport</li></ul>  |
| Botswana                       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Botswana Sports Council</li></ul>  |
| Congo                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• National Olympic and Sport Committee (CNOSC)</li></ul>   |
| Cote d'Ivoire<br>(Ivory Coast) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Comite National Olympique de Cote d'Ivoire</li></ul>   |
| Egypt                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Supreme Council for Youth and Sport</li><li>• Faculty of Physical Education for Girls, Alexandria</li><li>• University Sport Society of Egyptian Women</li></ul>   |
| Gambia                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul>  |
| Ghana                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li><li>• Olympic Committee</li><li>• Women's Sports Association of Ghana</li></ul>  |
| Lesotho                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul>  |
| Madagascar                     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Women and Sport *</li><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul>  |
| Mali                           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul>  |
| Mauritius                      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• National Commission on Women and Sport</li><li>• 16 National Sports Federations</li></ul>  |
| Morocco                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Moroccan Association of Sport &amp; Development (AMSD)</li><li>• National Association Women Physical Activity and Sport (ANFAPS)*</li></ul>  |
| Namibia                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li><li>• Ministry of Land, Resettlement and Rehabilitation</li><li>• Olympic Committee</li><li>• Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture</li><li>• Ministry of Women's Affairs and Child Welfare</li><li>• Namibian Sports Commission</li><li>• National Sports Council Tertiary Institution Sport</li></ul> |



- Association of Namibia School Sports Union
  - 11 Regional Governors
- Nigeria
- Nigerian Association of Women in Sport
- Republic of Guinea
- Ministry of Youth and Sport
- Senegal
- Olympic Committee
- Seychelles
- Seychelles Government
  - Olympic Committee
- Sierra Leone
- Association of Women in Sports (SLAWS)
- South Africa
- Commonwealth Games Association
  - Women Sports Foundation\*
  - National Department of Sport and Recreation
  - National Sports Council
- Swaziland
- Ministry of Home Affairs
  - Olympic and Commonwealth Games Association
  - National Sports Federations
- Uganda
- Olympic Committee
  - Uganda Sports Women's Association
- Zimbabwe
- Sport and Recreation Commission
  - Olympic Committee
  - Women in Sport Foundation Zimbabwe\*

### **Asia and the Middle East**

- Bahrain
- General Organization for Youth and Sport
- Cambodia
- Cambodian Commission of Women and Sport
- Chinese Taipei
- Olympic Committee
- Hong Kong
- Hong Kong Sports Development Board  
(presently referred to as the Hong Kong Sports Council)

Indonesia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li> <li>• Indonesia Sports Committee</li> <li>• Indonesian Association of Physical Education and Sports for Girls and Women (PERWOSI)</li> </ul>
Japan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Japan Association of Physical Education for Women (JAPEW)</li> <li>• Japanese Association for Women in Sport (JWS)</li> <li>• Japanese Olympic Committee (JOC)</li> </ul>
Malaysia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li> <li>• Women's Sports and Fitness Foundation</li> <li>• Olympic Council of Malaysia</li> </ul>
Philippines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Philippine Sports Commission</li> <li>• Women's Sports Foundation</li> </ul>
Singapore	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Singapore Sports Council</li> </ul>
Syria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• General Sports Federation</li> </ul>
<b>Europe</b>	
Albania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Austria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Department of Sport</li> </ul>
Bosnia and Herzegovina	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sports Association</li> </ul>
Bulgaria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Cyprus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Cyprus National Olympic Committee</li> <li>• The Cyprus Sports Organization</li> </ul>
Czech Republic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Finland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Education</li> <li>• Ministry of Culture</li> <li>• Finnish Sport Federation</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>

Germany	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• German Sports Federation</li> <li>• German Union of Sports and Sciences</li> <li>• National Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Iceland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Icelandic Sports Federation</li> </ul>
Ireland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li> </ul>
Israel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport</li> </ul>
Lithuania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• PE and Sport Department</li> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Lithuanian Women in Sport Association</li> <li>• Lithuanian Sports Congress</li> </ul>
Malta	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Malta Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Netherlands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dutch Catholic Sports Confederation</li> </ul>
Northern Ireland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sports Council for Northern Ireland</li> </ul>
Norway	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Portugal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Women and Sport Commission Departamento de Desporto</li> </ul>
Switzerland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Ukraine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Physical Education and Sport</li> </ul>
United Kingdom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Government</li> <li>• British Olympic Association</li> <li>• UK Sports Council</li> <li>• Sports Council for Scotland</li> <li>• Sports Council for Northern Ireland</li> </ul>

- English Sports Council\*
- Women's Sports Foundation
- 24 National Governing Bodies of Sport

## **North America and the Caribbean**

Antilles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Aruba	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Bahamas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• National Sports Council</li> </ul>
Barbados	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Canada	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Department of Heritage</li> <li>• Sport Canada</li> <li>• Canadian Association for the Advancement of Women and Sport</li> <li>• Commonwealth Games Association</li> <li>• Province of Ontario</li> <li>• Province of British Columbia</li> <li>• Province of Alberta</li> </ul>
Cuba	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Grenada	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Government</li> </ul>
Gyana	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport</li> </ul>
Jamaica	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> </ul>
Puerto Rico	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Department of Recreation and Sport</li> </ul>
Trinidad and Tobago	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Committee</li> <li>• Ministry of Youth and Sport</li> </ul>
United States of America	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National Association for Girls and Women in Sport</li> <li>• Olympic Woman Project*</li> <li>• Women's Sports Foundation</li> <li>• USA Volleyball</li> <li>• USA Sailing</li> </ul>

## **Central and South America**

- Argentina • Olympic Committee
- Bolivia • Olympic Committee
- Brazil • Olympic Committee
- Chile • Olympic Committee
- Colombia • Government
  - National Olympic Committee
  - Coldeportes
- Ecuador • National Olympic Committee
- El Salvador • Olympic Committee
- Guatemala • Olympic Committee
- Honduras • Olympic Committee
- Mexico • National Sports Commission
  - Olympic Committee
  - Ministry of Sport
- Panama • Olympic Committee
- Paraguay • Olympic Committee
- Peru • Olympic Committee
- Uruguay • Olympic Committee
- Venezuela • Olympic Committee

## **Oceania**

- Australia • Australian Sports Commission
  - Sport and Recreation Ministers Council
  - Standing Committee on Recreation and Sport\*
  - State and Territory Governments
  - Olympic Committee
  - Women's Sports Foundation of Western Australia\*
  - Womensport Australia
- Cook Islands • Cook Islands Sports and Olympic Association

- |                  |  |
|------------------|--|
| New Zealand      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Hillary Commission</li><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul> |
| Palau            | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Olympic Committee</li></ul>                              |
| Papua New Guinea | Sports Commission  |

**APPENDIX C**  
**CONSENT FORMS**



## LETTER OF CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in the investigation entitled *The Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport: A management audit of process quality* conducted by the Researcher through the University of Pretoria, and consent to the Researcher approaching our organization through its leadership.

I have read and retained a copy of the Letter of Information, and the purpose of the study is explained to my satisfaction.

I have had any questions answered to my satisfaction.

I understand that, upon request, I may have a full description of the results of the study after its completion.

I understand that the Researcher intends to publish the findings of the study.

I understand that participation is voluntary, and that I am free to withdraw from this study at any time without negative consequences.

**I HAVE READ AND UNDERSTOOD THIS CONSENT FORM. I AGREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY AND PERMIT THE RESEARCHER TO APPROACH OUR ORGANIZATION THROUGH ITS LEADERSHIP.**

Name and Surname (Please Print): \_\_\_\_\_

Name of Organization: \_\_\_\_\_

Position Held: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Telephone Number: \_\_\_\_\_

Email address: \_\_\_\_\_





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Christophe Mailliet

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

The research project that will be undertaken by Darlene A. Kluka, under the guidance of her co-promoters, Dr. Anneliese Goslin and Dr. Ben Steyn, is of significance to those who lead in the area of social change through women and sport. ICSSPE is delighted to provide access to those organizations who have signed on to the Brighton Declaration on Women in Sport.

It is our understanding that Dr. Kluka will survey those organizations to determine the level of management commitment to the principles in the declaration after a 13-year period of time.

  
Christophe Mailliet  
Executive Director

Prof. Dr. Anthony W. Fisher  
AUSTRALIA  
Prof. Dr. Margaret Tabor  
UNITED KINGDOM  
Prof. Dr. Gail Hogg  
CANADA  
U.S.A.

## APPENDIX D: CHI SQUARE RESULTS

**q16.1 Our organization has developed a specific management process to achieve the principles of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.1 Our organization has developed a specific management process to achieve the principles of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	90	16	106
		% within q3	84.1%	88.9%	84.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	13	2	15
		% within q3	12.1%	11.1%	12.0%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.728	2	0.695
Likelihood Ratio	1.299	2	0.522
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.518	1	0.472
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q16.2 Our organization designed this management process in collaboration with internal stakeholders \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.2 Our organization designed this management process in collaboration with internal stakeholders	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	91	16	107
		% within q3	85.0%	88.9%	85.6%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	12	2	14
		% within q3	11.2%	11.1%	11.2%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.700	2	0.705
Likelihood Ratio	1.270	2	0.530
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.420	1	0.517
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q16.3 Our organization designed this management process in collaboration with external stakeholders \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.3 Our organization designed this management process in collaboration with external stakeholders	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	103	18	121
		% within q3	96.3%	100.0%	96.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.695	1	0.404		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.012	1	0.912		
Likelihood Ratio	1.266	1	0.261		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	0.532
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.690	1	0.406		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q16.4 A specific person/section within our organization has the authority to implement the principles of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.4 A specific person/section within our organization has the authority to implement the principles of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	90	16	106
		% within q3	84.1%	88.9%	84.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	13	2	15
		% within q3	12.1%	11.1%	12.0%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.728	2	0.695
Likelihood Ratio	1.299	2	0.522
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.518	1	0.472
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q16.5 A specific person/section within our organization maintains the management process relevant to the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.5 A specific person/section within our organization maintains the management process relevant to the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	103	18	121
		% within q3	96.3%	100.0%	96.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.695	1	0.404		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.012	1	0.912		
Likelihood Ratio	1.266	1	0.261		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	0.532
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.690	1	0.406		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q16.6 A specific person/section within our organization regularly reviews the management processes relevant to the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.6 A specific person/section within our organization regularly reviews the management processes relevant to the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	102	18	120
		% within q3	95.3%	100.0%	96.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.876	2	0.645
Likelihood Ratio	1.589	2	0.452
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.827	1	0.363
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q16.7 The words “Brighton Declaration” appear in our planning documents and strategies \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.7 The words “Brighton Declaration” appear in our planning documents and strategies	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	102	18	120
		% within q3	95.3%	100.0%	96.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.876	2	0.645
Likelihood Ratio	1.589	2	0.452
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.827	1	0.363
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.



**q16.8 Our organization made a public high-profile commitment to the principles of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.8 Our organization made a public high-profile commitment to the principles of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	90	16	106
		% within q3	84.1%	88.9%	84.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	12	2	14
		% within q3	11.2%	11.1%	11.2%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	5	0	5
		% within q3	4.7%	0.0%	4.0%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.883	2	0.643
Likelihood Ratio	1.596	2	0.450
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.580	1	0.446
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .72.

**q16.9 Our organization has a management review process in place to monitor the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.9 Our organization has a management review process in place to monitor the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	103	18	121
		% within q3	96.3%	100.0%	96.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.695	1	0.404		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.012	1	0.912		
Likelihood Ratio	1.266	1	0.261		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	0.532
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.690	1	0.406		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q16.10 Our organization's management system generates decisions and actions to improve the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.10 Our organization's management system generates decisions and actions to improve the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	103	18	121
		% within q3	96.3%	100.0%	96.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.695	2	0.706
Likelihood Ratio	1.266	2	0.531
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.649	1	0.421
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q16.11 Our organization examines feedback on the implementation process of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.11 Our organization examines feedback on the implementation process of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	102	18	120
		% within q3	95.3%	100.0%	96.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.876	2	0.645
Likelihood Ratio	1.589	2	0.452
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.827	1	0.363
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q16.12 Our organization takes regular corrective action regarding the Brighton Declaration based on the feedback from external stakeholders \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.12 Our organization takes regular corrective action regarding the Brighton Declaration based on the feedback from external stakeholders	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	103	18	121
		% within q3	96.3%	100.0%	96.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.695	1	0.404		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.012	1	0.912		
Likelihood Ratio	1.266	1	0.261		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	0.532
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.690	1	0.406		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q16.13 Our organization has strategic sessions to plan our management process regarding the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.13 Our organization has strategic sessions to plan our management process regarding the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	103	18	121
		% within q3	96.3%	100.0%	96.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.695	2	0.706
Likelihood Ratio	1.266	2	0.531
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.649	1	0.421
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q16.14 Our organization plans how to provide resources for the implementation process of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.14 Our organization plans how to provide resources for the implementation process of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	102	18	120
		% within q3	95.3%	100.0%	96.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	2	0	2
		% within q3	1.9%	0.0%	1.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.876	2	0.645
Likelihood Ratio	1.589	2	0.452
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.792	1	0.374
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .29.

**q16.15 Our organization plans how to provide information for the management process \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.15 Our organization plans how to provide information for the management process	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	91	16	107
		% within q3	85.0%	88.9%	85.6%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	13	2	15
		% within q3	12.1%	11.1%	12.0%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.545	2	0.761
Likelihood Ratio	0.973	2	0.615
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.360	1	0.549
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.



**q16.16 Our organization plans how to monitor our management process performance relative to the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.16 Our organization plans how to monitor our management process performance relative to the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	102	18	120
		% within q3	95.3%	100.0%	96.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	2	0	2
		% within q3	1.9%	0.0%	1.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.876	2	0.645
Likelihood Ratio	1.589	2	0.452
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.792	1	0.374
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .29.

**q16.17 Our organization plans how to measure our management process performance relative to the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.17 Our organization plans how to measure our management process performance relative to the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	102	18	120
		% within q3	95.3%	100.0%	96.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	2	0	2
		% within q3	1.9%	0.0%	1.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.876	2	0.645
Likelihood Ratio	1.589	2	0.452
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.792	1	0.374
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .29.

**q16.18 Our organization develops records to support our management process of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q16.18 Our organization develops records to support our management process of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	101	18	119
		% within q3	94.4%	100.0%	95.2%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	5	0	5
		% within q3	4.7%	0.0%	4.0%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.060	2	0.589
Likelihood Ratio	1.916	2	0.384
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.008	1	0.315
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q17.1 There has been a notable change in organizational structures in our organization to implement the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q17.1 There has been a notable change in organizational structures in our organization to implement the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	99	18	117
		% within q3	92.5%	100.0%	93.6%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	7	0	7
		% within q3	6.5%	0.0%	5.6%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.438	2	0.487
Likelihood Ratio	2.578	2	0.276
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.380	1	0.240
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q17.2 There has been a notable change in the set of values and norms regarding gender mainstreaming in our organization since the signing of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q17.2 There has been a notable change in the set of values and norms regarding gender mainstreaming in our organization since the signing of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	24	3	27
		% within q3	22.4%	16.7%	21.6%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	4	1	5
		% within q3	3.7%	5.6%	4.0%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	79	14	93
		% within q3	73.8%	77.8%	74.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.396	2	0.820
Likelihood Ratio	0.402	2	0.818
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.212	1	0.646
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .72.

**q17.3 The management process to implement the Brighton Declaration interacts with other quality system processes in our organization \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q17.3 The management process to implement the Brighton Declaration interacts with other quality system processes in our organization	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	96	14	110
		% within q3	89.7%	77.8%	88.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	4	4	8
		% within q3	3.7%	22.2%	6.4%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	7	0	7
		% within q3	6.5%	0.0%	5.6%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.653	2	<b>0.008</b>
Likelihood Ratio	8.092	2	0.017
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.173	1	0.677
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.01.

**q17.4 Our organization has a management manual/document that describes how the Brighton Declaration should be implemented \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q17.4 Our organization has a management manual/document that describes how the Brighton Declaration should be implemented	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	104	18	122
		% within q3	97.2%	100.0%	97.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.517	1	0.472		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	0.945	1	0.331		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	0.625
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.513	1	0.474		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q17.5 This management manual is reviewed regularly \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q17.5 This management manual is reviewed regularly	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	100	18	118
		% within q3	93.5%	100.0%	94.4%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	7	0	7
		% within q3	6.5%	0.0%	5.6%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.247	1	0.264		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.317	1	0.574		
Likelihood Ratio	2.246	1	0.134		
Fisher's Exact Test				0.592	0.327
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.237	1	0.266		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.01.



**q17.6 Clear benchmarks for process effectiveness are stated in the management manual relative to the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q17.6 Clear benchmarks for process effectiveness are stated in the management manual relative to the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	104	18	122
		% within q3	97.2%	100.0%	97.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.517	1	0.472		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	0.945	1	0.331		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	0.625
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.513	1	0.474		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q18.1 Our organization develops documents that can be used to implement the management process of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q18.1 Our organization develops documents that can be used to implement the management process of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	93	16	109
		% within q3	86.9%	88.9%	87.2%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	3	2	5
		% within q3	2.8%	11.1%	4.0%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	11	0	11
		% within q3	10.3%	0.0%	8.8%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.516	2	<b>0.105</b>
Likelihood Ratio	5.382	2	0.068
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.665	1	0.415
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .72.

**q18.2 Our organization provides infrastructure to manage the implantation of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q18.2 Our organization provides infrastructure to manage the implantation of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	93	17	110
		% within q3	86.9%	94.4%	88.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	11	1	12
		% within q3	10.3%	5.6%	9.6%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.962	2	0.618
Likelihood Ratio	1.443	2	0.486
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.635	1	0.425
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q18.3 Our organization ensures that top management apply the management process for the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q18.3 Our organization ensures that top management apply the management process for the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	93	16	109
		% within q3	86.9%	88.9%	87.2%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	2	2	4
		% within q3	1.9%	11.1%	3.2%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	12	0	12
		% within q3	11.2%	0.0%	9.6%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.138	2	<b>0.046</b>
Likelihood Ratio	6.567	2	0.037
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.727	1	0.394
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q18.4 Our organization regularly evaluates the performance criteria of the management system for the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q18.4 Our organization regularly evaluates the performance criteria of the management system for the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	93	17	110
		% within q3	86.9%	94.4%	88.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	13	1	14
		% within q3	12.1%	5.6%	11.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.866	2	0.649
Likelihood Ratio	1.122	2	0.571
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.758	1	0.384
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q18.5 Our organization regularly audits the impact of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q18.5 Our organization regularly audits the impact of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	93	16	109
		% within q3	86.9%	88.9%	87.2%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	4	2	6
		% within q3	3.7%	11.1%	4.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	10	0	10
		% within q3	9.3%	0.0%	8.0%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.434	2	0.180
Likelihood Ratio	4.474	2	0.107
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.603	1	0.437
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .86.

**q18.6 Our organization regularly commissions research on the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q18.6 Our organization regularly commissions research on the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	103	18	121
		% within q3	96.3%	100.0%	96.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.695	2	0.706
Likelihood Ratio	1.266	2	0.531
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.649	1	0.421
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q18.7 The term “Brighton Declaration” appears on our organization's website \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q18.7 The term “Brighton Declaration” appears on our organization's website	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	88	16	104
		% within q3	82.2%	88.9%	83.2%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	18	2	20
		% within q3	16.8%	11.1%	16.0%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.564	2	0.754
Likelihood Ratio	0.737	2	0.692
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.432	1	0.511
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.



**q18.8 New staff members are formally familiarized with the role and value of the Brighton Declaration in our organization \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q18.8 New staff members are formally familiarized with the role and value of the Brighton Declaration in our organization	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	93	17	110
		% within q3	86.9%	94.4%	88.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	13	1	14
		% within q3	12.1%	5.6%	11.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.866	2	0.649
Likelihood Ratio	1.122	2	0.571
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.758	1	0.384
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q18.9 The Brighton Declaration is mentioned in the foundation documents of our organization relative to gender mainstreaming \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q18.9 The Brighton Declaration is mentioned in the foundation documents of our organization relative to gender mainstreaming	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	94	17	111
		% within q3	87.9%	94.4%	88.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	12	1	13
		% within q3	11.2%	5.6%	10.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.718	2	0.698
Likelihood Ratio	0.942	2	0.624
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.608	1	0.435
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q19.1 Our organization regularly identifies the training and awareness needs of our members and staff regarding the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q19.1 Our organization regularly identifies the training and awareness needs of our members and staff regarding the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	100	17	117
		% within q3	93.5%	94.4%	93.6%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	1	4
		% within q3	2.8%	5.6%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.039	2	0.595
Likelihood Ratio	1.556	2	0.459
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.032	1	0.859
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q19.2 Our organization delivers appropriate training programs on how to manage the implementation of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q19.2 Our organization delivers appropriate training programs on how to manage the implementation of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	103	17	120
		% within q3	96.3%	94.4%	96.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	1	4
		% within q3	2.8%	5.6%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.538	2	0.764
Likelihood Ratio	0.626	2	0.731
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.244	1	0.621
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

**q19.3 Our organization delivers appropriate awareness programs on the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q19.3 Our organization delivers appropriate awareness programs on the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	93	17	110
		% within q3	86.9%	94.4%	88.0%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	11	0	11
		% within q3	10.3%	0.0%	8.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	1	4
		% within q3	2.8%	5.6%	3.2%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.314	2	0.314
Likelihood Ratio	3.828	2	0.147
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.181	1	0.671
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q20.1 Top management of our organization regularly mentions the importance of the Brighton Declaration in gender mainstreaming campaigns \* q3  
Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.1 Top management of our organization regularly mentions the importance of the Brighton Declaration in gender mainstreaming campaigns	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	92	17	109
		% within q3	86.0%	94.4%	87.2%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	3	1	4
		% within q3	2.8%	5.6%	3.2%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	12	0	12
		% within q3	11.2%	0.0%	9.6%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.510	2	0.285
Likelihood Ratio	4.166	2	0.125
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.618	1	0.203
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q20.2 Our organization has baseline information on the status of gender mainstreaming in 1994 (on the acceptance of the Brighton Declaration) \* q3  
Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.2 Our organization has baseline information on the status of gender mainstreaming in 1994 (on the acceptance of the Brighton Declaration)	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	98	18	116
		% within q3	91.6%	100.0%	92.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	5	0	5
		% within q3	4.7%	0.0%	4.0%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.631	2	0.442
Likelihood Ratio	2.914	2	0.233
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.458	1	0.227
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .58.

**q20.3 Our organization has valid information on the progress of the implementation of the Brighton Declaration since 1994 \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.3 Our organization has valid information on the progress of the implementation of the Brighton Declaration since 1994	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	100	18	118
		% within q3	93.5%	100.0%	94.4%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	7	0	7
		% within q3	6.5%	0.0%	5.6%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.247	1	0.264		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.317	1	0.574		
Likelihood Ratio	2.246	1	0.134		
Fisher's Exact Test				0.592	0.327
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.237	1	0.266		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.01.



**q20.4 Our organization can provide reliable qualitative management process information on the implementation of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.4 Our organization can provide reliable qualitative management process information on the implementation of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	101	18	119
		% within q3	94.4%	100.0%	95.2%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.060	2	0.589
Likelihood Ratio	1.916	2	0.384
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.942	1	0.332
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q20.5 Our organization monitors the management process of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.5 Our organization monitors the management process of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	100	18	118
		% within q3	93.5%	100.0%	94.4%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	4	0	4
		% within q3	3.7%	0.0%	3.2%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.247	2	0.536
Likelihood Ratio	2.246	2	0.325
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.098	1	0.295
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q20.6 Our organization only monitors the quantitative outputs of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.6 Our organization only monitors the quantitative outputs of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	104	18	122
		% within q3	97.2%	100.0%	97.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.517	1	0.472		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	0.945	1	0.331		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	0.625
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.513	1	0.474		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q20.7 Our organization defines acceptable levels of competency for staff involved in the implementation management of the Brighton Declaration \* q3  
Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.7 Our organization defines acceptable levels of competency for staff involved in the implementation management of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	98	18	116
		% within q3	91.6%	100.0%	92.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	6	0	6
		% within q3	5.6%	0.0%	4.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.631	2	0.442
Likelihood Ratio	2.914	2	0.233
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.426	1	0.232
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q20.8 Our organization evaluates the effectiveness of training programs related to the management of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.8 Our organization evaluates the effectiveness of training programs related to the management of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	104	18	122
		% within q3	97.2%	100.0%	97.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.517	1	0.472		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	0.945	1	0.331		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	0.625
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.513	1	0.474		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q20.9 Our organization evaluates the effectiveness of awareness programs related to the management of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.9 Our organization evaluates the effectiveness of awareness programs related to the management of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	99	18	117
		% within q3	92.5%	100.0%	93.6%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	2	0	2
		% within q3	1.9%	0.0%	1.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	6	0	6
		% within q3	5.6%	0.0%	4.8%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.438	2	0.487
Likelihood Ratio	2.578	2	0.276
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.339	1	0.247
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .29.

**q20.10 Our organization creates methods to evaluate the impact of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.10 Our organization creates methods to evaluate the impact of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	99	18	117
		% within q3	92.5%	100.0%	93.6%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	2	0	2
		% within q3	1.9%	0.0%	1.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	6	0	6
		% within q3	5.6%	0.0%	4.8%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.438	2	0.487
Likelihood Ratio	2.578	2	0.276
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.339	1	0.247
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .29.

**q20.11 Records on the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration are accessible to the public \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.11 Records on the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration are accessible to the public	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	96	18	114
		% within q3	89.7%	100.0%	91.2%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	1	0	1
		% within q3	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	10	0	10
		% within q3	9.3%	0.0%	8.0%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.029	2	0.363
Likelihood Ratio	3.595	2	0.166
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.964	1	0.161
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.



**q20.12 Records on the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration are only accessible to members or staff of our organization \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q20.12 Records on the effectiveness of the Brighton Declaration are only accessible to members or staff of our organization	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	104	18	122
		% within q3	97.2%	100.0%	97.6%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.517	1	0.472		
Continuity Correction(a)	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	0.945	1	0.331		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	0.625
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.513	1	0.474		
N of Valid Cases	125				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q21.1 Our organization has a management process improvement strategy regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q21.1 Our organization has a management process improvement strategy regarding the implementation of the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	98	18	116
		% within q3	91.6%	100.0%	92.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	6	0	6
		% within q3	5.6%	0.0%	4.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.631	2	0.442
Likelihood Ratio	2.914	2	0.233
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.426	1	0.232
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

**q21.2 Our organization takes corrective actions whenever the feedback on our management processes fail to achieve planned results regarding the Brighton Declaration \* q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994**

**Crosstab**

		<b>q3 Are you aware of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport of 1994</b>			
			YES	NO	Total
q21.2 Our organization takes corrective actions whenever the feedback on our management processes fail to achieve planned results regarding the Brighton Declaration	Totally/Somewhat disagree	Count	98	18	116
		% within q3	91.6%	100.0%	92.8%
	Neither disagree nor agree	Count	6	0	6
		% within q3	5.6%	0.0%	4.8%
	Somewhat/Totally agree	Count	3	0	3
		% within q3	2.8%	0.0%	2.4%
Total		Count	107	18	125
		% within q3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.631	2	0.442
Likelihood Ratio	2.914	2	0.233
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.426	1	0.232
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.