

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**MEDIA AND SPORTS:
GENDERED COVERAGE OF FEMALE FOOTBALL STORIES IN
THE GHANAIAN PRINT MEDIA**

DESMOND NII LAMPTEY

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

2019

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**MEDIA AND SPORT:
GENDERED COVERAGE OF FEMALE FOOTBALL STORIES IN
THE GHANAIAN PRINT MEDIA**

DESMOND NII LAMPTEY

(8180580003)

**A dissertation in the Department of Communication and Media Studies,
Faculty of Foreign Languages Education and Communication,
submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, in partial fulfilment**

**of the requirements for the awards of the degree of
Master of Philosophy
(Media Studies).
in the University of Education, Winneba**

SEPTEMBER, 2019

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, DESMOND NII LAMPTEY, declare that this Dissertation, with the exception of quotation and references contained in published works which have all been identified and acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of Dissertation as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR:

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

DEDICATION

To you my family: my wife, Mrs Gitfy Lamptey, and my children, Desinda Lamptey and Ava Lamptey, thank you for the support and sacrifices.

Thank you and God bless you.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my greatest gratitude to God Almighty, who has given me life, knowledge, wisdom and understanding to sail through the course successfully and produce this intellectual work.

This MPhil dissertation is not only a product of my own hard work and passion for gender equity, football and media but it is also a product of the assistance I received from many others along the way. Without their help, friendship, and guidance, successfully completing this dissertation would have been much more difficult to achieve.

First, I would like to thank my incredible supervisor, mentor and advisor, Prof. Andy Ofori-Birikorang, for showing interest in my topic and agreeing to take me on as an advisee. His guidance allowed me to successfully navigate through every portion of my journey and it is with his teaching that I was able to properly write and conduct the research included in this study. Prof, thank you for your inspiration, advice and guidance. Thank you for allowing me to study a topic of great interest to me. Thank you for being easy to work with; and most of all, thank you for all the patience you have shown me over the past 18 months. Your mentorship is highly appreciated – and something that I will not easily forget.

I would also like to take this opportunity to thank the entire Department of Communication and Media Studies of the University of Education, Winneba. I especially want to acknowledge the Head of Department, Mr. Kwesi Aggrey, Dr Mavis Amo-Mensah, Dr Christiana Hammond, Dr Albert Agbesi Wornyo, Dr Gifty Appiah-Adjei, Mr. Asare Okae-Anti, Mrs Abena Abokoma Asemanyi Amoako as well as Akosua Asantewaa Anane. Thank you so much for all your constructive comments and feedback on my presentations. Those sessions helped me to improve my thesis and to be a better researcher. I truly value the tremendous education I have received during my academic tenure at this institution and it has been an honour to learn from genuinely great minds.

To the 2018/2019 CoMSSA group members, especially Nyamekye Nkrumah and all MPhil Top Up Class members, I say thank you.

A special thanks should go to Dr Ebo Afful, for his role in my life and his assistance at the early stages of my work. Thank you for the priceless advice, positive encouragement, support, professional knowledge and insight, and your concern for my personal and professional success. I am so grateful, Sir. God Bless you. Dr Wilberforce Dzisah and Mr Tim Quashigah, bless you. I warmly thank and appreciate Mr Henry Kojo Bonsu-Owu, my Head of Department at GIJ, for advice and friendly assistance with various problems since the first day of my MPhil.

To my great friends, Noel Nutsugah, Philip Atawura and Rockson Sapey, I appreciate your friendship and encouragements. It was not easy waking up early in the mornings and going to Winneba in a group for lectures. Someway somehow, we motivated and inspired ourselves. You guys are always in my mind and heart! I love you, my friends!

Sincere thanks go to Mrs Leena Emefa Yaa Dombadoh of GIJ. Special thanks also go to Mr Patrick Sackey of New Times Corporation for his generosity on my visits to the library. Thank you to Miss Sophia Owusu and Paul Gozo, of GIJ, for helping me gather data.

My Mom, Madam Elizabeth Torto, and Dad, Coach Sampson Lamptey: I am thankful for so many things; for believing in me without hesitation time and again, for supporting me in my academic studies, for your kind words and love that has always kept me on track. Mom – Thank you for always being there. Dad – Thank you for introducing me to football and being a great footballer yourself. You are an inspiration and we are proud of you. Mom and Dad, I love you both so much. To my sisters, Gertrude and Edwina, Thank you. Keiron is not forgotten.

Last but not least, to the love of my life, Mrs Gifty Lamptey: You know exactly how I feel about you without even having to say a single word. My sincere appreciation for

always encouraging me and understanding that, I have to leave you and the children alone at night to go work on this dissertation in the office. I still looked forward to your text messages reminding me of deadlines and asking me how the work is going. My children, Desinda and Ava, for their inspiration, understanding and deep interest in the work, I thank you, girls.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents

	Pages
DECLARATION	iii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
ABSTRACT	xi
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1.0 Background of the Study	1
1.1.1 Sports as Revenue and Identity Making	4
1.1.2 Media, Sports and Gender	8
1.1.0 Statement of Problem	16
1.2.0 Objective of the Study	19
1.3.0 Research Questions	19
1.4.0 Significance of the Study	19
1.5.0 Scope and Limitation of the Study	20
1.6.0 Chapter Organisation	21
CHAPTER TWO	22
LITERATURE REVIEW	22
2.0 Introduction	22
2.1. Media and Sports	23

2.1.0. Sports and the Press	26
2.3.0 The Ghanaian Media	28
2.4.0 Women's Football	30
2.5.0 Sports and Gender	33
2.6.0. Theoretical Framework	40
2.6.1. The Agenda Setting Theory	40
2.6.2. Framing Theory	45
2.6.3. Media frames	48
2.6.4. Media Frames in Sports	51
2.7.0. Feminist Theory	52
2.7.1. Basic Theoretical Questions Underpinning the Feminist Theory	55
2.7.2. Liberal Feminism Response	57
2.7.3. Radical Feminism Response	59
2.7.4 Marxist/Socialist Feminism Response	61
2.8. Summary	62
CHAPTER THREE	63
METHODOLOGY	63
3.0. Introduction	63
3.1.0 Research Approach	64
3.2.0 Research Design	68
3.3.0 Period of Data Collection	71
3.4.0 Sampling and Sampling technique	71
3.5.0 Sample Size	74
3.6.0. Data collection Method	75
3.6.1 Document Analysis	77

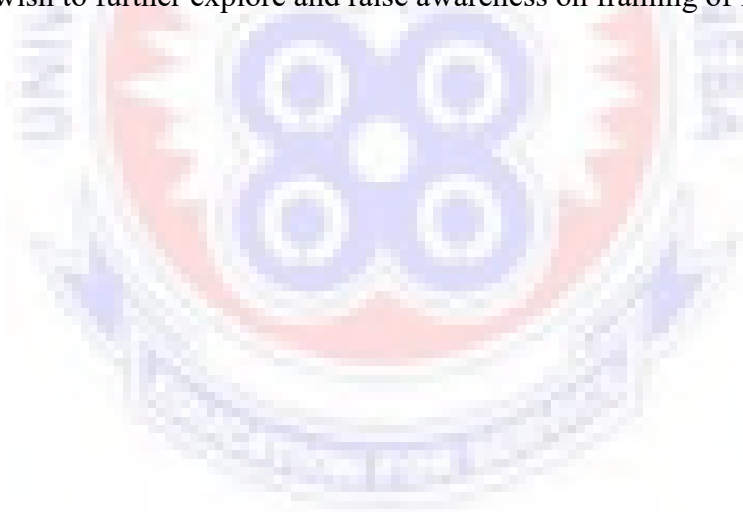
3.7.0 Unit of Analysis	79
3.8.0. Method of Data Analysis – Content Analysis	80
3.9.0 Data Analysis Process	82
3.10. Validity and Reliability	84
3.11. Summary	85
CHAPTER FOUR	87
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS	87
4.0. Introduction	87
4.1.0 RQ1: What are the dominant frames used to portray female football stories in Ghana?	87
4.1.1. Male Reference	88
4.1.2 Sexism	93
4.1.3 Mental Weakness	99
4.2.4. Hierarchy of Naming	106
4.2.0 RQ 2: What is the level of consistency among the newspapers on the gender portrayal of female football stories?	110
4.3.0. Summary	111
CHAPTER FIVE	113
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	113
5.0 Introduction	113
5.1.0 Summary	113
5.2.0 Conclusion	117
5.3.0 Further Researches	120
5.4.0 Limitations of the Study	122

5.5 Recommendations	123
REFERENCES	125
APPENDIX A	142
APPENDIX B	145
TABLE 1 Frequency distribution for frames on female football stories	88



ABSTRACT

This study sought to investigate how the Ghanaian print media frame or portrays female football stories in Ghana. The study was based on the Agenda Setting, Framing and Feminist theories. The study used qualitative method for the data collection and analysis. Two sports newspapers, the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports*, were selected and content analysed for the study. The study showed that the Ghanaian print media often portrayed female footballers and coaches as mentally weak with no focus and drive; female footballers were also mostly mentioned in reference to males mostly when they were successful. These types of portrayals can perpetuate gender bias and stereotypes, undermine the true agile ability of female footballers and coaches, and give the audience the idea that male football is more important than female football. The study also showed that female football stories were often ignored, sidelined and even relegated to the background because they were seen as lesser in skills and knowledge. The study concludes that in Ghana, there is gender bias in the media representations of female football, regardless of their increased participation and string of successes. This mode of reportage sets a particular agenda for female football stories to be relegated to the background and sets back the opportunity to build an audience for female football. This will go a long way to silence female footballers, female coaches and their accomplishments altogether. The results from this study also provide a foundation for those who wish to further explore and raise awareness on framing of female football.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to the study, focusing on the background, statement of problem, objectives and research questions. The significance of the study and the scope and limitation of the study are also outlined.

1.1.0 Background of the Study

Two words, 'media' and 'football', seem to be recurring over and over again (Lamprey, 2015) because of how they depend on each other for success. The two (2) go hand in hand like a horse and carriage and "a positive and mutually beneficial relationship" (Chadwick and Hamil, 2010, p.66) is created when they come together to work. Media and football, a sport, are very imperative to the lives of the people in almost every society. The two influence each other in myriad of ways. Past analysis implies that the relationship between sports and the mass media is one of mutual interdependence and of reciprocal influence (Battenfield, Dzaloshinsky and Todd, 2010). Therefore, if the media has become the lens through which sporting images are portrayed, and is the convex mirror through which everything is reflected, then it can be claimed that sports and the mass media are inextricably linked in a mutually beneficial relationship (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983, as cited in Battenfield, Dzaloshinsky and Todd, 2010).

In countless ways, sports and the media are typical outcomes and icons of the far-reaching social, economic and technological change of the Twentieth Century. Each of them has developed expansively and quickly as a major global industry. Each plays a significant part in structuring and informing people's lives. Each has a global and more local scope of operation and has the structures and practices to reflect this. Importantly, they are two industries fixed together in complex networks of relationships. Their individual histories of growth and advancement have been powered and influenced by the dynamics of this partnership. The evidence of the partnership is all too obvious. The wellbeing of particular sports or, indeed, sports as a whole has become linked to income generated directly or indirectly from the media. The way in which sports fill newspaper pages and television and radio and even the internet schedules bears testimony to the influence it has on the structure and extent of media activity.

It appears the relationship between media and sports has become of particular interest to media scholars over the last decade (Bernstein and Blain, 2009) due to how media affect almost everything. Boyle (2010), in agreement to this states that "There has also been a growing interest in the particular relationship between journalism (media) and sports and how this long historical relationship has evolved and developed as both journalism (media) and the sports industry have changed" (p. 3). Media and football are two (2) symbiotic entities that, when are connected, they help in the proper development of society. Sports, including football, and the mass media enjoy a very symbiotic relationship in the society (McChesney, 1989, as cited in Beck & Bosshart, 2003). This is to say that both sports and media are mutually dependent on each other. Beck and

Bosshart (2003) continued to assert that “The very symbiotic relationship between media and sports has profoundly affected both participants” (p.3). Both sports and media keep on trying to reach people like spectators, fans as well as consumers because advertising industry forms part of the relationship. Battenfield, Dzaloshinsky and Todd (2010) assert that “the symbiotic relationship between mass media and sports reinforces the importance and power of sports that is embedded in our cultural landscape” (p. 2). Govender (2010) mentions that just as sport is critical to the media, the media is equally critical to sport. According to Sohr (2013) as cited in Kusi (2017), the media industries and sports teams are connected by mutual interest, convenience and need.

The media – and sports – provide two powerful socialising influences in the society and today with its reach extended by digital technology, the media is the socialising agent of our times (North, 2012). It represents the world to us, shapes our knowledge and histories, and influences our values and attitudes.

Nazemi and Khashemehr (2012), remind us that “sport’s relationship with the media has many positive aspects” (p.624). They further revealed that the mass media’s ability to reach the general public and introduce them into the game by stating that “media allows the public access to a variety of sports” (Nazemi & Khashemehr, 2012, p.624) which includes football. Sports provides valuable content and audiences for media operators, the media is a revenue source and promotional tool for sports (Bolotny & Bourg, 2006, as cited in Lefever, 2012). Media and sports are natural team mates. Lussier and Kimball (2014) posited that the media is the lens through which most of us view most of the sports we follow and the media continually tells us what to think about sports – the media

shapes our thinking about sports and ourselves. The masses, spectators, supporters and fans of sports, football for that matter, get to know about sports through the mass media. For instance, in their research, Nazemi and Khashemehr (2012, p.624) stated the media “allows access to sports to be made available to a mass audience and it can provide access for the old, the infirm and those displaced from their hometown.” It is worth noting that sports and the media interact a lot and Marwat, Waseem, Khattak, Abbass and Bi (2014) assert that sports, as a field of live action and entertainment, need the media to provide path to that live action in order to reach the masses of near and remote areas. The impact of the media on sports is very evident here. It is an undeniable fact that enthusiastic fans are ready to know more about their favourite teams, their favourite athletes, their favourite footballers and the opportunity to say what went wrong in the match, what is happening to their teams and why their coach should be fired.

The media which “serves as a system for communicating messages and symbols to the general populace” (Herman & Chomsky, 1998, p.1), with its ubiquity, is a powerful tool that can be used to do these and even more. The media, according to Asakitikpi (2010, p.49), does “not only aid in the promotion of events (including football) but also in the promotion of the people behind the event” and the people who participate in the events.

1.1.1 Sports as Revenue and Identity Making

There have been a number of studies in media and 'since the 1980s, the media have become the main source of revenue for professional sports' (Popescu–Joudey, 2009). Scholars say that, sports has become a bankable item: audience ratings and advertising revenue help guarantee a channel’s success. The media today, as it has been witnessed in

most countries, cannot survive without sport (Coakley, 2001). The story is not different from what happens in Ghana. Many scholars believe that sports has become strategically significant to the economic viability of many Ghanaian organisations. In 2008 when Ghana hosted the African Cup of Nations, a lot of organisations including hotels, corporate bodies, industries, just to mention a few, made millions of cedis by associating themselves to the tournament. Again, when the country hosted the Women's' African Cup of Nations in 2018, there were even more organisations, institutions, corporate bodies, coming on board to do more businesses due to the tournament. There are organisations, entities and individuals who take advantage of the Premier League in Ghana to make a lot of money. Sports is becoming increasingly commercialised and sports entities have become more professional over the years. Revenues are generated by media broadcasts, tickets, sponsorships, merchandises, just to name a few and sport events are transmitted easily all over the world as media content (Rahimizadeh, Sajadi, Goodarzi and Ghamati, 2012). Not too long ago, DSTV and Startimes were covering the Premier League in Ghana and other people beyond the borders of the country, get to watch the matches. All these and many more show the relationship between media and sports, in general, and football to be precise.

Sports is so powerful that a lot of countries have depended on it to project their countries to the world. Ghana is no exception. The general view is that Ghana has used sports, football especially, to put itself on the world map. Ghana's first president and prime minister, Osagyefo Dr Kwame Nkrumah saw that need to use sports as a public relations tool to market the "Blackman" after so many years of negative perceptions that had been conceived by Europe and the rest of the world that Africa was a continent of doom where

mothers ate their own babies (Quarcoo, 2006). The sports policy of Dr Kwame Nkrumah was to project the country's image to the international community through sports (Mensah, 2016). He saw the power of sports and the role it could play in the new Ghana, after Ghana had attained its independence from the British in 1957 (Quarcoo, 2006) It is so obvious how success in sport could create pride, dignity and unity in the people of Ghana. Sports can be used to do a lot of public relations work for a country like Ghana and the media can be used as a conduit to do that work. The media make the sport an important public issue and; with the help of entertaining stimuli, sell them (Beck and Bosshart, 2003). Sports has become an integral source of entertainment for contemporary societies (Beck and Bosshart, 2003).

Scholars have found that we can look at sports as a catalyst – sports change us, create desires and forge our identities. The media support all these efforts by reporting on sports to the public. The media are the lens through which we have access to sports and they continually tell us what to think about sports – from persuasive arguments about athletes and footballers to messages about our very identity. It is a general view that the media shape our thinking about sports and about our identity.

The media are instrumental in defining what we think, how we look and our social place and issues in the society. Through the media, we gather our knowledge not only of our immediate world but also of the complex global village in which we now live. It acts as a key socialisation agent and is integral to framing, determining and influencing our picture of reality. Media is the main means of mass communication. According to Meigas (2008, p.6), “McQuail describes media as a social institution within the society with its own

rules and practices.” On the other hand, “Creedon (1994) found that sports is both an expression of the socio-cultural system in which it occurs and a mirror of the rituals and values of the society in which they are developed (Creedon, 1994 as cited in Toro, 2005). Creedon (2004) asserts that athletes and teams become our symbolic mirrors defending the honour of our schools, towns or nations. Beck and Bosshart (2003) also refer to sports as a playful self-development, self actualisation, and competitive use of physical and mental skill.

According to Woods (2007) sports is defined as “an institutionalised, competitive activity that involves physical skills and specialised facilities or equipment and is conducted according to an accepted set of rules to determine the winner” (as cited in Mwambwa, 2007, p.9). Scholars have found that sports is an entrenched part of our lives that help define our culture.

Jarvie (2006) supported this claim when he indicated that the relationship between sports and ... culture has rested upon ... sports as contributing to a particular way of life of different sub cultures; sports as contributing to forms of cultural policy, sports as one form of the broader notion of body culture ... sports can also support social and cultural identities and the construction of national identities.

Sports is the window shop of our society (Schann, 2014). According to Karahüseyinoğlu (2012), sports is a social reality that enables people to develop, explore themselves and to make social relations that makes contribution to social integration and which has become the center of interest by all kinds of people from all types and age groups. It is generally

accepted that soccer is one of the most popular sports in the world. Soccer, also known as football, is considered the most popular sport in the world (Bangsbo, 1994).

Sports, in particular football, constitutes one of the most dynamic, sociologically revealing domains of globalisation (Guilianoti & Robertson, 2004). People of varying economic, social and racial backgrounds find a common ground when supporting their home nation during games (Billing, 2008). For instance, during the World Cup competitions in Germany, South Africa, and Brazil, this was clearly seen, without a doubt, as Ghana and other countries of different backgrounds met on one world stage to compete for the gold. Football has contributed greatly to enhance consciousness of human kind (Guilianati & Robertson, 2004,) so men and women football should be given the same importance if football is to contribute more fully to the world itself.

1.1.2 Media, Sports and Gender

McGuigan (2012) found that sport has traditionally been regarded a male-dominated and male-centered, leaving little space for women to enter into, thrive or succeed. McGuigan, (2012) further notes that “the realm of sports has often been criticised for its clear association with hegemonic masculinity and male domination” (p. 13). Football has been played more by men, watched more by men and crucially controlled by men. This is definitely not a product of the nature of sport; it is part of a more general pattern in which social power is brought to bear by men over women. Sports is profoundly and openly gendered or rather in most instances 'musculinised'. In fact, a number of authors argue that perhaps more than any other social institution, sports propagates male superiority and

female inferiority (for example, see Bernstein, 2002; Cole, 1993; Duncan & Hasbrook, 2002, Hall, 1996; Hargreaves, 1994; Messner, 1988; Willis 1982; Young, 1995). Gender bias and inequality are evident in both sports and media. It is not unexpected, therefore, that patriarchy is a characteristic of sports media products. It is an area that has come under close and extensive scrutiny (see, for example, Birrell & Cole, 1994; Duncan & Hasbrook, 1988; Eastman & Billings, 2000; Theberge, 1989; Williams et al., 1986). Media sport ownership and production are male dominated; sport and media sport are important aspects of culture which help to underpin male hegemony in society (Birrell and Theberge, 1994).

In the same way, for Duncan and Messner (1998), sports is becoming increasingly significant as it provides opportunities for men to assert their dominance at a time when male hegemony is continually challenged and opposed in everyday life (as cited in McGuigain, 2011). Although females have increasingly gained access to and enjoy participation in a variety of sports, scholars and lay people alike have called tackle football the “last bastion” of male power domination (Krawec, 2014). This is to say that, the condition for women in sports has improved considerably, with the expansion of sports now open to women and increase in the number of women entering into the traditionally all male sport (Lamprey, 2013). Nonetheless, the struggle to secure equality is far from over, as both popular and academic debates on women’s participations in sports show (Lamprey, 2013). It appears there is no equity in the coverage for men and women. As stated by Grappendorf, Henderson, Sanders and Peel (2007), equitable coverage can be defined in several ways.

First and foremost, researchers have argued that equity is not achieved by solely providing an equal number of articles and photographs, but also, as stated by Fink and Kensicki (2002), by not discrediting females by using them as plain sex symbols in the media while men are depicted as powerful and talented athletes. Secondly, equitable sports coverage should also provide equal coverage to all *types* of sports; females participating in sports deemed by society as masculine (i.e., rugby, basketball, soccer) should be covered at the same rates as sports considered to be feminine (i.e., golf, tennis, swimming) (Kane, 1996, as cited in Grappendorf, Henderson, Sanders & Peel, 2007). Thirdly, in view of the fact that coverage of sports can create excitement and drama surrounding a sporting event (Messner, Duncan, & Wachs, 1996), it is important to examine the quality or type of coverage being provided.

Even in tennis tournaments where male and female competitions were run concurrently, Domeneghetti (2018) found that male players gained more coverage than female players despite the increase in female coverage. He again found that the media image of female players was constructed in accordance with traditional subordinate, passive and sexualised roles (Domeneghetti, 2018). The United Nations Division for Advancement of Women Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2007) stated that female athletes are often given little recognition and unfairly framed in the media when compared to their male counterparts. This may be interpreted by the audience as an indication that women are inferior in the field of sports.

The problem of women in sports and its relationship with the media has always been a hot topic with a variety of debates, opinions and perspectives. Certain media, including

the print media, have framed women's sport as not being as significant as male sport. The ace journalist Greg Baum wrote an article titled "*Count Me Out: Women Must Earn Coverage*" stating that women's sports did not deserve to receive mass media coverage (Baum, 2016). This is not different when it comes to football but if we will not underestimate the power of sports and football in particular, then women's football must be given the importance male football enjoys. Both male and female footballers and their teams perform in high status competition, but most often than not, it appears the print media coverage of those games are more focused on male footballers or male football stories than that of female stories. According to research on sports media, reporters have gender biases (Fischer, 2010). Meanwhile journalism is supposed to be balanced (McNair, 2008) and if sports can be used to develop a society, then male and female should be given equal coverage. Nonetheless, women are marginalised in the media (Billings, Halone & Denham, 2002,). Mintert (2013, p.2) added that "The reason for the lack of media coverage is a complex issue which may be connected with a low interest in women's sport in general" but the media being a powerful tool can be used to whip up interest in that direction.

Sports news and sports reporting are highly gendered around the globe, and Ghana, with its strong sporting identification, is no exception. Various studies, typically using content analysis, have found that women's sports are under-represented in the sports media and largely framed as less exciting and less newsworthy than men's sports (Duncan & Messner 1998; Kinkema & Harris 1998; Jones 2006). In the same vein, successive studies have shown that sports women "are significantly under-represented in quantity and misrepresented in quality of sports coverage" (Godoy-Pressland, 2014, p. 66).

Sociologists of sports have strongly argued that “contemporary sporting practices” (including media coverage) “perpetuate beliefs about male superiority and female inferiority” (Lensky 1998, p.19) because sporting achievement is largely based on speed, strength and endurance. When sport is looked at, this way, it typically advantages male sports and sportsmen. It is worth noting that sports news content has largely ignored women’s achievements.

Female athletes and female sports get little coverage and less quality in the media relative to their male counterparts. It is rare to find inches of newspaper columns and photographs allocated to women’s sports. Few female sports are to be found in television (media) schedules and those that are, tend to be given a low profile. Not only is the quantity of the media coverage of women’s sport highly limited, but its form and quality have also to be questioned. The media are seen to stereotype, trivialise and sexualise female athletes (Duncan, 1990; Duquin, 1989; MacNeil, 1988). Sportswomen are either put down as not fitting male perceptions of appropriate femininity or they are glamourised. Attention has been drawn to photographic approaches that highlight and emphasise the physical characteristics and attractiveness of some female athletes. The narrative that is attached to the media output is of a similar nature, often with sporting prowess disregarded or played down. There are fewer high-profile female athletes, a fact reflective of the low media attention paid to women’s sports in general. Those that do exist usually correspond to stereotypical images which frequently view sporting ability as a seemingly secondary consideration. An example is the extensive media coverage given to the Russian tennis player, Anna Kournikova: media interest has focused primarily on her physical attributes rather than her prowess on court.

Mwamba (2007) acknowledges that studies of the media have demonstrated clearly that women's coverage is still very low and limited in areas of sport, even though there have been increased in female participation in sports. Studies on print have revealed inequalities when comparing the coverage of women's athletic events to men's athletic events (Billings & Eastman, 2003; Kane, 1996; Tuggle, Huffman & Rosengard, 2002) and also how they are presented in the media. It has been revealed in most researches that "males are offered both more media attention and more salient coverage" (Banet – Weiser, 1999; Billings, Halone & Denham, 2002). An example of a study conducted in the United Kingdom by Women Sport Fitness Foundation (WSFF) found that on the average, only 5% of sports coverage in national and local print media is dedicated to women's sports (Sport Scotland, 2008). And if they do, the quality and representation is low.

In the same light, a study conducted in Australia reveals that women have made a consistent and significant contribution to Australian sports at all levels, yet their achievements on the whole receive limited coverage by the mass media (McGrouther, 2011). It appears that the quality and quantity of the coverage of women's sports by the media is not an accurate reflection of the amount of sport played or watched by women. Media coverage and representation is generally inadequate and selective. In Ghana, we will not be far from right if we say the story is not different. A high media profile is for attracting sponsorship, spectators and other sources of financial support (Amoako, Dartey-Baah, Dzogbenuku & Junior, 2012). This is one of the many reasons why

coverage and representation must be equitable for both male and female football (Lim, 2018).

Although women's participation in sport has reached unprecedented heights (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008), research shows that media coverage of female athletes still lags behind that of men's (Duncan, Messner, & Williams, 1991; Fink, 1998; Fink & Kensicki, 2002; Tuggle & Owen, 1999). The point that is being reiterated here is that even though women have come a long way when it comes to sports and football participation, the issue of gender discrimination and sexism is still prevalent in the industry and football is no exception. Additionally, research has indicated the quality or ways in which men and women sport is covered is inequitable (Messner, Duncan, & Cooky, 2003). Scholars have found that the story is not different in other parts of the world. For instance, preliminary findings of a media monitoring project of the National Organisation for Women in Sport Physical Activity and Recreation in Zambia found that "less than 15% of all stories on the sports pages of daily newspapers in Zambia are about women" (Mwambwa, 2007, p.19).

Kusi (2017) also found that women are underrepresented in media coverage and that there is gender bias as female athletes are seen as less credible than male athletes. Again, he found that women are seen as weak and framed as mothers than athletes in action.

"Soccer, also known as football or association football" (Vigar, 2008, p.228) occupies a special place in the Ghanaian society and has enjoyed a lot of coverage in the media especially the print media, but this cannot be said about the balance when it comes to male and female football stories. It is perceived that over the past few years women's football in Ghana has gained some measure of importance but the media coverage is

favoured towards men. More coverage and positive presentation are directed toward male football stories and footballers than females even though they both participate in the world class football tournaments and both have regular leagues. This is to say that women football news is not given the importance that the male soccer is given. Since the passage of Title IX in 1972, male and female athletes in collegiate sports were expected to have equal access to equipment and practice facilities, media representation, coaches of the same quality, and scholarship money proportional to participation (Huffman et al., 2004). As powerful as the print media is, it must give equal presentation and/ representation to both male and female football stories. This is because the way male football can sell the country out there and help with development to assist economic growth, the female football too can sell the country thereby making investors aware of the country.

Many Stories have been done on media and football but less concern has been given to the importance the media give to female football, how female football is presented or represented in the media and its implications to development. In my opinion, the passion for male football is not the same for female football and it affects patronage and support for the women's national teams. It is evident that most people are more interested in male football than female football. Sections of Ghanaians prefer to watch, listen or read about men's football at the expense of women's football. This development is due largely to the perception that football is a masculine rather than a feminine sport. Another difficulty is that today, the average Ghanaian soccer fan can mention the entire squad of the men's team without blinking an eye. Ask the names or players of these women's teams or even

the women's national teams of Ghana and you will be disappointed, if not disgusted and appalled, by the lack of knowledge on women's football.

With their framing and agenda-setting functions, the print media is part of this problem. Ghanaian newspapers and sports newspapers give majority of their spaces reporting on men's football and teams. It is perceived that newspapers like *Graphic Sports*, *Sports Fylla*, *90 Minutes*, *All Sports*, *Ghana Sports*, *Daily Graphic*, *Ghanaian Times*, *Finder Sports* and many others, splash their pages with these men's football news giving some small space for women's sports news at some corner, hardly noticeable for the reader and even these small spaces allotted to them are trivialised. This makes the reader want to leave female games and follow that of the males. Having loyal fans and a winning team generally results in higher attendance at game (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995) but our newspapers have not helped the women's teams in that direction by reporting on them and their football stories. Arguably, the newspapers have lost their sense of patriotism and balance helping only men's football rather than developing women's football.

This issue about our print media or newspapers leaving our women's football and promoting the men's football has become one sensitive issue that has received so many public debate and interest. It is this public interest, coupled with the spaces allotted to the male football and how female football and footballers are presented and/or re-presented in the media that have made this topic a relevant area to study. Again, it is important to study how the media represent female because the media help shape society's beliefs about them.

1.2.0 Statement of the Problem

The media perform a vital role within society, and in particular, is a powerful tool which influences our beliefs, attitudes, and the values we have of ourselves and others as well as the world surrounding us (Koivula, 1999, p. 589). Some of media's numerous roles and functions are to educate, inform, to entertain, to amuse, to shape opinion, to persuade, to inculcate individuals with the values, beliefs and codes of behaviour that will integrate them into the institutional structures of the larger society and to set agenda (Lamprey, 2015; Herman & Chomsky, 1998). The media also play a role of influencing people or audience to accept something (Lamprey, 2015). Accordingly, the media do not merely reflect reality, instead it can entail a process of negotiation and reconstruction, which shapes and manages our beliefs and opinions (McGuigan, 2011). Football is the passion of a lot of countries and Ghana is no exception. Football is the religion of the age and it is the opium of the masses (Routledge, 2013).

Hargreaves (1994) declares that in recent years, the mass media have played an active role in side-lining and trivialising female sporting success with the ultimate aim of preserving sports as a male domain (as cited in King, 2007). A majority of the media analysed to date have revealed the same troubling result; sports media do not cover male and female athletes in an equitable manner (Malik, 2016). Even though women have continued to move upscale in all walks of life, they are still disempowered and misrepresented by the media (Blaha, 2009; Ranchod, 2007), as cited in Kusi (2017). When women are represented in that manner, it contributes negatively to their

development, their personality and even how a society can use their game for development and put a nation on the world map.

McGuigan (2010) established that on average, male sports receive far more and positive coverage than any female sports, and moreover, this coverage is much wider. There is a view that mass media, and print media (newspapers) for that matter, have ignored female football. It is a general view that women have made a consistent and significant contribution to Ghana and other countries, yet their achievements on the whole have received limited coverage and have been trivialised by the mass media. Meanwhile Lamptey (2015) explained that it is important to note how soccer is now the platform for the successful running of big organisations. The game can put a country on the world map, making its citizens, culture, philosophy to be respected, thereby attracting investors and tourist to come to that country. According to Wolter (2015) media portrayal of male and female athletes are important because sports (in general, football in particular) is a key place where gender norms are defined, circulated and maintained.

Studies have found that media coverage of women's sports is inadequate when compared with coverage of men's sports (Malik, 2016). The results of these studies have revealed inadequacies in terms of amount of coverage as well as type of coverage (Malik, 2016). Previous research by Bissell and Holt (2006) used framing theory to analyse the gender bias coverage of the 2004 Olympic Games via the Internet. They used photography to test the dominance male receive in the media as against female. The researchers concluded that photographing men in a particular way emphasised strength, masculinity, and superiority and the angles used to photograph females emphasised femininity and

weakness. Again, Bernstein (2002) found an amazing difference between the sport coverage of men's and women's sport on sport - related programmes on BBC 1. Bernstein (2002) found that the representation of women in football related stories served to confirm the portrayal of women and young girls as participating in an essentially male sport, in which "women are afforded only subordinate and/or highly sexualised roles".

Again, there are a number of studies that have shown the increase in the coverage of female sports but it still cannot be compared to that of male. Domeneghetti (2018) in his study mentioned that his results when compared to previous studies, show an increase in the amount of coverage for female. His study and other studies in other jurisdictions have shown how women or female athletes have been (re) presented as inactive, negative or sexualised through texts and images. Domeneghetti (2018) did his studies in tennis so this study attempts to examine whether the same thing happens in the game of football.

According to Asakitikpi (2010) there is a gender imbalance in the Nigerian newspapers and that the media, especially newspapers, do not give equal opportunity for male and female in their reportage. McGuigan (2011) identified, through media analysis, that there is an undeniable saturation of male sports in the British media, in particular men's football.

In Ghana, it is evident that women have made a lot of strides when it comes to sports in general and football yet they have been under represented in the media. Past researches have been done in media framing in Ghana but those studies have focused on general issues like politics, flood, same-sex relationships and health (Amevor, 2014; Appiah,

2017; Azanu, 2012; Ofori-Birikorang, 2009; Ayikpa, 2015). There is little that has been done on sports in Ghana. For instance, Kusi (2017) looked at how female athletes are framed in the Ghanaian newspapers. Tuah (2016) also did a phenomenological study on women in sports journalism. But minimal attention has been directed to football. Even so, the existing study done in this context used quantitative and focused on number of coverage (Lampsey, 2015). That study looked at the relative importance that newspapers give to female football reportage. This has therefore created a gap in the study of how the media present or re-present, that is frame, female football stories in Ghana.

This study examines media framing of female football reportage in Ghana and see if the newspapers are not trivialising the female football by framing and setting the agenda for readers.

1.3.0 Objectives of the Study

The study expects to broadly analyse framing of female football stories in *Graphic Sports* and *Finder Sports* newspapers in Ghana.

The specific objectives are:

1. To examine the dominant frames used to portray female football stories in Ghana.
2. To analyse the level of consistency among the newspapers on the gender portrayal of female football stories.

1.4.0 Research Questions

1. What are the dominant frames used to portray female football stories in Ghana?
2. What is the level of consistency among the newspapers on the gender portrayal of female football stories?

1.5.0 Significance of the Study

It is imperative to study how the media represent female football stories, athletes and sporting events because just like any other group, the media help shape society's beliefs about them (Adams & Tuggle, 2004; Cooky, Hextrum, & Messner, 2013; Duncan, Jensen, & Messner, 1993). If those depictions are misguided then female athletes and society as a whole are both put at a disadvantage. Both sports and media construct stereotypes that maintain gender-inequality, so it is important to study the ways these two institutions interact with each other (Buysse and Embser-Herbert, 2004). Again, Shifflett and Revelle (1994) contended that due to the fact that media often serve to frame what is acceptable, expected, and desirable, inequitable coverage could potentially undermine the accomplishments and value of women in sports.

Studying the gendered coverage in the Ghanaian football reportage, the research adds to the advancement of knowledge. It will add on to the database of information in the area of gender, framing and football. It will be beneficial to academia. It will also add to the existing body of research into international research on sports content production and hopefully encourage similar investigations elsewhere. It will promote scholarship, help educational institutions and also help policy makers so that the public will be made aware

of framing issues and change their perception towards female football. It will be a guide to sports journalists and sports journalism students to understand how women are framed in sports-media and to educate them to avoid these frames.

1.6.0 Scope and Limitation of the Study

This study is focused on looking at how the print media in Ghana represent female football stories in the newspapers. This study is limited to newspapers. Despite the number of newspapers, we have in Ghana, the study focused on *Graphic Sports*, and *the Finder Sports* newspapers. These were purposively selected because of their characteristics which will help the researcher gather data. That is, they are both sports newspapers which report on sporting activities including football, they both cover men and women football stories and *Graphic Sports* represents public while *Finder Sports* represents private ownerships. The study will be limited to one year's edition of the papers. That is from January, 2018 to December, 2018. This year was chosen because a lot of football activities for both male and female happened in this particular year.

1.7.0 Chapter Organisation

The study consists of five chapters. **Chapter one (1)** deals with the introduction and or background to the study, statement of problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, scope and limitation of the study and the organisation of the study. It outlines the introduction and media and football. **Chapter two (2)** which the literature review on the study looks at related studies and also provides a theoretical framework to guide the research. **Chapter three (3)** discusses the approach

used to address my research question, the explanation data, empirical results and interpretation of data while **Chapter four (4)** looks at findings and discussions of the study. **Chapter five (5)** concludes the thesis with the summary, discussion of findings, conclusion and recommendations for future studies.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Literature review is the most important aspect of a research work as Darling (1986) has suggested, literature review is very significant in terms of providing information about the work of researchers and whether the idea has been investigated before or not (as cited in Alomenu, 2015). It sets up the framework for the study. The need to read, synthesise and analyse related works on a phenomenon under study is very imperative so as to have a view about what other researchers have been able to find out about the topic. This review, according to Ayikpi (2015), may take the form of comparison of methodologies applied, theoretical frameworks that underpinned the research, and findings in order to draw similarities or differences that are relevant to the current study.

This chapter therefore discusses all the relevant literature and written documents that are of concern to the research problem. It also reviews what other writers have said in relation to the important aspect of this study. This review process entails an analysis of documents that dwell on information related to the problem under investigation. The chapter shows a significant relationship between existing knowledge and the problem being investigated. According Creswell (2014), literature review provides insight into ways in which the researcher can limit the scope to a needed area of inquiry.

In undertaking a study such as investigating how the media frame women football in Ghana, it is imperative to review relevant studies and also draw on other people's works to learn how much of the issues relating to the topic under study has already been executed and various approaches available for use. The chapter, therefore, looks at the existing body of knowledge on the subject of framing, sports, football and media. This session is concerned with the in-depth review of available literature and related researches that have been conducted in the field of media and football and also outlines the theoretical framework which gives a solid academic grounding to this study.

This study seeks to analyse how the media frame women football in Ghana by looking at the paragraphs of two sports newspapers (the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports*).

2.1.0 Media and Sports

Almost everyone is dealing with the phenomenon of sports in today's world, and according to Tavakolli, Najafi and Ramezani (2013), people are either athletes or sport fans who follow sports news and materials in mass media including radio, TV and newspapers. Sports is a global phenomenon and is a significant part of society. It helps to link countries, including Ghana, to the global world. Sports is one of the well-published issues in the world. Due to how it affects personal and social life, sports have attracted the attention of people and governments in the world over; and mass media is an important means of sports development.

Sports issues gain a lot of publicity and discussions in the media. According to McChesney (1989), sports and the mass media enjoy a very symbiotic relationship (as cited in Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Govender (2010) agrees to this when he states that sports is a universal phenomenon and therefore has a symbiotic relationship with the media and that sports transcends all social, political and ethnic barriers and its appeal crosses educational levels, religious preferences and language groups. This is to say, that sports and mass media depend on each other in the societal system and the two need to work together effectively for success. Sports and media are important to each other and Govender (2010) again explained this by asserting that sports is critical to the media and the media is equally critical to sports. The media help shape our perceptions, insights, discernments and beliefs, affect how people think; affect emotion, shape ideas, and create heroes. Subsequently, the media communicate the importance of sport in our lives. The media is so central that Rogers and Dearing (1988) state that issues which are not given attention by the media will hardly be disseminated beyond their points of origin. The media, therefore, need to reflect reality and not the deeply embedded community attitudes and stereotypes about women in sport (as cited in Govender 2010).

It is a well-known fact that sports and mass media try to reach people as spectators, fans, and consumers; both actively affect the audience as well as the advertising market; including the sponsors (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Bolotny and Bourg (2006) emphasised that while sports give valuable contents and audiences for media operators, the media are a revenue source and promotional tool for sports (as cited in Lefever, 2012). It is important to note that sports and the media interact a lot and Marwat, Waseem, Khattak,

Abbass and Bi (2014) assert that sports, as a field of live action and entertainment, need the media to provide path to that live action in order to reach the masses of near and remote areas. Sports and media are so connected that the relationship between the two, according to Tuah (2016), is the defining commercial connection for both industries at the beginning of the twenty-first century. Again Kusi (2017) reiterated that both sides depend on one another to maintain their commercial success and their prominent place in popular culture.

The interdependency between sports and media cannot be underestimated in today's society. That is why Bruce (2012) holds that in today's globalised, corporatised sporting environment, the media ensures the transmission of sporting events whether via the traditional mainstream media formats of radio, television, and newspapers or the increasing diversity of internet-based option such as online news, live streaming video, blogs, tweets. YouTube, mobile phone apps, and sport and athlete websites.

Since the media shape the interest of the public, under-reporting women in sports keep accomplishments of women at a distance. This, in turn, minimises the achievements of more than half of the world's population. The way the print media addresses or ignores this pressing situation is critical. According to Boyle and Haynes (2000, p.262),

Mediated discourses of sports play an important part in producing, naturalising and even constructing values, attitudes and sometimes prejudices, which circulate in wider society. Issues about media

representations are fundamentally about power and status in society. A community or individual's ability to feel represented within a media discourse is in part related to assumptions about the power of the media to shape and change public opinion.

The media need to give an accurate representation of sporting events and not distorted constructions presented to the public.

2.2.0 Sports and the Press

According Beck and Bosshart (2003), the press is the oldest medium regularly informing people about sports. Sports teams, from the beginning, showed strong interest in print media coverage: Newspapers formed the primary means of bringing news of coming events-built audiences for sporting contests and together with the results of past events, helped to sell newspapers (Lever & Wheeler, 1993).

The first newspapers, according to Beck & Bosshart (2003), were published in the beginning of the 17th Century and about 150 years later the first sports-related articles appeared. In the middle of the 18th Century sports became a topic in newspapers of the United States. Those reports about sporting events initially formed a part of the newspapers' local section. The first newspaper with a special sports section was the *Morning Herald* in England in 1817, followed by other English and American papers: *The Globe* in England in 1818, *The American Farmer* in USA in 1819, and *Bell's Life* in England in 1824. *The Times*, the conservative London paper, introduced its sports section

in 1829 (Oriad, 2001). All these sports sections contained local news, as telegraph transmission was not yet available.

There was a rising popularity of sports such as baseball in the U.S. or football and cycling in Europe after 1870 and that made the sports sections become more important. At the time, telegraph transmission had come and made it possible to report sports news instantly from outside the local area, consequently allowing for the first time in history collective involvement in distant sporting events (Lever & Wheeler, 1993). The telegraph was not only used by print media journalists, but also by sports fans themselves. (Cellini, 1997). Newspapers and magazine became a good for everybody (Beck & Bosshart, 2003).

When electronic media had been introduced, especially television, the purpose of the sports pages changed. Other media were able to report the results and the course of a match or a race much faster than the newspapers (Garrison & Sablijak, 1993) (as cited in Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Live reporting on radio and television increased the general interest in sports, but due to a lack of time TV and radio reporters could not give enough background information (MacCambridge, 2010). So, it became the newspaper journalists' task to provide this kind of news: analyses, comments, and from within and outside the field, track or arena. Sports journalism in newspapers became more demanding and achieved a higher level of professionalism than before (Wernecken, 2000).

It is basic to note that sports reporting in newspapers seem to be relatively successful today: however, television remains the leading medium for sports, the daily and weekly

sports sections are also popular, especially among young readers (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). In Ghana, there are daily, weekly and bi-weekly newspapers which devote some pages at the back of their newspapers for sports stories. Again, there are yet other newspapers like; *Graphic Sports*, *Times Sports*, *Finder Sports*, *Africa Sports*, *All Sports*, *Kotoko Express*, *The Phobia*, *Ball*, *Guide Sports*, *90 Minutes*, just to mention a few, which are wholly dedicated to sports stories. The stories cover a wide range of sporting activities but football stories dominate (Mehler, 2006).

2.3.0 The Ghanaian Media

According to the National Media Commission (NMC), currently, there are over thirty (30) established newspapers that carry news on sports in the country (Lamprey, 2015). Some papers are basically established to report on sports. Newspapers like the *Graphic Sports*, *Finder Sports*, *African Sports*, *Kotoko Express*, *Hearts News*, *All Sports*, *90 Minutes*, and *Sport Fylla*, to mention a few, report on sports only. Others like *The Daily Graphic*, *Ghanaian Times*, *The Chronicle*, *Daily Guide* and others, carry news with a page or two (2) allotted for sports.

The media have played a massive role in the development of the game (B. Koufie, personal communication, 2010). The more they write, the better it is for the populace to join in and the interest is created to get what we, the populace, need for sports. Tsorme (2009) explains that the growth and popularity of football globally depends on the development of the mass media. The publicity and spotlight given to sports has been very massive over the years. The electronic media coverage of various tournaments, the print

writing on the events have both given fans and enthusiasts the needed awareness and passion towards the game.

The print media give a lot of spaces to the local football league and other sporting activities locally. With those publications, soccer fans are able to gather news about their idol clubs and teams. Spectators get attached to clubs the more they are exposed to news about these clubs and matches. Due to this, Lamptey (2015) states that, the local teams have a lot of followers going to the stadium to watch their darling teams play but the level of coverage and importance given to men's football is not accorded women's football. This has affected the supporting level of women football in Ghana.

The passion for male football is not the same for female football and it affects patronage and support for the women's national teams (FIFA Activity Report, 2017). It is evident that most people are much more interested in male football than women's football. Sections of Ghanaians prefer to watch, listen or read about men's football at the expense of women's football. This development is due largely to the perception that football is a masculine rather than a feminine sport.

With their agenda-setting functions, the print media is part of the problem of depicting football as masculine rather than feminine. Ghanaian newspapers and sports newspapers give majority of their spaces reporting on men's football and teams (Lamptey, 2015). It is perceived that newspapers like *Graphic Sports*, *Finder Sports*, *Sports Fylla*, *90 Minutes*, *All Sports*, *Ghana Sports*, *Daily Graphic*, *Ghanaian Times*, and many others, splash their pages with these men's football news giving some small space for women's sports news at some corner, hardly noticeable for the reader. This makes the reader want to leave

women's games and follow that of the men. Having loyal fans and a winning team generally results in higher attendance at game (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995) but our newspapers have not helped the women's teams and women's football in that direction by reporting on them and their football stories. Arguably, the newspapers have lost their sense of patriotism and balance helping only men's football rather than developing women's football.

This issue about our print media or newspapers leaving our women's football and promoting the men's football has become one sensitive issue that has received so many public debates and interests (Kian, 2007). It is this public interest, coupled with the spaces allotted to the male football and how women have been framed in the newspapers that have made this topic a relevant area to study.

2.4 Women's Football

Football is often considered a male-dominated sport in terms of both participation and support. Historically, as McGuigan (2011, p. 23) puts it, "football has been recognised as a masculine/androcentric sport." This is partly due to the masculine image of sports generally and soccer in particular. From the 1870s onwards, football became more of a working-class sport. Initially, football in the UK was seen by those in power as beneficial, and Skelton (2000, p.6) adds that football was "keeping the working-class men away from pubs after collecting their wages". Since then, football has continued to hold many associations with men and masculinity. However, football is not a new sport for women, records of competitive women's football date back to the First World War. As William's notes:

While women's participation has taken place in several countries for over a hundred years, there has been hostility to female participation on behalf of the sporting bureaucracies that have been the most defining feature for the women's game. This includes a fifty year 'ban' imposed by the English Football Association from 1921 to 1972 (2006, p.153).

Female participation, however, has existed nearly as long as soccer itself as noted by Murray (1996), Williams (2002) and FIFA (2003). Although the English Soccer Association (FA) banned women from playing at all grounds it controlled until 1970, women's soccer leagues were formed in Italy and Germany in the 1930s, and the first women's national team was created in 1950 by Italy. In the subsequent 30 years, numerous countries, particularly in northern Europe, followed the Italian lead by forming their own amateur domestic leagues and international teams. Formal international competitions began in Europe in the early 1980s. In 1991, FIFA held the first Women's World Cup (nearly 60 years after the first Men's World Cup), followed by the first Olympic competition in 1996.

While the success of women's soccer cannot be said to rival that of the men's game worldwide, the game is not without its fans. The gold medal match of the 1996 Olympics was played in front of a sold-out crowd of 75,000 in Athens, Georgia. The 1999 Women's World Cup drew 658,000 fans to 17 matches in the United States. The average attendance of over 38,000 per game compared favourably to the attendance in the men's English Premier League which averaged just over 30,000 fans per game during the same year. The success of the United States' national team in the 1999 Women's World Cup

propelled stars such as Mia Hamm and Brandi Chastain to national prominence, and the American victory in the championship match was watched by a live audience of 92,000 at the Rose Bowl, the largest crowd ever to witness a women's sporting event. The television audience in the United States for the final exceeded 40 million viewers, the highest ratings for any soccer match ever shown on U.S. television and a number comparable to the television ratings for a typical World Series baseball game or National Basketball Association Finals game.

The 2011 Women's World Cup hosted by Germany was similarly successful, averaging over 26,000 fans per game and generating strong television ratings. The final between the U.S. and Japan was watched by 14.1 million and 10.1 million viewers in the two countries, respectively, and matches involving the host country averaged roughly 16 million viewers in Germany, nearly one-quarter of the country's population.

The popular success of the 1999 Women's World Cup led to the formation in 2001 of the Women's United Soccer Association (WUSA) in the U.S., the first fully professional women's soccer league in the world. The WUSA drew 8,300 fans per game in their inaugural season. Though this number is substantially lower than men's attendances in the world's major leagues, it is in the neighbourhood of many teams in the smaller soccer playing nations or the average team in the lower divisions of larger countries. For example, 48 of the 72 teams in England's 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Divisions (representing, quirkily, the 2nd, 3rd and 4th highest divisions of play) averaged less than 8,300 fans per match in 1999-2000.

The WUSA collapsed after only three years in September 2003 (ironically during the U.S.-hosted World Cup tournament) due to “a shortfall in sponsorship revenue and insufficient revenue from other core areas of the business” according to WUSA chairman John Hendricks (BBC, 2003). Other professional women’s teams have followed in the footsteps of WUSA. The Union of Europe Football Associations (UEFA), the governing body for soccer in Europe, has sponsored a continent-wide women’s club championship since 2000-2001 and in 2009-2010 rebranded the competition as the UEFA Women’s Champions League which attracted 54 clubs from 46 nations in 2011-12. The clubs participating in this event range from fully amateur to professional. Women’s Professional Soccer (WPS) resurrected professional women’s soccer in the United States in 2009 and has attracted average attendances in the range of 3,500 to 4,500 per game with peak matches seeing as many as 15,000 fans.

Still, women’s soccer has so far remained largely an amateur sport. According to FIFA, “soccer for young girls in many parts of the world is often considered [...] a solely recreational activity [owing to] cultural barriers, social mores and the lack of any financial hope for a future in the game” (FIFA, 2003). As a result, one may expect different factors to drive international success in the women’s game compared with men’s international soccer.

2.5 Sports and Gender

Domeneghetti (2018) conducted a study on the (re) presentations of (emphasised) femininity during Wimbledon 2016. His focus was to examine how the British Press (newspapers) expressed the notions of femininity during the 2016 Wimbledon

Championship. The study sought to locate women (both competitors and Supporters) within the gendered British newspaper coverage of professional tennis. Successive studies have shown that sportswomen are significantly under-represented in quantity and misrepresented in quality of sports coverage (Godoy-Pressland, 2014). Domeneghetti's (2018) analysis looks first at the sexualisation of female players and focus on their bodies (for example coverage of Nike's Power Slam dress, which was described as a 'nightie', and Serena Williams' attire, which drew complaints because her nipples were visible) before addressing the (re)presentation of male players' partners: namely Kim Murray, the wife of Andy Murray, and Jennifer Bate, the girlfriend of Marcus Willis as "the devoted and supportive wife" (Clayton & Harris, 2004). Domeneghetti (2018) used qualitative content analysis to interrogate 369 articles that focused on the 2016 Wimbledon tournament published in the U.K.'s two best-selling paid-for daily newspapers and their Sunday sister papers. *The Sun* and the *Daily Mail* were analysed between 26 June and 11 July 2016, a period which included the duration of the tournament and two days either side of the start and finish of the competition. Apart from being U.K.'s two best-selling paid-for daily newspapers, the study failed to state whether these are the only newspapers that report on the sport.

Roger Domeneghetti's study drew on Connell's (1987; 2000; 2002; 2005) neo-Gramscian theory of gender power relations for theoretical insight and used critical discourse analysis which include texts and photographs. This is because Domeneghetti (2018) argued that media texts help construct meanings. The findings, when compared to previous studies, have shown some improvements in the coverage of women but it still

cannot be compared to that of the coverage of men. Another finding is what he termed the “sexualisation of female players” and that modern sportswear promotes a sexy image of the female players. The researcher said that this portrayal of the female players constructs them as 'the other' and places them in a position of weakness within the gendered hierarchy. The photos render the female players in passive roles and sexualised for male gaze and this has the effect of reinforcing their femininity and trivialise their bodies thus undermining their athleticism and sporting expertise. Even though that study is about tennis and was conducted in England, this study can use the method to analyse how the media frame women football reportage in the Ghanaian context.

To determine if 'not-for-profit' media offer balanced coverage of male and female athletes than has been found in the past, Malik (2016) conducted a research by using content analysis on intercollegiate athletic websites. He rationalised his choice by arguing that there have been other researches on the subject of gender in sports media and he is looking at coverage by intercollegiate athletic websites because there is limited research available in that area.

According to Malik, past studies found media coverage of women’s sports to be inadequate when compared with coverage of men’s sports (Hardin et al., 2002; Kian, Mondello, & Vincent, 2009; Shifflett & Revelle, 1994; Weber & Carini, 2012) and that the evidence of this inadequacy of coverage have been documented across numerous media outlets including television, magazines, newspapers, and even the Internet. Inadequacies that had been found range from a disproportionately small amount of media

coverage of women's sports compared to men's sports (Adams & Tuggle, 2004; Bishop, 2003; Cooky, Hextrum, & Messner, 2013; Weber & Carini, 2012), to unrealistic depictions of female athletes that portray them (female) in passive instead of active roles and in overly sexualized images that emphasize their feminine traits rather than their athletic ability (Duncan, Jensen, & Messner, 1993; Fink & Kensicki, 2002; Hardin et al., 2002). This study, based on the above, is interested in looking at how female football stories are framed. Domeneghetti (2018) and Malik (2016) in their works agree that the coverage of female sports has increased (but still less than that of male) however, feature articles gave significantly more coverage of women in 'sex-appropriate' sports.

According to Malik (2016), media scholars have disagreed on the motives behind this occurrence. While popular belief may be that the media solely give their audience what the audience wants, some scholars have reasoned that the manner in which the media present men's sports actually helps build interest and excitement while simultaneously silencing women's sports (Cooky, Hextrum, & Messner, 2013; Duncan, Jensen, & Messner, 1993; Huffman, Tuggle, & Rosengard, 2004, as cited in Malik, 2016). Malik (2016) used framing as his theoretical underpinning and came out with 4 hypotheses which cover amount of coverage, amount of photographs, portrayal of male and female in articles and difference in content of information for male and female stories. It was expected that both male and female would get equal and balanced coverage but the results came out differently. Both male and female, according to Malik (2016), were portrayed in photographs as true athletes unlike the study by Domeneghetti (2018) which presented men in action but women as sexual commodities to be consumed. This result

establishes clearly that even though the trends may be headed away from framing female athletes as sex symbols and feminine role models, the fact that females are still often covered less is a frame itself. This current study uses the framing theory to interrogate the print media coverage of women football in Ghana. Malik's findings cannot be generalised since his sample is not representative. His study used athletics to analyse gender disparities in the media but this current study situates its study in football.

To evaluate the quality and quantity of the manner in which the media covered sports portraying men and women, Cooky, Hextrum, and Messner (2013) recorded and analysed six weeks of televised coverage from ESPN's *SportsCenter* and sports segments of Los Angeles' local news. The results showed four themes coming out of the coverage of women's sports. The themes were: 1) rare moments of respectful coverage; 2) sexualised gag stories; 3) fights, assaults and scandals; and 4) women as wives, girlfriends, or mothers. While the moments of respectful coverage were rare, the other themes that emerged supported the researchers' claim that media assist in building interest in men's sports and silencing women's sports.

In terms of amount, the results revealed that the amount of coverage of women's sports on local news sports segments was lower in 2009 than in any previous year analyzed at 1.6% (p. 209). Further, the amount of coverage of women's sports on *SportsCenter* was also at a low of 1.3% (p. 210). The authors' found that most women's sports coverage was confined to a ticker at the bottom of the screen. Cooky, Hextrum, and Messner (2013) found the results of their study to be discouraging. Even though this study was

conducted on television, this current study looks at how the print media frame female football in Ghana.

Adams and Tuggle (2004) studied ESPN's *SportsCenter* too. Their study sought to compare coverage from 2002, to an earlier study conducted in 1995 (Tuggle, 1997). They used the hypothesis that the increased presence of women's professional sports would go ahead to bring more awareness of women's athletics, which would lead to more equitable media representation of that participation. They sought to determine if the existence of two new women's professional basketball leagues facilitated an increase in coverage. One of their research questions was, "Has coverage of women's athletics increased on ESPN's *SportsCenter* compared to 1995?".

Framing was used as their theoretical foundation. They cited Gamson and Modigliani (1989) and Pan and Kosicki (1993) in explaining that framing theory suggests that practices for representing gender in the media, including sports, have become standardised, therefore reinforcing stereotypes.

The authors recorded *SportsCenter* for four weeks and two days resulting in programming from 30 broadcast dates and 807 total stories. The stories were used as the units of analysis and coded for categories such as: broadcast date; sport involved; story length; story placement; and sex of the participants. After analysing the data with chi-square analysis and ANOVA, they determined that there was a statistically significant difference between coverage of male and female stories, and a statistically significant

difference in the time devoted to stories based on the sex of the participants. Their hypothesis that the increased presence of women's professional sports would lead to more equitable coverage was not supported, as they discovered that there was even less coverage than existed in the 1995 study. According to Adams and Tuggle (2004), the scarcity of coverage of women's sports found in their research reinforced male supremacy in athletics and signaled that female athletes were not as deserving of regular coverage in sports as were male athletes (p. 247). Adam and Tuggle, in their research, failed to provide the rationale behind their choice of the number of broadcasts which gave the total number of stories. They used framing to support their study and according to most scholars, the framing theory is used frequently in media analysis.

Battenfield, Dzaloshinsky and Todd (2010) in their work to establish the link between newspaper coverage and women's professional Basketball pointed out that people are persuaded by what they hear, see and read in the mass media. The content analysis showed a discerning pattern of media coverage that is directly connected with the supposed tier system of sport assigned by the sports editors. Following the analysis of the actual content from two (2) full seasons of newspaper coverage of two (2) Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA), interview questions for the sport editors, beat writers and public relations directors for two (2) respective teams were formulated. It was established that specific patterns of behaviour by the sports editors emerged.

The sports editors confirmed that the primary factor in the decision - making process for space allocation in the sport section is men's professional sports. They cited "what readers want" as their qualification. This goes on to support the fact that the public too

has an agenda. They have their own interest; so, for one to maintain his newspaper business, one needs to look at what interests the people and come out with those things so that people will patronise the newspaper for them to get money. It can be argued that beyond the issues of masculinity are issues of commercialisation and economic considerations.

Battenfeild, Dzaloshinsky and Todd (2010) used content analysis of selected newspapers to examine the coverage of 2000 and 2001 WNBA season. The method gave the researcher the chance to look at the space given to the women's sport and men's sport. However, acting as an extension to previous works, this research outlines the media representation of gender and football.

Some scholars (Alexander, 1994; Duncan & Hasbrook, 2002) have acknowledged the media as restricting women and girls into socially acceptable, female-appropriate, individual sports. Alexander (1994) argued that although television coverage of men's events strongly favours team sports, coverage of women's sport strongly favours individual events.

Furthermore, Duncan and Hasbrook, (2002, p.84) state:

Girls and women continue to receive social acceptance for individual sports more readily than for team contests. Social approval for sports such as tennis, golf and gymnastics is high. As non-contact individual sports, they offer the dual benefits of continued segregation of the female athlete from teammates and the continued confirmation of the participants' femininity

This gives a good rationale on why team sports like women's football fails to get comparable media coverage to individual sports events like athletics. Similarly, Duncan and Hasbrook (2002) hypothesise that:

“women's participation in certain individual sports is more socially acceptable than their participation in team sports, because the former allows women to remain true to the female stereotype: glamorous, graceful, non-sweaty and definitely not roughed up by contact with other women” (p.85).

2.6.0 Theoretical Framework

This section of the study examines the theories that underpin this study. This is important to situate the study within the context of media and football.

Mass communication theories related to the topic have been revived to find out how the effects of media campaigns influence society. For the purpose of this research, this media effects appropriate for this study are the Agenda Setting Theory, Framing Theory and Gender Theory.

2.6.1 The Agenda Setting Theory

The term “agenda setting” has become increasingly popular when characterising the contemporary media (Meigas, 2008, p. 6). Walter Lippmann, a journalist, first observed this function, in the 1920s. That is, the preceding research done during the 1920s by Lippmann Lippmann (1992) also disclosed that media dominate the images of events in the reader's head. Lippmann (1992) also believed that the readers do not react on the

event itself instead, they do react to the pictures that are in their head encrypted by media (Lippmann, 1992). Accepting some elements of Lippmann's idea, McComb and Shaw introduced their agenda setting theory.

McCombs, Shaw and Weaver popularised agenda setting theory in 1997. It states that media or press “may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling readers what to think about” (McCombs, Shaw, & Weaver, 1997, p. 161). Thus “the basic premise of the agenda setting theory examines how news media reports on particular issues and influences or shapes public awareness and debate” (McCombs and Shaw, 1972, cited in Franklin, Hamer, Hana, Kinsey, & Richardson, 2005, p. 46). This is to say that agenda setting refers to the idea that there is a strong correlation between the emphasis that mass media places on certain issues (e.g., based on relative placement or amount of coverage) and the importance attributed to these issues by mass audiences (McCombs & Shaw, 1972, as cited in Scheufele & Tewksbury, 2007). In other words, Kafle (2014) explained further that media can force people to think about the events, however, media cannot force audiences on what they should think of and that media selects parts and pieces of reality to present to the public called the media agenda. The public sees through the eyes of media and focus on the issue that interests them (Zain, 2017). A person's public perception then becomes reality. Agenda setting theory describes how media, through the process of mediating information, creates the audience's motivations and needs. The audiences look up to media for guidance on where they should focus their attention about events, information or aspects of society. Consequently, media do not tell audiences what to think but rather what to think about (McCombs, Shaw, & Weaver, 1997).

Kayode and Adeniran (2012) have indicated that editors act as gatekeepers of mass mediated messages and they promote a media agenda by prioritising certain issues. They can offer sustained and prominent coverage to an issue while others are marginalised or ignored (Kayode & Adeniran, 2012). According to McQuail (2000),

Agenda setting is a process of media influence (intended or unintended) by which the relative importance of news events, issues or personages in the public mind is affected by the order of presentation (or relative salience) in news reports. It is assumed that the more the media attention, the greater the importance attributed by the news audience. The media influence is not on the direction of opinion, but only on what people think about (p.49).

Media influences the topics that the audience thinks about, but not the direction of the public opinion itself (McQuail, 2000). Van Dijk states that the power of media is symbolic and persuasive having the potential to control the media consumer's mind but not their actions (cited in Coulthard and Caldas-Coulthard, 1996). Alhassan (2015) asserts that readers learn not only about a given issue, but also how much importance to attach to that issue from the amount of information in a news story and its position. Alhassan (2015) added that, the media exert considerable influence on certain issues by persistently presenting objects suggesting what individuals in society should think about, know about, and have feelings about. It is assumed that the more media attention given to an issue or event, the greater is the importance attributed to it by the audience.

According to the Agenda setting theory, the mass media (including the print media) have a large control on the audience by the choice of stories that are considered newsworthy and how much prominence. Earlier propositions about the agenda setting theory suggested that while media do not tell us what to think, they may tell us what to think about (McComb and Shawn, 1972). Griffin (2011) notes that the agenda setting theory reaffirms the power of the press, while still maintaining the individual's freedom to choose. The agenda setting theory estimates that individual members of the society reflect on such issues already raised, and then make personal submissions based on their subjective reasoning. The theory states that the kinds of things people discuss, think and worry about – are powerfully shaped and directed by what the news media choose to publicise.

Govender (2010) suggests that it is the ability of media to direct thought processes and attention towards certain issues by the possible exclusion or scant coverage of others which seem to decide for media audiences what they should focus on. This agenda setting theory declares that the mass media, simply by the fact of paying attention to some issues and ignoring others, will have an effect on public opinion. This theory relates to this research in that it refers to how media coverage frames and put more prominence or less prominence on both male and female football stories or news in Ghana.

Cohen (1963) refined Lippmann's idea about agenda setting theory and wrote:

The Press is significantly more than a supplier of information and opinion.

It may not be successful in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly

successful much in telling its readers what to think about. And it follows from this that the world looks different to different people, depending not only on their personal interests, but also on the map that is drawn for them by the writers, editors and publishers of the papers they read (as cited in Baran and Davis, 2010, p. 294).

The proposition here is that, the news media set the agenda for the public in the sense that their coverage of issue helps to define for the public what they should be thinking about on a given day. Baran and Davis (2010) said, “Cohen’s writing became the basis for what we now call the agenda-setting function of the mass media (p. 294).

In short, the media can put the agenda setting machinery in motion, but if the audience is not interested in it, it will not sustain the discussion to make the media successful at telling people what to think about.

It has been pointed out already that the media pick some stories and they highlight on them to make them important. It is clearly seen that when editors or publishers of newspapers decide on particular stories, for example, they make football as their main focus, readers are likely to pay bigger or more attention to these stories, thus developing interest in what happens there after. The house style of the various media can influence its readers’ decision on issues. For instance, it is believed that if the newspapers decide to give much prominence to male football and put their stories at very important pages, highlight their pictures in colour and write more editorials and features on them as part of their editorial policy, leaving news on female football in some obscure, small corner, the

readers of that paper are likely to be influenced such that the readers will have more interest in the male football than the female stories.

In relation to this study, the media attention on sport played by men and a lack of focus on female athletes could lead to the trivialisation of female athletes. In other words, this theory explains that people will tend to know about those things which the mass media deal with and adopt the order of priority assigned to different issues covered in the media. For example, if the media focus their attention on male football and continuously play down the female football, the public may tend to regard female football as insignificant.

It is an indisputable fact that the male football is more popular than female football in Ghana (Bamba, 2017). It is believed that it is against this backdrop that the editors of newspapers may want to give greater attention to news on male football to enable them increase patronage of their papers and gain profit to grow their businesses. However, this does not mean female football should be left at the backyard to suffer. It is also part of the society and helps to put Ghana on the world map, just like male football. Cohen (1963) stated that “the press may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling it readers what to think about” (as cited in Baran and Davis, 2010, p. 294). Relating to this study, this means that although the press does not control one’s choice of what to read, they give one insight to what to think about. This therefore gives an indication that the media are directing the readers to what to think about.

The agenda setting theory, therefore, presents a foundation for investigating how the media set the agenda based on football-related issues. The agenda setting theory also gives a basis for investigating how the agenda set by the media affects the people's behaviour or perception on issues on male and female football.

Agenda-setting is related to the framing concept, which characterises the effects of media (McQuail, 2000).

2.6.2 Framing Theory

McCombs, who is the agenda-setting pioneer, made an effort to expand and develop the theory by linking it to a broad range of other media theories – for example, framing theory (McCombs and Ghanem, 2001). Framing has been found to be a productive theoretical approach to the research on the gendered coverage of female football stories in the Ghanaian print media (Cooky, Hextrum, & Messner, 2013; Fink & Kensicki, 2002; Weber & Carini, 2012). According to Kafle (2014) framing is a very important concept to understand and interpret news. Meanwhile Iyenger (2005) indicated that at the most general level, framing refers to the way in which opinions about an issue can be altered by emphasising or deemphasizing particular facets of that issue. That is, the concept of framing refers to the effects of presentation on judgment and choice (Iyenger, 1996). Entman (1991) defined framing as the way media shapes the news to elicit specific responses from viewers and readers. He found that with framing, media emphasizes what is politically important and the dominant frame in a set of news stories will most likely affect political outcomes (Entman, 1991). Framing helps to not just to understand news

but also to help identify the intention and the process of news making. Framing is based on the assumption that how an issue is characterised in news reports can have an influence on how it is understood by the audiences (Scheufele & Tewksbury, 2007). However, “frame” and “framing” are two different terms that needs to be clearly distinguished before analysing any news. Cartee (2005) states that the ‘frame’ and ‘framing’ are not necessarily synonymous. She further claims that “framing is the process by which a communication source, such as a news organisation defines and constructs a political issue or public controversy” (Cartee, 2005, p. 24). “Frame” on the other hand is the central organisation of ideas that give the complete sense to an issue through the use of selection, emphasis, exclusion and elaboration. (Cartee, 2005). Entman (1991) claims that news frames help to establish meaning when interpreting news. Additionally, he states, frames describe the attributes of news and “reside in the specific properties of the news narrative that encourage those perceiving and thinking about events to develop particular understandings of them. News frames are constructed from and embodied in keywords, metaphors, concepts, symbols.” (Entman, 1991, p. 2) Simply put, framing is the process of creating events, news or issues whereas frame is just the product which gives meaning to events, news or issues.

Anthropologist Gregory Bateson is credited with first positing the theory in 1972. Framing is often traced back to roots in both psychology and sociology (Pan & Kosicki, 1993). The psychological origins of framing lie in experimental work by Kahneman and Tversky (1979, 1984), for which Kahneman received the 2002 Nobel Prize in economics (Kahneman, 2003). They studied how different presentations of essentially identical

decision-making scenarios influence people's choices and their evaluation of the various options presented to them. The sociological foundations of framing were laid by Goffman (1974) and others who assumed that individuals cannot understand the world fully and constantly struggle to interpret their life experiences and to make sense of the world around them.

According to Cissel (2012), Goffman (1974) was the first to give attention to framing as a form of communication. Goffman's (1974) framing theory proposes that media coverage provides social cues that help viewers interpret events. The framing process involves reporters and editors selecting and highlighting particular aspects of reality while omitting other elements (Goffman, 1974). That is, in order to efficiently process new information, Goffman argues, individuals therefore apply interpretive schemas or "primary frameworks" (Goffman, 1974, p. 24) to classify information and interpret it meaningfully. In communications, framing is best described by Entman (1993) as "select[ing] some aspects of a perceived reality and mak[ing] them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation" (Entman, 1993). Framing is also considered an "essential part" of news reporting (Heldman, 2000). However, studies have shown that newspapers tend to stereotype female by "emphasising 'feminine traits' and 'feminine issues'" (Bystrom, Robertson, & Banwart, 2001).

Framing is an influential way of forming and sharing public opinion. This means that framing can increase or decrease the importance of an event. In effect, the media frame a story, whether it is a photograph or the text of an article, by selecting certain aspects of

the story to promote a desired reality. Here, it is perceived that, the print media in Ghana organise and present male football stories in a way that make them more important than the female football stories. If it is found out that they (*Graphic Sports* and *Finder Sports* newspapers) do that, then it means they make male football stories more important than the female football stories. The highlighting and saliency can also come in the form of the pictures used to accompany stories and headlines of the various stories. Based on the above, the framing theory also gives the underpinning for studying how the media frames male and female football stories.

2.6.3 Media frames

One of the first scholars to illustrate framing as a complete theory of mass media was Robert Entman (1993), who defined media framing as a process by which the media “select some aspect of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text in a way that can promote a certain definition, interpretation, moral evaluation or treatment recommendation” (p. 52). According to Entman (1993), media frames have the power to influence public opinion in the way they transfer information from a media source to social and individual awareness. These frames serve as the structures through which individuals understand and organise information (Reber & Berger, 2005; Scheufele, 2004). Media framing encompasses the selection and salience that is given to various pieces of information, allowing certain attributes to be highlighted and others to be omitted in a communication context (Chyi & McCombs, 2004; Entnam, 1993; Knight, 1999). Increasing the salience given to certain attributes influences the

audiences' personal opinions regarding a given issue by making it more likely they will process and store it to memory (Entman, 1993; Scheufele, 2004).

Entman, (1993) indicated that frames can also be used to divert attention to or even ignore pieces of information which have been, which is just as powerful as highlighting specific areas or characteristics of a story. There is a danger here. The danger in understanding or omitting information is that it limits the knowledge the public is exposed to. And Hardin, Lynn, Walsdorf, & Hardin (2002) added that the way the media frame a sport and/or athlete has the potential to impact the audiences' beliefs and attitudes regarding that sport or athlete.

It is rare to realise open measures of sexism in sports coverage, but through framing it is still possible for biased messages to slip through media filters (Eastman & Billings, 2001). Framing theory posits three functions of media frames, which are: selection (who/what to show), emphasis (how much to show), and exclusion (what not to show) (Billings, 2004). The framing theory also stresses that media have the power to shape a story in a positive or negative manner, with the negative portrayals having a stronger influence on the audience than positive portrayals (Billings, 2004; Eastman & Billings, 2001). The theory identifies that information can be presented in several ways, and that how it is organised and disseminated through the media and how the public understands and uses the information they have been given (Terkidsen & Schnell, 1997).

Media frames can be found in four areas of communication process (Entman, 1993). First, frames can be found with information communicators who are influenced by their own frames and schemas when deciding what information to publish and highlight.

Secondly, frames can be found in presence or absence of certain attribute within the actual text. The simple placement or repletion of certain frames in a text is enough to increase the likelihood that an individual will store it to memory. The third location in the communication process where frames can be found is with the receiver. Frames can affect the thoughts and insights generated by the public by determining what information they are exposed to and confirming or disconfirming previously stored beliefs. Finally, today's culture is overwhelmed with frames usually shared and accepted by the social majority (Entman, 1993).

According to Kusi (2017) these frames have been spread throughout society because of the consistent exposure and omission of information in the media. Nicely (2007) says one reason media frames have become so common within social culture is because they can be found in all levels of communication process. Media producers and editors do not necessarily utilize media frames to purposely pervert or manipulate the public, but instead to concisely and effectively report a story using a limited amount of space (Nelson, Clawson & Oxley, 1997). It is a well-established fact that members of the media use familiar frames to help the public make sense of the information they are being given (Bronstein, 2005). Framing can influence the audiences' perception of the worldview through "construction of news." "Framing does not predetermine the information an individual will seek but it may shape aspects of the world that the individual experiences either directly or through the news media and is thus central to the process of construction" (Neuman, Just, & Crigler, 1992, p. 61). Framing is very powerful to make individuals see the world in a particular way that news providers wants them to believe

and see; although they may not realise it as it might only affect the readers or audiences on a sub-unconscious level. And so, media decisions on what aspects of female football or women's sport to highlight or exclude, and the way in which these subjects are featured influence the gender messages being represented.

2.6.4 Media Frames in Sports

According to Rada & Wulfemeyer, (2005), sports fans are exposed to numerous articles and images regarding athletes throughout the course of a season. And thus, Eastman & Billings (2001) mentioned that the media frames of these athletes are passed on to the viewing audience and consciously or subconsciously stored in their memories. If these messages include gender misrepresentations, the audience may take this perceived "general knowledge" regarding the sports world and apply it to their general attitude about these groups in a societal context (Rada & Wulfemeyer, 2005). The repetition of biased media frames has a negative influence on passive viewers who may transfer these portrayals from a sports context into the real world.

The effect media framing and portrayals have on sports fans moves even outside sports into a real-world context. This is especially worrying because Rada and Wulfemeyer (2005) conclude that sports media are in a position to frame an issue or portrayal that will be sent to a mass audience. The way an issue or athlete is represented may affect viewers and subconsciously affect the way they feel about different gender groups in a non-athletic context (i.e. business or educational environment) (Eastman & Billings, 2001). The main ways in which a member of the media frames a message or athlete will affect how the message is perceived and used by the audience.

Ward (2004) posits that media frames are often blamed for contributing to the way society views marginalised groups and its members. So, they are more likely to be socialised and affected by sports media frames of female athletes and women's sports (Nathanson, Wilson, McGee, & Sebastian, 2002). Again, they are more likely to assume the biased messages embedded in these portrayals (Nathanson et al., 2002). It is important to gain a greater understanding of sports media frames, especially because of their apparent ability to influence and shape perceptions.

Nathanson et al., (2002) again said media messages, such as the ones present in the framing of female athletes and women's sports, can shape how children develop their ideas about gender roles. As early as first grade, children develop ideas about the "gender-appropriateness of athletics," which influences their "perceptions of and participation in athletic activities" (Harrison & Lynch, 2005, p. 228). Boys are more likely than girls to believe they are skilled athletes, make sports a higher priority, and have a higher overall enjoyment of sports (Harrison & Lynch, 2005). This trend has also been found in young adults at the high school level. A survey of high school students found that only about 9% of girls, as compared to 36% of boys, wanted to be remembered as a star athlete (Harrison & Lynch, 2005). These results indicate that not only are children aware of gender roles at an early age, but they are also aware of how these roles apply to athletes and athletic contribution.

2.7.0 Feminist Theory

Feminism, according to Vukoičić (2017), is a contemporary social and political movement, motivated by individual and collective experiences of women, which is based

on the claim that a society is based on patriarchal principles, according to which men are privileged over women. This leads to discrimination against women in public and private life. Despite the fact that feminism is often considered a unique ideology, this theory actually makes a large number of routes created under the influence of various factors that may be related to the historical and cultural specificity. Although there are a number of specified routes, the main differences between them are reduced to the extent to which relations within the patriarchal society are considered to be the cause of all forms of discrimination against women (Vukoičić, 2017),

The term "feminist theory", according to (Chafetz, 1997, p. 97), is used to refer to

a myriad of kinds of works, produced by movement activists and scholars in a variety of disciplines; these are not mutually exclusive and include: (a) normative discussions of how societies and relationships ought to be structured, their current inequities, and strategies to achieve equity; (b) critiques of androcentric classical theories, concepts, epistemologies, and assumptions; (c) epistemological discussions of what constitute appropriate forms, subject matters, and techniques of theorizing from a feminist perspective; and (d) explanatory theories of the relationship between gender and various social, cultural, economic, psychological, and political structures and processes.

Offen (1988), in a seminal work which looked at the historical approach to defining feminism, see feminism as “a theory and/or movement concerned with advancing the

position of women through such means as achievement of political, legal, or economic rights equal to those granted men” (p. 123). Casey, Casey, Calvert, French and Lewis (2008) indicates that “there is little doubt that feminism has been one of the most significant influences in academic debate in the past three decades” (p. 121).

Brantley and Legermann (2004) see feminist theory as a generalised, wide-ranging system of ideas about social life and human experience developed from a woman-centered perspective. But Casey et al., (2008) see the feminist theory as a political and social important aspect of social identity. Birrel (2000) say feminist theory is a constantly dynamic growing complex of theories that take as their point of departure the analysis of gender as a category of experience in society. Brewer (2002) in an explanation to what feminism is, expounds feminism as how women find their own power especially in the world that is grounded on patriarch and stereotypes. Feminism is woman-centred besides Brantley and Lengermann (2004) suggests it is woman centred in three ways. First, the experiences of women in society are the major object for investigation. Secondly, is to see the world from the peculiar vantage points of women because they are the central “subject” of the investigation. The third is to seek and produce a better world for women. Feminist theory could consequently be a movement to liberate and free the subordination, demotion and relegation of women in patriarchal society which will ultimately lead to the empowerment of women worldwide. This is because all feminists share an assumption that women are oppressed within a patriarchal society and have the commitment to change those conditions (Birrel, 2000).

Even though sport is one of the most celebrated and contested institutions in the society, Roper (2013) mentions, unfortunately, sports does not always lead to positive outcomes. While sports has provided opportunities, it has also reinforced damaging and dangerous social patterns such as, gender inequity (Roper, 2013). Sports is clearly a gendered profession, that is, a profession that not only welcomes boys or men enthusiastically than women but also serves as a site for celebrating skills and values clearly marked as ‘masculine’ (Birrel, 2000). This undoubtedly goes in contradiction of the beliefs of feminist theory as women are not treated nor seen as the central ‘subjects’ in sports, in general, and football in particular.

2.7.1 Basic Theoretical Questions Underpinning the Feminist Theory

Brantley and Lengermann (2004) accentuate four basic and important questions that underpin the feminist theory which produce a revolutionary switch in the understanding of the world. These questions make us to see how women have taken for granted and lead to an absolute knowledge of the world; knowledge derived from the experiences of women living in a society where men are seen as the “masters.”

The first question is” *“And what about women?”* In other words, where are the women in any situation being investigated? If they are not present, why? If they are present, what exactly are they doing? How do they experience the situation? What do they contribute to it? What does it mean to them? (p.437).

Brantley and Lengermann (2004) said that in any situation being studied if the women are not there it means there has been a deliberate effort to exclude them. The field of sport is not seen as a field for women and they are not encouraged to enter into the field. This is

the reason Wilde (2007) said that because in a patriarchal society, males are expected to demonstrate certain characteristics and behaviours that are “masculine” while females are held accountable for “feminine”. Women are therefore not in sports not because they lack the ability or interest but because society does not see the field of sports as a place for women, thus the deliberate effort to exclude them as opined by Brantley & Lengermann (2004).

The second question Brantley & Lengermann (2004) ask is that:

“Why is all this as it is? As the first question calls for description of the social world, the second question requires an explanation of that world description, and explanation are two facts of any sociological theory. Feminism’s answers to these questions gives us a general social theory (p.437).

In his explanation to the second Wilde (2007) reveals people are bombarded with gender stereotypes right from birth until death and females are expected to live up to these specific gender roles that are held by both men and women in the mainstream society. Hardin and Shain (2005), therefore mention that gender stereotypes deep-rooted in culture is very difficult to change. Sports has become a male dominated field because of stereotypes that have found over time especially through the media.

The third question according to Brantley and Lengermann (2004) for all feminists is:

“How can we change and improve the social world so as to make it a more just place for women and for all people?” This commitment to social

transformation in the interest of justice is the distinctive characteristics of social theory, a commitment shared in sociology by feminism (p. 437).

Scruton and Flintoff (2013) posit that the challenges women face once they go into sports can only change if they are treated with respect and seen as having the credibility and knowledge about sports as male colleagues. Chandler (2010) concludes that the field of sports can be a better place for women once the negative postulations surrounding the field as preserve of men are changed.

The fourth question probe by feminist according to Brantley and Lengermann (2014) is:

“And what about the difference among women?” The answers to his question lead to a general conclusion that the invisibility, inequality, and the role differences in relation to men which generally, characterise women’s lives are profoundly affected by woman’s social location-that is by her class, race, age. Affectional preferences, marital status, region, ethnicity, and global local location (p. 438).

Gender plays a very significant role in the way women are treated in a profession that is seen as a male stronghold. A central theme in sports is male superiority and female inferiority where the standard for which performances or knowledge about the profession is measured becomes maleness (Creedon, 1998). Hargreaves (1994) says in sports, male hegemony has been more complete and more resistant to change than in other areas of culture and this ultimately oppresses them in their profession.

2.7.2 Liberal Feminism Response

Scruton and Flitton (2013) stated that modern liberal feminism is based on the legacy of early pioneers like Mary Wollstonecraft, John Stuart Mill, and Harriet Taylor, who challenged essentialists notions of femininity and dichotomy that posited rationality as masculine/male and emotionality as feminine/female. Second-Wave liberal feminism since the 1960s and 1970s has focused on equality of access and opportunity, different socialization practices, gender stereotyping, and discrimination. According to Hardin and Shane (2005), liberal feminism stipulates that women and men are more alike than different and advocates that women take their equal place alongside men in society's institutions. The first element in the liberal feminist argument historically has been the claim for gender equality (Brantley & Legermann, 2004). This is to say that there should be gender equality; individuals should be allowed to exercise their freedom and fulfill themselves regardless of their gender.

The underlying assumption of all liberal sports feminism is that sport is fundamentally sound and represents a positive experience to which girls and women need access (Scruton & Flitton, 2013). Differences in female sports participation are seen to be the result of socialization practices carried out by institutions such as the family, the media and the school (Greendorfer, 1993). For example, girls are socialised into feminine activities such as netball, gymnastics, or hockey and into a female physicality, and boys are socialised into masculine sports such as football, rugby, or cricket and into a male physicality (Scruton, 1996). Moreover, discriminatory and prejudice practices prevent women from having equal access to sporting opportunities including facilities and

resources. Knoppers (1994) revealed liberal feminist research similarly focuses on the underrepresentation of women in decision making positions in sports and in higher coaching and leadership posts. The early feminist critiques of male stream sports are valuable for their rejection of biological explanation for women's subordination in sport, and for establishing that gender is socially constructed (Scaton & Flintoff, 2013).

Liberal feminism has placed these issues on the agenda of sports organisations, governing bodies, schools, and other institutions involved in delivering, providing and developing sports. Activists, the world over, working on women and sports initiatives such as Women's Sport and Fitness Foundation (WSFF, UK), Women's Sports Foundation (WSF, USA), Canadian Association for Advancement of Women and Sports (CAAWS), Women's Sports International (WSI) and International Association of PE and Sports for Girls and Women (IAPESGW) due to their pressure, has resulted in a number of statements targeted at governments as well as national and international organisations (Scraton & Flintoff, 2013). These statements argue for the vital importance of sport and physical education for girls and women (eg., 1994 Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport; 1998 Windhoek Call for Action; 2008 IAPESGW) "Accept and Respect" Declaration). While there is little doubt that the liberal feminist agenda and the work of activities and pressure groups has opened up opportunities for some women, more radical sports feminists argue that this superficial change has simply hidden more complex gender inequalities that continue to impact on many women and some men (Kusi, 2017). The early feminist of malestream sports are valuable for their rejection of biological

explanations for women's subordination in sports, and for establishing that gender is socially constructed (Scraton & Flintoff, 2013).

2.7.3 Radical Feminism Response

Radical feminism represents one of the types of the feminist theory, founded on the attitude that the society is based on the patriarchal grounds, because of which women are marginalized and discriminated against. Radical feminism developed out of radical politics in the 1960s and 1970s which saw the development of women's consciousness-raising groups and the beginnings of a women's movement with women campaigning publicly against domestic violence, pornography, and for their rights over reproduction and health matters (Scarton & Flintoff, 2013).

Vukoičić, (2017) posits that radical feminism is a feminist theory course that starts from the idea of conflict between the sexes as a fundamental conflict, and oppression against women as a direct implication of patriarchy. This theory, he said, rests on the assumption that all social activity is the result of certain restrictions and coercion, and although every social system contains specific forms of interactive constraints, they do not have to cause repression (Vukoičić, 2017). Considering that a starting point of radical feminism is the view that inequality between the sexes is the foundation of all other inequalities and oppression, it is possible to define it as part of the (discourse) theory of conflict. Basically, the radical feminist explanation is concerned with fundamental structural power relations that are the results of the systematic maintenance of male power through patriarchy, whereby men as a group dominate women as a group. Under patriarchy, however, interaction and communication are limited in a way that creates and maintains

rigidity which is seen as oppression, while patriarchy takes a central place where, and why, a fundamental power struggle between the sexes takes place.

Radical feminists explore the nature of oppression in the media portrayal of sportswomen through an emphasis on their appearance, sexuality, and their motherhood/ domestic role in family (Wright & Clarke, 1999). This takes place in our print and broadcast media and is supported by the use of women as presented in male sports as motor racing and boxing. A radical sports feminist approach maintains that the importance of consciousness rising about violence and sexual abuse supports the development of anti-discriminatory policies challenging discrimination against lesbians and gays (Scraton & Flintoff, 2013). Radical feminism test unequal gender relations in sports mainly by manipulating institutional understanding of male violence and the significance of women-only space. This separate provision ranges from local initiatives (e.g., women's sports organisations and the Gay Games). Mitten (2009) indicates radical sports feminism further encourages the reconstruction of sports into forms that celebrate women's values rather than those more traditionally associated with masculine aggression (as cited in Kusi, 2017).

According to Scraton and Flintoff (2013). radical feminism is criticized for its tendency to essentialism and biological reductionism. Essentialism suggests that there is an essence to being a woman, thus emphasising women perceived natural or biological explanation. Furthermore, the concentration on patriarchy and the shared oppression of women by men fails to fully explore the division between women based on class, race, and ethnicity and homogenises all men as oppressors.

2.7.4 Marxist/Socialist Feminism Response

Insomuch as patriarchy is seen as the primary structure of oppression, in radical feminism, Scraton and Flintoff (2013) mentions that Marxist feminism identifies gender inequalities as deriving from capitalism, class, and economic exploitation. The sexual division of labour is important to this approach and focuses on how capital benefits from women's unpaid domestic labour, maintenance of the future labour force (childcare), and the day-to-day care of male labourers. Marxist feminism looks more specifically at the relationship between gender and class and the system of capitalism and patriarchy. Marxist feminism is feminism focused on investigating and explaining the ways in which women are oppressed through systems of capitalism and private property. According to Marxist feminists, women's liberation can only be achieved through a radical restructuring of the current capitalist economy, in which, they contend, much of women's labour is uncompensated.

In relation to sport, socialist feminism focuses on the part played by women in servicing both men's and children's sports. For example, women often offer the refreshments at male sporting events; they wash sports clothing for their partners or for the men's team; and they transport their children to sports events and support them in their activities often to the detriment of their own leisure and sporting activities (Kirk, Cooke, Flintoff, & McKenna, 2008). This sexual division of labour extends into employment in sports organisations and sports clubs, where women are often found in servicing and supporting roles. Women's dual role in the paid labour force and domestic labour impacts on their time and energies for sport and recreation, socialist feminism is critical of the disparities between men's and women's opportunities for sponsorship, prize money, and sporting careers (Hall, 1996).

2.8.0 Summary

In reviewing literature, there is a suggestion that gender exists in sports and football all around the world. Sports is a powerful institution which contributes to the social construction of male-dominated gender order. Female football in Ghana cannot be exempted from this discovery because of the media generated stereotype that has made sports the preserve of men. Gender issues therefore exist in the media hence the reason why female football stories continue to face challenges, discriminations and stereotypes. Some of the issues identified from the literature are biased in graphic elements, mental/emotional weakness, appropriate femininity, linguistic sexism, and so on. This study is grounded on Agenda Setting, Framing and Feminist Theories to investigate how the media frame female football stories in Ghana.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Research methodology has been generally termed as the procedure being used for collecting the data and information in order to gain in-depth knowledge about any of the subject matter. It is defined as a well-built structure being utilised by the researcher to carry out its study in an effective manner (Chitharanjan, 2016). Meanwhile, Rajasekar, Philominaatha and Chinnathambi (2013, p.5) describe research methodology as “...the procedures by which researchers go about their work of describing, explaining and predicting phenomena”. It is a well-structured plan which the researcher follows to attain the objectives of the study in an efficient manner. With respect to this study the research methodology informs the users about the techniques and methods being used in the study for achieving the desired objectives effectively (Lewis, 2015). This chapter focuses on and outlines research methods and procedures used to obtain and analyse data aimed examining how two (2) selected sports newspapers frame female football stories. This chapter elaborates on the methodology that was used for the study by discussing the research approach, research design, population data collection techniques and that analysis of data. The research methodology assists the readers in gaining enhanced understanding and knowledge regarding the ways in which the investigator or researcher had made efforts to acquire the desired outcomes. Just like Leedy and Ormrod (2010, p. 12) agree with Babbie and Mouton (2008, p. 74) in the definition of research

methodology, this chapter looks at “the general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project.”

3.1.0 Research Approach

O'Leary, (2013) states that research approach move hand in hand with the research philosophy of a study as both are interconnected with each other. Research approaches are plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Cresswell, 2014). Based on the research focus and objectives, this study adhered to the qualitative approach. The qualitative approach to research forms part of the three main approaches and these are Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Method approach to research (Cresswell, 2014). Qualitative research is concerned with qualitative phenomenon involving quality (Rajasekar, Philominaatha & Chinnathambi, 2013). Williams (2007) views qualitative research as a holistic approach that involves discovery and Brennen (2017) posits, it is an understanding of complex concepts and making sense of language which is generally based on people's experiences and human relationships (p. 4). Rajasekar, Philominaatha and Chinnathambi (2013) explains that qualitative research is non-numerical, descriptive, applies reasoning and uses words; its aims is to get the meaning, feeling and describe the situation; its data cannot be graphed; and it investigates the how of decision making. Just like Braun and Clarke (2014) echoed, qualitative research is about meaning and not numbers. This study is set to examine how the sports newspapers frame female football stories in their reportage. It made sense of the choice of language the newspapers use in their reportage on female football and not how many times a phenomenon occurs.

Therefore, the qualitative research approach becomes the most preferred based on the nature of this study.

Again, qualitative research places emphasis upon exploring and understanding "... the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (Creswell, 2014, p. 4; echoed by Holliday, 2007). This is reiterated by Denzin and Lincoln (1994), who say qualitative method implies an emphasis on processes and meanings that are not rigorously examined, measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency. This is to say that, qualitative researchers typically do not make external statistical generalisations because their goal usually is not to make inferences about the underlying population, but to attempt to obtain insights into particular educational, social, and familial processes and practices that exist within a specific location and context (Connolly, 1998). This research which seek to find out how female football stories are framed in two (2) sports newspapers does not intend to use quantity, amount and frequency.

This approach as gaining a perspective of issues from investigating them in their own specific context (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Qualitative research is also described as an unfolding model that occurs in a natural setting that enables the researcher to develop a level of detail from high involvement in the actual experiences (Creswell, 1994). This study on the framing of women football stories was conducted without any attempt to manipulate or influence the phenomena under study since the data collected for the study from newspapers existed in their natural, pre-existing settings. As Creswell (2003) puts it, qualitative research can also be described as an effective model that occurs in a natural

setting that enables the researcher to develop a level of detail from being highly involved in the actual experiences. This means that qualitative researchers study phenomena in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

Qualitative research describes social phenomena as they occur naturally without the artificiality that sometimes surrounds experimental or survey research (Hancock, 2002; Wimmer & Dominick, 2011). Yin (2009) also adds that qualitative research helps social science researchers to study a phenomenon or culture because it gives room for flexibility and the attainment of a deeper understanding of the subject or the phenomenon. As per the focus, this study sought to look at how newspapers frame female football stories in Ghana. Qualitative approach is typically used to capture individual's thoughts, feelings or interpretations of meaning and process (Given, 2008) and according to Williams (2007), qualitative research involves purposeful use for describing, explaining, and interpreting collected data.

In qualitative approach, knowledge claims are based on constructivist perspectives or different meanings of individual experiences. Constructivism or social constructivism, according to Creswell (2014), is typically seen as an approach to qualitative research. According to Baxter and Jack (2008) constructivists claim that truth is relative and that it is dependent on one's perspective. That is, according to Braun and Clarke (2014), with constructivism, truth changes and that there is no one truth which a certain method allows to – there are knowledges, rather than knowledge. This paradigm “recognizes the importance of the subjective human creation of meaning, but doesn't reject outright some

notion of objectivity. Pluralism, not relativism, is stressed with focus on the circular dynamic tension of subject and object” (Miller & Crabtree, 1999, p. 10). Constructivism is built upon the premise of a social construction of reality (Searle, 1995, as cited in Baxter & Jack, 2008). In social constructivism, Creswell (2013) again posits that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. They develop subjective meanings of their experiences and these subjective meanings are negotiated socially and historically (Creswell, 2013). The authors add that social constructivists believe that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and develop subjective meanings of their experiences - meanings directed toward certain objects or things. Creswell (2014) admits that these meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. A qualitative approach was the best to use for this study because the research is focused on the interpretation of data. It was not necessary to use quantitative methods because the purpose of the study is not to necessarily look at numbers, but to describe how the media frame female football stories. That is why this study adopted the qualitative approach.

The qualitative research approach depends primarily on human perception and understanding where the researcher seeks to establish the meaning of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2014). That is why Jackson, Drummond and Camara (2007) posit that qualitative research is concerned with understanding human beings’ experiences in a humanistic, interpretive approach. Qualitative researchers typically do not make external statistical generalisations because their goal usually is not to make inferences about the

underlying population, but to attempt to obtain insights into particular educational, social, and familial processes and practices that exist within a specific location and context (Connolly, 1998).

It is believed that qualitative researches, most of the time, look for hidden meanings than look at the quantity of occurrences or events. Kvale (1996, p.11, as cited in Qu & Dumey, 2011) maintained that qualitative research is not “objective data to be quantified, but meaningful relations to be interpreted.” Qualitative research is about delving into the meanings people attach to social phenomenon rather than measuring a situation using predetermined benchmarks (Creswell, 2013). All the ideas are socially constructed. This is to say that social realities are individually constructed based on preconceived thoughts and personal experiences. A qualitative approach was the best for this study because the research was focused on the interpretation of data. It was also not necessary to use quantitative methods because the purpose of the project was not to determine how many times a frame was used, but to describe what those frames were.

As the research questions indicate, the aim of this study is to discover framing themes and patterns that emerged from two sports newspapers’ content in their coverage of female football stories. The aim was not to understand the effects of media frames on female footballers or to provide a description of how sports journalists use media frames, which is why interviews and focus groups were not conducted. A qualitative method was best suited for this study because of the project’s focus on the interpretation of data (Walker & Myrick, 2006). It was also unnecessary to use quantitative methods because

the purpose of the project was not to determine how many times a frame was used, but to describe what those frames were.

3.2.0 Research Design

According to Panneerselvam, (2014), research design is the outline of how the study is to be carried out. Research designs, according to Creswell (2013), is the plan for conducting the study. He sees research designs “as plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis” (Cresswell, 2009, p.3). By the same token, Amoani (2005) made it clear that research design is an arrangement of conditions for collecting and analysing data relevant to the researcher in the most economical manner that determines the sample size, sampling technique, the type of data and how to collect it as well as the method of data analysis. Essentially, the research design creates the foundation of the entire research work (Rajasekar, Philominaatha & Chinnathambi, 2013). The design will help perform the chosen task easily and in a systematic way. Given (2008), simply puts it as the way in which a research idea is transformed into a research project or plan that can then be carried out in practice by a researcher. Carriger (2000) added that research design is a strategy, a plan and a structure for conducting a research project. Moreover, Yin (2009) suggests that research design is the logic that links the data to be collected (and the conclusions to be drawn) to the initial questions of study. In a more explanatory and informal way, Agboada (2017) contends that a research design is an action plan for getting from here to there, where ‘here’ may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered, and ‘there’ is some set of conclusions (answers) about these questions. The research design for this study is Qualitative Content Analysis.

Content analysis is the systematic study of texts, and other cultural products. Researchers regard content analysis as a flexible method for analysing text data (Cavanagh, 1997). Content analysis is, by itself, quantitative. As recounted and argued by Hsieh and Shannon (2014), content analysis was used primarily as a quantitative research method, with text data coded into explicit categories and then described using statistics. Leedy and Ormrod (2001) define this method as “a detailed and systematic examination of the contents of a particular body of materials for the purpose of identifying patterns, themes, or biases” (p. 155). Content analysis review forms of human communication including books, newspapers, and films as well as other forms in order to identify patterns, themes, or biases (Williams, 2007). The method is designed to identify specific characteristics from the content in the human communications. Givens (2008) sees content analysis as the intellectual process of categorising qualitative textual data into clusters of similar entities, or conceptual categories, to identify consistent patterns and relationships between variables or themes.

Qualitative content analysis is sometimes referred to as latent content analysis and this analytic method is a way of reducing data and making sense of them—of deriving meaning (Givens, 2008). It is a commonly used method of analysing a wide range of textual data, including interview transcripts, recorded observations, narratives, responses to open-ended questionnaire items, speeches, and media such as drawings, photographs, and video. In qualitative research, content analysis is interpretive and involves close reading of text. Qualitative researchers using content analytic approach recognise that text is open to an individual explanation, reflects multiple meanings and content

dependent (Given & Olson, 2003, as cited in Kusi, 2017). Essentially, qualitative content analysis involves interpreting, theorising, or making sense of data by first breaking it down into segments that can be categorised and coded, and then establishing a pattern for the entire data set by relating the categories to one another (Gubrium & Holstein, 1997, as cited in Drummond & Camara, 2007).

According to Wimmer and Dominick (2011, p. 156), “the method is popular with media researchers because it is an efficient way to investigate the content of the media, such as ... the print media.” Krippendorff (2004) states that content analysis is one of the preferred methods capable of coping with such large volumes of research data. Krippendorff (2004) adds that content analysis is frequently used in the media to analyse units of news articles such as headlines, leads and paragraphs in the context of framing theory. Tankard (2001) sees content analysis as a method for analysing message content in an orderly manner; a tool for observing and analysing certain communicators instead of resorting to interview or the use of questionnaire as a survey research or observation, which are also useful tools for gathering information.

This study is to analyse the content, that is texts, of sports newspapers to examine the categorises and frames used by the newspapers to portray female stories. It is important to note that the study content analysed the news articles I selected, and close reading was done to identify categorises and frames and patterns. I concentrated on the paragraphs of the various stories as my unit of analysis of the study and broke them down into segments so I could categorise and code them and bring the codes together to help me realise the

patterns and frames. Paragraphs were chosen for the study because according to Krippendorf (2004), content analysis is frequently used in the media to analyse units of news articles such as headlines, leads and paragraphs in the context of framing theory. This study looked at *Graphic Sports* and *Finder Sports* newspapers so content analysis was the best research design that helped to analyse the text and data that is collected.

3.3.0 Period of Data Collection

The period for data collections spanned January, 2018 to December, 2018. The reason for this period is that during the year 2018, a lot of football activities of both male and female took place. The World Cup for men was held in Russia, the Under 20 Women's World Cup was also held in France, and Ghana hosted the African Cup of Nations tournament for women. There were also qualifying matches for both men and women and until football was suspended in Ghana due to some corruption issues, there were football leagues for both men and women on-going.

3.4.0 Sampling and Sampling Strategy

Sampling, according to Givens (2008), is the process of choosing actual data sources from a larger set of possibilities. It is also seen as the act, process or technique of selecting a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population (Mugo, 2010). Kumekpor (2002, p. 132) further explained that, sampling “involves the examination of a carefully selected proportion of the units of a phenomenon in order to help extend knowledge gained from the study of the part of the whole from which the part was selected”. Yoon and Jain

(2010) noted that sampling involves three (3) decisions, that is, defining the sampling unit, deciding the sample size and the sampling procedure for the selection. With the commencement of the research it is very important for the researcher to lay emphasis on the selection of the suitable sample for the research process (Neuman & Robson, 2012, as cited in Chitharanjan, 2016). According to Lindlof and Taylor (2002), qualitative researchers use sampling in order to direct their choice of observation and respondents to particular characteristics to consider.

Based on the focus of this study, purposive sampling technique was used to sample all the editions of the two (2) newspapers (*Graphic Sports* and *Finder Sports*) from January, 2018 to December, 2018. According to Lindlof & Taylor, (2002) the purposive sampling strategy is suitable for any study such as this one because qualitative studies is most of the time guided by purposive sampling strategies. Creswell (2014), states that qualitative research is to purposefully select participants or sites (or documents or visual materials) that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the research question. In purposive sampling, the selection of participants, settings or other sampling units is criterion-based or purposive (Mason, 2002; Patton, 2002). The sample units are chosen because they have particular features or characteristics which enable detailed exploration and understanding of the central themes and puzzles the researcher wishes to study. Parahoo (1997, p. 232) also indicates that purposive sampling as “a method of sampling where the researcher deliberately chooses who to include in the study based on their ability to provide necessary data”. Kumekpor (2002) reiterated that in purposive sampling, the units of the sample are selected not by random procedure, but they are

intentionally picked for study because of their characteristics or because they satisfy certain qualities which are not randomly distributed in the universe but they are typical or they exhibit most of the characteristics of interest to the study.

The study selected the *Graphic Sports* because it is a sports newspaper which report on all sporting disciplines. It is the oldest sports newspaper in Ghana and it is distributed nationwide (Graphic Annual Report, 2012). The *Graphic Sports* newspaper is a state-owned sports newspaper published in Accra, Ghana and receives reports from the different parts of the country. The paper, owned by the Graphic Communication Group Limited is the the market leader of sports newspapers in Ghana (Graphic Annual Report, 2012). It is published three (3) times in a week. Moehler and Singh (2011) say the people of African democratic states tend to trust state-owned media. *Graphic Sports*, according to a 2018 GeoPoll Report, has a readership of 169,000 weekly. This makes *Graphic Sports* suitable for this study.

The *Finder Sports* newspaper is a privately-owned Ghanaian newspaper. It is published in Accra by the Marble Communication Group Limited (MCG). It has been in existence for the past seven (7) years and it also reports on all sporting disciplines, including male and female football. The policy of MCG is that, its newspapers, including the *Finder Sports* newspaper, will help in socio-economic development of the country and it focuses on four principles, namely credibility, balance, relevance and professionalism. Its circulation is between ten to fifteen thousand copies weekly (K. Adade, personal

communication, 2019). Just like the *Graphic Sports* newspaper, the *Finder Sports* newspaper is also distributed nationwide.

These two (*Graphic Sports* and *Finder Sports*) newspapers are two of the most well-known regularly distributed sports newspapers in Ghana. The final research analysis collectively examined these two texts to discover themes that emerged in how sports newspapers frame female football stories.

3.5.0 Sample Size

A sample is a subset of the population that is representative of the entire population (Wimmer & Dominick, 2011). Givens (2008) sees sample size as the number of data sources that are actually selected from the total population. Onwuegbuzie and Collins, (2007) posit that in qualitative studies, researchers must make a sound decision on the number of data to choose which is known as the sample size. According to Omona (2013), sampling should be a consideration in all qualitative inquiries, regardless of purpose of research. Whereas Braun and Clarke (2013) argued, qualitative research tend to use smaller samples than quantitative research, but “there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry” (Patton, 2002, p. 244). In general, (Sandelowski, 1995) says, the sample sizes in qualitative research should not be too small that it is difficult to achieve saturation. At the same time, the sample should not be too large that it is difficult to make deep, case-oriented analysis (as cited Omona, 2013).

However, Braun and Clarke (2013) add that, when your research analyses printed text rather than data generated from participants, your sample may well be much larger.

Braun and Clarke (2013) further state that sample size is not a simple question and that Patton (2002, p. 244) thinks that sample size is affected by “what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what’s at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with available time and resources”. It was not possible to conduct a census of the sports newspapers, so a limited selection of issues was chosen for the analysis (Frey, Botan, Friedman & Kreps, 1992). All issues of the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers between January, 2018 and December, 2018 were included in the analysis. Per the above explanation and the problem statement, this study used purposive sampling to select sixty-six (66) issues that were analysed. There were sixty-two (62) issues from the *Graphic Sports* newspaper and four (4) from the *Finder Sports* newspaper. From the above, *Graphic Sports* newspaper had three hundred and eighty (380) paragraphs and twenty (20) paragraphs for the *Finder Sports* newspaper. In all, there were four hundred (400) paragraphs that were obtained and analysed. It should be noted that the sole criteria for a text to be analysed was that it had to, at least, reference a female footballer or women’s football story, which may explain the number of texts analysed. These sixty-six (66) issues represented a limited selection of publications examined to illustrate how female football stories are framed in the sports newspaper genre.

3.6.0 Data Collection Method

Demonstration of the trustworthiness of data collection is one aspect that supports a researcher’s ultimate argument concerning the trustworthiness of a study (Rourke & Anderson, 2004). Selection of the most appropriate method of data collection is essential

for ensuring the credibility of content analysis (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Credibility deals with the focus of the research and refers to the confidence in how well the data address the intended focus (Polit & Beck, 2012). This is to say that, the researcher should put a lot of thought into how to collect the most suitable data for content analysis. The strategy to ensure trustworthiness of content analysis starts by choosing the best data collection method to answer the research questions of interest (Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utriainen, & Kyngäs, 2014).

There are certain data collection methods that have also been identified with qualitative research such as: observational methods, in-depth interviewing, group discussions, narratives, and the analysis of documentary evidence (Spencer & Snape, 2003). Again, in most studies where content analysis is used, the collected data are unstructured (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Neuendorf, 2002; Sandelowski, 1995b), gathered by methods such as interviews, observations, diaries, other written documents, or a combination of different methods. During the process of qualitative research, the investigator may collect qualitative documents and they may be public documents (e.g., newspapers, minutes of meetings, official reports) or private documents (e.g., personal journals and diaries, letters, e-mails) (Creswell, 2014). The main source of data collection used in this study was documents. Newspapers were used as an investigative tool to examine headlines of news stories published in the selected newspaper for the study (*Graphic Sports* and *Finder Sports*). I gained access to the library of the New Times Corporation through permission. After my request was approved, I used the library to gather my data since there were copies of the selected newspapers there. Since the study is looking at the

female football stories, I selected the sampled newspapers, categorised the ideas into themes and started with the coding and analysis.

I used pens, pencils, note pads, sheets of papers to code and tally themes that were gotten from the newspapers.

3.6.1 Document Analysis

Document analysis is a social research method and it is a form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic (Bowen, 2009). Document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents—both printed and electronic material. Analysing documents incorporates coding content into themes (Bowen, 2009). This current study analysed newspapers, which is a printed document, to examine how female football is framed, and it involves coding content into themes.

The document analysis refers to analysing documents that contain information about the phenomenon under study (Bailey, 1994; Bowen, 2009). The documents for the study are examined and interpreted for their meanings and to gain understanding through developing empirical knowledge (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Rapley, 2007). Hence, *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers from January, 2018 to December, 2018 were analysed for this study.

Documents that may be used for systematic evaluation as part of a study take a variety of forms. According to Bowen (2009),

the documents include advertisements; agendas, attendance registers, and minutes of meetings; manuals; background papers; books and brochures; diaries and journals; event programs (i.e., printed outlines); letters and memoranda; maps and charts; newspapers (clippings/articles); press releases; programme proposals, application forms, and summaries; radio and television programme scripts; organisational or institutional reports; survey data; and various public records.

These types of documents are found in libraries, newspaper archives, historical society offices, and organisational or institutional files. This study used newspapers for data collection and analysis to help determine the frames used to cover female football stories by the print media in Ghana.

The document analysis procedure entails finding, selecting, appraising (making sense of), and synthesising data contained in documents, like the newspapers that were used for this study. Document analysis yields data—excerpts, quotations, or entire passages—that are then organised into major themes, categories, and case examples specifically through content analysis (Labuschagne, 2003).

According to Payne (2004), documentary analysis helps to identify the limitations inherent in using human sources. Again, Bowen (2009) declares that documents contain text (words) and images that have been recorded without a researcher's intervention. Also, the texts, images and videos are social facts that are produced, shared and used in a socially organised system (Atkinson & Coffey, 1997). For the purposes of this study, images are not included since the study only concentrated on text. The document analysis

was appropriate for the study since it is highly applicable to qualitative case studies (Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994). Again, document analysis has been employed by various scholars to corroborate their findings from using other methods (Angers & Machtmes, 2005; Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Sogunro, 1997). Other scholars and researchers have also used document analysis as a single method to data analysis and enquiry (Gagel, 1997; Wild, McMahon, Darlington, Liu, & Culley; 2009).

3.7.0 Unit of Analysis

The success of data collection should be assessed in relation to the specific research questions and study aim. The preparation phase also involves the selection of a suitable unit of analysis, which is also important for ensuring the credibility of content analysis (Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utriainen, & Kyngäs, 2014). The unit of analysis is the basic unit of text to be classified, “the specific segment of content that is characterised by placing it in a given category” (Holsti, 1969, p. 116). Unit of analysis refers to the basic or smallest unit which would be analysed during content analysis. Kumeckpor (2002, p. 54) made it clear that “the unit of analysis in any research is ...the actual empirical units, objects occurrences, etc, which must be observed or measured in order to study a particular phenomenon”. He further advised that the unit of analysis must be appropriate to the problem being investigated, that is, it must focus attention on the essentials of the objects of the study and it must focus on measurable unit (Kumeckpor, 2002).

Wimmer and Dominick (2003) see unit of analysis as the smallest element of content analysis and it is the basic unit of the text to be classified during content analysis. According to Wimmer and Dominick (2011, p. 164), “in written content, the unit of analysis might be a single word or symbol, a theme (a single assertion about one subject), or an entire article or story. According to Weber (1990), one of the important decisions any researcher must make is to define the coding unit. Tankard (2001) asserts that, the means of identifying and measuring news frames are: headlines, leads, subheads, photographs, photo captions, source selection, quotes, statistics and charts, concluding statements, quote selection, pull quotes, logos and paragraphs. It therefore means assigning a code to a text of any size, as long as that text represents a single theme or issue of relevance to research questions.

This current study used paragraphs as the main unit of analysis in investigating how newspapers frame the coverage of the female football stories in Ghana.

3.8.0 Method of Data Analysis – Content Analysis

Content analysis is either a qualitative or quantitative method (Berelson, 1952, as cited in Hsieh & Shannon, 2014). Altheide and Schneider (2013) agreed when they identified two types of content analysis. These are Quantitative Content Analysis (QCA) and Qualitative Content Analysis also known as Ethnographic Content Analysis (ECA) or latent content analysis (Julien, 2008). According to Hsieh and Shannon (2014) content analysis is a widely used qualitative research technique. Researchers regard content analysis as a flexible method for analysing text data (Cavanagh, 1997). Content analysis is a

systematic process used to compress many words of a text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding (Windhauser, 1991). Again, Given (2008) sees content analysis as the intellectual process of categorising qualitative textual data into clusters of similar entities, or conceptual categories, to identify consistent patterns and relationships between variables or themes. That is, in content analysis, the data is reduced to make meaning.

This study used the qualitative content analysis as its data analysis method. Qualitative content analysis is one of the several qualitative methods currently available for analysing data and interpreting its meaning (Schreier, 2012). According to Bowen (2009) the method of data analysis good for data mined through document is content analysis. Content analysis is to provide knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon under study (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992). This method of data analysis is a way of reducing and making sense of data and also deriving meaning. It is a mental process that that looks at the recurring themes in a document like a text. Content analysis is a commonly used to analyse a wide range of textual data that might be in verbal, print or electronic form, including interview transcripts, manuals, recorded observations, narratives, responses to open-ended questionnaire items, speeches, postings to listservs, and media such as drawings, photographs, and videos (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Julien, 2008).

Bryman (2001) suggests that content analysis is an approach to the analysis of documents and texts (which may be printed or visual) that seeks to quantify content in terms of predetermined categories and in a systematic and replicable content. Krippendorff (2004) added that content analysis is “a research technique for making replicable and valid

inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use” (p. 18). Hsieh and Shannon (2005) also see qualitative content analysis as a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns. Content analysis has been used widely in trying to analyse printed texts.

The focus of this study is to look at how two (2) sports newspapers in Ghana frame female football stories. Based on the above explanations and the focus of this study, which is to analyse how sports newspapers framed the coverage of Ghanaian female football stories, the researcher used content analysis to content-analyse selected news articles. This is because, just like Krippendorff (2004) said, content analysis is mostly used in media studies to analyse units of news articles such as headlines and paragraphs in the context of framing theory. Additionally, I went through the systematic process of analysing the data I collected from the paragraphs of the newspapers by first scanning and skimming (superficial examination), reading closely, organising the information by reducing them into categories and themes and finally making interpretations.

To be able to examine how frames are used, therefore, the researcher content-analyse the selected news articles by focusing on the paragraph as the unit of analysis so as to sort out larger number of phrases and words into fewer categories and themes to be able to make meaning.

3.9.0 Data Analysis Process

In order to carry out the research effectively, Chitharanjan (2016) opines, it is very important to analyze the data so as to establish the outcome of the same. Data analysis is an integral part of qualitative research and constitutes an essential stepping-stone toward both gathering data and linking one's findings with higher order concepts (Givens, 2008). Lamptey (2015) said that the first step in data analysis was data coding to ensure uniformity of answers. Lindlof and Taylor (2002) conceded that the first systematic effort at data analysis usually comes with the creation of categories and a coding scheme. Frankel and Wallen (2003) are of the opinion that data analysis is that task which involves synthesizing all the information a researcher gathers in the field and drawing parallel and logical lines in the data according to the researchers set of research questions.

The researcher in the present study implemented qualitative method for evaluating the collected data. For qualitative analysis the researcher had formulated research questions to collect the required data related to the subject matter. The data collected would assist in answering the research questions. Adopting this technique, the collected data would be evaluated by the investigator and would also support in answering the research question. In addition to this, the collected data is effectively analysed in order to extract appropriate results out of the study. There is a systematic procedure of carrying out the data analysis in an appropriate manner.

The researcher employed the services of two (2) undergraduate students from the Ghana Institute of Journalism (GIJ). They were trained as independent coders to help with the coding of articles. We started the coding process by first designing a coding sheet which

provided space for the name of the newspaper, data story was published, paging of the news articles and thematic categories for the coders. On the coding sheet, we also provided space for the recording of vital information in the news articles that was appropriate for direct quotes, and the total number of paragraphs in all the news articles that were coded.

Whereas Windhauser (1991) is of the opinion that any good researcher who wishes to undertake a study using content analysis has to deal with four methodological issues: selection of units of analysis, developing categories, sampling appropriate content, checking reliability of coding, Krippendoff (2004) also notes that categories must be mutually exclusive so that a word, a paragraph or a theme belongs in one and only one category. The categories must be exhaustive so that all units examined fit in an appropriate category.

The first thing we did in the analysis was to go through the newspapers and identified all the stories about female football in both the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers. We commenced the coding process by designing coding categories and coding schemes that helped in the content analysis. The columns that were included on the instrument were; name of newspaper, date of publication, issue number, and thematic categories. Relevant themes were categorised according to their likeness for the discussion. During the analysis, the themes that were generated were *Male Reference*, *Sexism*, *Weakness*, and *Hierarchy of Naming*. Also, in the coding instrument are space for

recording direct quotes where necessary and the total number of paragraphs in each news story as well as specific themes under which the categories were classified.

3.10 Validity and Reliability

When it comes to validity and reliability, Creswell (2013) opines that it is one of the ways researchers can show the level of accuracy of their data and research as a whole. According to Braun and Clarke (2013), reliability refers to the possibility of generating the same results when the same measures are administered by different researchers. Validity can be defined as a piece of research showing what it claims to show (Braun and Clarke, 2013). According to Babbie (2014), reliability refers to the quality of a method of measurement to produce the same results upon repeated observation of the same phenomenon. That is, if the particular measurement technique were to be applied repeatedly to the same object, the same results would be yielded each time. Validity, on the other hand, refers to a measure accurately reflecting what it intends to measure (Babbie, 2014). Reliability was reached in the current study by using measures and coding procedures that have been established by previous research.

On his part, Creswell (2014, p. 201) asserts that in qualitative research, “validity is used to determine whether the findings are accurate from the standpoint of the researcher, the participant, or the readers account”.

Creswell (1998) recommends that prolonged engagement and observation of the research phenomenon, triangulation, peer review and debriefing, negative case analysis,

clarification of research bias, member checking, rich-thick description as well as external audits as methods of checking validity in a qualitative research but he agrees, that in qualitative research, at least two of these verification procedures must be used.

This research utilised prolonged engagement and observation of the research phenomenon by making sure that the time period for the research is relatively long enough to ensure that the phenomenon to be studied would have enough time to occur (Wimmer & Dominick, 2002). This is what informed the choice of the time frame of January 2018 to December 2018 for the study. Multiple theoretical methods as proposed by Cohen et al (2006) proposed that multiple methods are used to enhance deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study and that is the reason why this study employed the agenda setting, framing, and feminist theories in order to analyse and understand all the data collected.

Consistency in the use of instruments to catch accurate, representative, relevant and comprehensive data aids in the attainment of reliability in qualitative research (King, Morris & Fitz-Cubbob, 1987, as cited in Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). The researcher, for this study, used the same methods: document analysis, for data gathering in the research.

3.11 Summary

This chapter presented the methodology the researcher used to assess newspaper framing of female football stories. The approach to the study was qualitative and the data was obtained through content analysis. The *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder* sports newspapers were two selected newspapers for the study because of their credibility and wide

circulation. The unit of analysis was paragraphs on female football stories and these were collected from the period spanning from January 2018 to December 2018. The researcher tried to make sure that the date obtained for the study was valid and the processes were reliable.



CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter of the study outlines a detailed presentation of the findings, discussion and analysis of data collected, using content analysis from news stories, from the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports*, newspapers. The findings are from the investigation conducted into how sports newspapers frame female football stories in Ghana. The research questions posed at the beginning of the study are answered in this chapter by reducing data obtained into themes and analysing them using the relevant theories and literature reviewed in the Chapter Two of the study. Below are the research questions that guided the data collection;

1. What are the dominant frames used to portray female football stories in Ghana?
2. What is the level of consistency among the newspapers on the gender portrayal of female football stories?

4.1.0 RQ1: What are the dominant frames used to portray female football stories in Ghana?

This research question seeks to identify the frames that the two (2) newspapers, *Graphic Sports* and *the Finder Sports*, used to portray female football stories in Ghana from January 2018 to December 2018. The content analysis of the *Graphic Sports* and *the Finder Sports* sports newspapers revealed some important information pertaining to the themes and patterns found within the two newspapers. I discovered four emergent

themes: *male reference*, *sexism*, *mental weakness*, and *hierarchy of naming*. The findings resulting from the themes under which the newspaper stories were coded are presented in the table below:

Table 1: Frequency distribution of newspaper frames on female football stories by the two newspapers from January, 2018 – December, 2018.

Frames	Graphic Sports	Finder Sports	Overall Total
Male reference	92 (48.17%)	16 (45.71%)	108 (47.79%)
Sexism	46 (24.03%)	12 (34.29%)	58 (25.66%)
Mental Weakness	33 (17.28%)	7 (20%)	40 (17.69%)
Hierarchy of Naming	20 (10.47%)	0 (0%)	20 (8.85%)
Total	191 (100)	35 (100)	226 (100)

4.1.1.1. Male Reference

In these newspapers, that is the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports*, it is not uncommon for an article that features a female footballer or female story to reference a close male figure in her life. The male reference most often ranges from a brother to a boyfriend to a male coach, to male managers and to even (team) owners. Sometimes the writers introduce these men as mere references, while other times they portray them as having a significant influence on the females' performances. In these sports newspapers, articles or textual segments about female football stories often include a male reference. It indicates complete control or dominance. Billing and Alvesson (2000) and Eagly (2007) found that the masculine or male frame of reference exists because men have held the majority of leadership positions for much of the history of business and even in sports.

Out of the frames that were realised, male reference appeared to have the highest of the four (4) frames that was used as coverage of female football stories in the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* from January, 2018 to December, 2018. With regard to male references, writers most of the time mention females and female stories in conjunction with that of their male coaches. In an article describing how the Black Queens return to training after defeating Mali at the African Cup of Nations tournament held in Ghana in 2018, the writer started his story by first referencing the male. This story is about victory for the team but the writer mentioned the coach first before talking about the team's victory. The victory of the team is linked to the male coach in this article. This is evident in the extract below:

“Coach Bashiru Hayford’s side began on a bright note with much determination in the first 30 minutes and finally rewarded themselves with a goal after Portia Boakye’s free kick went straight into the net.” (Quansah (2018, November, 23) *Graphic Sports*, p. 10).

On another page of the same newspaper, there was a story about how John Boye of the Black Stars gave the team a victory and moved the team to the next stage of a qualifying series. The spectacular goal that moved the team to the next stage of the qualifier was attributed to the player and there was no mention of the coach who was handling the side.

The very first paragraph states:

Black Stars defender, John Boye, provided one of the key talking points of his team victory against their opponent as he scored a spectacular goal to

move the team to the next stage of the qualifier (Amoh (2018, November, 23) Graphic Sports, p. 4).

In an article describing how Ghana's under 20 women's team, the Black Princesses, targeted to win a football match against Cameroun in the World Cup qualifying series, the writer mentions the male coach of the team who is being hopeful about a win on the task ahead. That is, the team's victory or success was linked to a male coach being hopeful. The article includes a quote from their coach that discusses the anticipation, hope and preparing well. For instance, in paragraph four (4) of an article titled *Black Princesses Target Cameroun Win*, the frame of male reference is shown in the following quote:

“Anticipated to be a very tough game, given the growing rivalry between the two (2) countries, Coach Yusif Basigi remains hopeful that his side will win as they have reared well for the task ahead” (Amoh, (2018, January, 14) Graphic Sports, p. 10).

From the above quote from the article, the writer left out the female team presence in the story and rather concentrated on the male coach and even a quote to make the story credible. This is a clear exhibition of male reference showing dominance which means that the female team cannot win without the help and connection of their male coach. In another quote of the same article, Coach Yusif Basigi said:

"Since beating Kenya to advance to the final round, we have had to step up our game and the friendly against South Africa two weeks ago really helped

us to assess our strengths and weaknesses. Now we have worked on getting better with our strengths and correcting our mistakes too” (Amoh, (2018, January, 14) *Graphic Sports*, p. 10).

Another example of referencing a male coach is found in the *Graphic Sports* newspaper in an article concerning a big win for Sea Lions, a female football team, as an opener for the FreshPak National Women’s League. It mentions a successful victory for the team briefly, and that even comes after head coach has been mentioned as being elated. In this article entitled *FreshPak National Women’s League, Big Wins on Opening Day*, the writer mentions that there was a win but instead of attributing the win to the (women’s) team which won the match, the writer rather decided to talk about the head coach of the female team who is a male and was elated. The article published on April 9, 2018 had this quote:

“Head coach of Sea Lions, Eddie Williams, was elated that his side’s game plan against Immigration Ladies materialized this time round” (Franklin, (2018, April, 9) *Graphic Sports*, p. 10).

From the above, it was realized that there was a win, and of course a big win for Sea Lions which is a female football team in the women’s league. This win, due to male reference, was linked to the excitement of a male coach. Coaches are prevalent male reference found in sports articles concerning female footballers and their stories.

Numerous male references are found in the articles selected for the analysis from the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers. Another common male reference in

these articles concerned owners of female football teams. Writers of female football stories use their owners to reference coverages. In an article on January 12, 2018, and titled *LadyStrikers FC face target league, FA Cup*, the writer made reference to the owner of the team and the coach of the team from the very start of the story even before mentioning anything about the females. The article starts in the very first paragraph by saying:

“Dr Kojo Taylor, the owner and bankroller of LadyStrikers FC, says he has tasked his coach, Rashid Iddi, to win the 2017/2018 National Women’s League (NWL) trophy this season as the competition commences” (Quansah (2018, January, 26) Graphic Sports, p. 10).

The writer in the story which had the above quote, lay emphasis on owner and bankroller of the team. The male reference is seen at the very beginning of the story as against the reference to the female’s victory. The story is about LadyStrikers winning a football match against Ampem Darkoa football team in a final competition at the Baba Yara Sports Stadium but this story started with what the owner and bankroller of a female team said. This story also made reference to a male even though the women won the match. This goes on to show that when it comes to victory of a female football team, it must be linked to a male support.

Husband is another male reference found in the newspapers. One of the articles that has a male reference is about the 2017 Aiteo CAF Awards where some female football players were given awards. During the awards, the writer states that the First Lady of Liberia, Clar Weah, addressed those present after receiving a special award on behalf of the

husband. The story did not go ahead to immediately tell the reader what the First Lady said but a male reference that spoke about the wife of President George Weah. This story states that:

“The wife of the Liberian President – elect, Clar Weah, speaking after receiving a special award on behalf of her husband, George Weah...” (2018, January, 8 – 9, p.7).

Male reference is a common theme found throughout the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers examined in this study. These references include figures such as the female footballer brothers, boyfriends, fathers, managers and coaches and owners of teams. The mention of these male figures can range from that of a brief statement to the point where they can emerge as a secondary focus of the article. According to Nicely (2007) the male reference is often found throughout sports newspapers and magazines in articles pertaining to female in a wide range of sports.

Men’s sport events are presented as the norm, while women’s events continue to be “marked as the *other*, derivative, and by implication, inferior to the men’s” (Messner, Duncan & Jensen, 1993, p. 127). From the analysis, and as shown above, male reference has been included in many of the female football stories. The male references that have been included in articles about female football, according to Kusi (2017) make it look like women cannot be successful without a male support system and that they depend on that support to achieve success in their sports. In expressions such as the ones above, women are described and defined in terms of their relationship to men. Men, however, are hardly ever described in terms of their relationship to women. The references do not

allow these women to stand alone as legitimate athletes because they are rarely mentioned as stand-alone successful athletes (Kusi, 2017). This discriminates against women, pushing them to the background to make them look inferior. This can help set agenda against women football and it has the implication against the development of the female football.

4.1.2. Sexism

Sexism ranked second in the analysis of the two (2) sports newspapers, the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports*, to find out the dominant frames used to portray female football stories Ghana. Sexism is prejudice, stereotyping, or discrimination, typically against women, on the basis of sex. According to Parry (2014), sexism is prejudice or discrimination based on one's gender. Sexist attitudes stem from stereotypes of gender roles. Sexism, according to Napikoski (2019), means discrimination based on sex or gender, or the belief that because men are superior to women, discrimination is justified. Sexist discrimination against girls and women is a means of maintaining male domination and power. Frisby (2017) see sexist language as words that demean the athlete based on being a woman. Umera-Okeke (2012) calls it Linguistic Sexism/Sexist Language or Gender Exclusive Language and defines it as any language that is supposed to include all people, but, unintentionally (or not) excludes a gender - this can be either males or females. Sexist language is especially common in situations that describe jobs - common assumptions include that all doctors are men, all nurses are women, all coaches are men, or all teachers are women (Umera-Okeke, 2012). Atkinson defines (1993) linguistic sexism as a wide range of verbal practices, including not only how women are labeled

and referred to, but also how language strategies in mixed sex interaction may serve to silence or depreciate women as interactants. Renzetti and Curan, (1995) adds that Linguistic Sexism is a way in which language devalues members of one sex, usually through defining women's "place" in society as a secondary status or by ignoring women entirely.

From the analysis, it was discovered that sexism got fifty-eight (58) codes in total. *Graphic Sports* newspaper recorded 46 thematic codes which represent 24.03% while the *Finder Sports* newspaper recorded 12 thematic representing 24.49%. A lot of female events were gender marked. The media presents male events as the norm while female events are seen as the *other* which make them inferior. The main indicators of this particular theme of sexism are *Freshpak National Women's League, African Women's Cup of Nation, Ghana's under 20 female team*, just to cite a few. The following are excerpts from the newspapers relating to the theme of sexism:

Ghana's under-20 female football team, the Black Princesses, have set their sight on winning the first leg of the final qualifying round despite playing a tricky away game to Cameroon (Amoh, (2018, January, 14) *Graphic Sport*, p, 12).

From the above except, the writer referred to the 2018 National Under 20 Women's Football team as Ghana's under 20 female team, the Black Princesses while when it comes to the male junior national team the writer referred to them the National Under 20 team or for the senior team, National team of Ghana, the Black Stars. But when it comes

to the women's team, there is a gender marking which goes on to make the one for the male, the *norm*, while for the female, they are framed the *other*.

Another article which has the frame of sexism is a story which is titled, *Mercy Tagoe Needs Our Support*. The writer, in the seventh (7th) paragraph of this particular story which talks about Mercy Tagoe's appointment as an assistant coach of the Black Queens, made some labelling. The paragraph states:

She (Mercy Tagoe) became the first female coach to handle a male team, Amidaus Professionals, before joining Halifax Ladies. Her appointment as the assistant coach of the Queens, therefore, did not surprise many, as it was considered a perfect grooming plan for her future (2018, January, 14) *Graphic Sport*, p, 12).

In the extract above, she "became the first female coach to handle a male team" is a gender marking. The other stories where there are male coaches coaching or handling female teams, those gender markings were not introduced by the writers. There is no problem with writing, for example, she became the first female coach to handle Amidaus Professionals. From the above, it means that, just like it had been stated by Lei (2006) men are considered the norm for the human species: their characteristics, thoughts, beliefs and actions are viewed as fully representing those of all humans. It is realized that for men, it is normal, the *norm* but for women it is the *other*. That is *othering* women or female football stories. By relegating women to a dependent, subordinate position, sexist language prevents the portrayal of women and men as different but equal human beings.

Again, in another article titled *FreshPak National Women's League... Police, Prisons Ladies Show Fine Form*, the writer, right from the title of the article has introduced a gender marking and went ahead to use a flowery word to describe a goal which was supposed to be more of action and victory than creamy and silky. The tenth (10th) paragraph states:

Ten-man LadyStrikers managed to hold Halifax to a goalless draw at the TDC Park in Tema with Ruth Appiah fluffing a final minute chance to put the visitors ahead.

The writers in the newspapers use “fluffing” to describe a goal which is as a result of an action and effort and that is a gender marking. This according to Lei (2006), is inappropriate and that if a man and a woman each have a determined and strong attitude, do not describe him as 'forceful' and her as 'pushy' and fluffy. The other articles that record goals of men's football do not use such words to describe those goals. The writers involve words that are clearly restricted in reference to one sex or the other, with female words tending to have less favourable meanings.

In another article sexism is shown in the *Finder Sports* newspaper which was titled *Congratulations, Black Queens*, the writer states:

Ghana's feat at WAFU Tournament was made more special because it also took Mercy Tagoe, the interim coach of the female senior national team, the Black Queens, into the history books for being the first female coach of the team to win a trophy with the side.

The above article has elements of gender marking. That is the mention of “the interim coach of the female senior national team, the Black Queens...” is a gender marking which tries to make sports, for that matter football, look like it is a male domain rather than that of women. Although on the surface the articles in this category appear to focus on Mercy Tagoe raising the bar, the principal characteristic of the news items in this category was sportswomen’s connection to sportsmen and male sporting standards. This articulates sexism indirectly by presenting Mercy Tagoe initially as a successful coach who has won a tournament with the Black Stars. However, this image is then followed by reporting that she is an interim coach who is a female that led a male team to victory. The way in which this article is structured frames her outside traditional femininity and womanhood, and explains her success through the claim that she is ‘an interim coach who is a female and led a male team to win’. This infers that in order to reach her feat, she has to emulate male standards and characteristics. In this way although the article begins by celebrating Tagoe’s aspiration and success, her raising the bar is reported as achieving something by performing a certain masculine position (Pressland, 2012). Crolley and Teso (2007) report that sportsmen are the ‘norm’ in reporting and sportswomen are thus represented as a deviation from the norm. In this case the norm is masculinised and hence Tagoe aims to embody male characteristics in order to place herself effectively. This article re-counts to the ‘different but equal’ debate regarding the physical abilities of sportswomen and men, which I do not support. This line of thinking suggests that women and men are biologically different but that they should be treated equally regardless of who is superior or inferior in ability. In the case of sportspeople this idea of equal but different supports the widely accepted belief that men are ‘naturally’

stronger than women. The male standard is thus highlighted as the top level of achievement for both women and men, even though women most likely, according to this philosophy, would never be strong enough to reach the male level. I think that we live in a highly gendered society and the current way in which children are socialised into ‘male’ or ‘female’ roles (Messner 2002) creates consequences for their bodies and minds during their lives, in terms of their understanding and expectations of their roles and their own abilities, particularly physically.

According to Kusi (2017), when women are mentioned, they are always referred to as ‘the women’s players, ‘the female’ coaches, etcetera. So, the participation of women in sports is “socially constructed as alternative to their male counterparts, who ply the version of the sport that the media see to really count” (Kinnick, 1998, as cited in Kusi, 2017). It therefore means that sports writers have a practice to discriminate against women sporting events, including women’s football, making women sports events, including women’s football, appear inferior. The issue of sexism in sports has been widely recognised by scholars, particularly by feminist media studies scholars (Bernstein 2002; Brookes 2002; Biscomb & Griggs 2012; Carter, Branston & Allan, 1998; Crolley & Teso 2007; Crossman, Vincent & Speed, 2007; Davis & Tuggle 2012; Lenskyj 1998; Lippe 2002; Pederson 2002; Wensing & Bruce 2003). The way sexism and inequality between the genders manifest themselves is an important part of understanding the overall representation of sportswomen and female football in the media in Ghana.

4.1.3. Mental Weakness

This theme, mental weakness, ranked third (3rd) on the list of frames that emerged from the analysis of *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers to study how female football is framed in the Ghanaian print media. Mental weakness, according to Nicely (2007), is a theme that includes the use of descriptive words and phrases to suggest mental weakness in female football stories and stories concerning female footballers. The print stories concerning female football coverage used for the analysis used many descriptions and/or quotations that imply a female footballer or coach is not mentally prepared or capable of handling the mental stress involved in competitions. These mental references from the articles range from questioning a female coach or footballer's motivation and desire to commenting on a female's loss of confidence and/or focus. These are all implications that female footballers and female football coaches cannot handle the mental pressure or is not in the right mental state of mind to successfully compete in soccer or football.

Mental weakness got 40 codes for both *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers. This represents 16.67% as it has been presented in the table above. The *Graphic Sports* newspaper got thirty-three (33) which represent 17.28% in the while the *Finder Sports* newspaper had 7 out of 40 which represents 14.29%.

In an editorial that was published in the *Graphic Sports* newspaper and was titled *Mercy Tagoe needs our Support*, it has excerpts like:

Unexpectedly, Mercy Tagoe Quarcoo, who was appointed the assistant coach of the senior female national team, the Black Queens, has been entrusted with

the job, albeit temporarily, following the departure of her boss, Masa Ud Didi Dramani, to take up an offer in Denmark.

With virtually no experience in handling any of the national teams, doubts are already being raised over her ability to handle such an important and delicate job, more so in such a significant year when Ghana is hosting the 11th Africa Women's Championship (AWC) (2018, January, 17, *Graphic Sport*, p, 3).

From the excerpt above, the writer suggests that a female is not expected to be made a coach of the national male team. Even though there is a male reference (which has been discussed already) here, a brief segment announces that the coach has virtually no experience to handle a national team for males and that doubts are already being raised over her ability to handle a delicate and an important job like this. Some of the words suggest that Mercy Tagoe, who has been appointed to handle the male national team has not gotten that mental toughness to do so especially when it is unexpected and she has no experience in the job. The article also suggests that with her *Boss* leaving, as against the backdrop that she does not have experience, she does not have that mental toughness to handle such an important and delicate position. The article, again, suggests the newly appointed coach, which is a female, lacks drive and intensity to handle such an important and delicate job of coaching the male national team of Ghana, the Black stars. Drive and intensity are common issues related to mental weakness (Nicely, 2007).

Another paragraph in the same article states:

Unfortunately, she did not get the chance to really understudy Didi Dramani because after her appointment earlier last year, the Queens never had the chance to train or begin their rebuilding exercise until that hurriedly arranged training for the international friendly against France. It is true that not all good footballers turn out to be good coaches, but having women handle national teams at top levels is quite rare, and that is why the Graphic Sports supports the Ghana Football Association's (GFA's) decision to let her handle the team, at least for the WAFU competition. She will require the support of every stakeholder, especially the technical directorate, led by her own mentor, Francis Oti Akenten, to be able to succeed.

From the above extract, the writer highlights on the female football coach's ability to understudy Didi Dramini, who was referred to as her boss in the other paragraphs of the article, and that she cannot stand on her own as a coach so she needs support. Again, the writer admits that not all footballers become good coaches but having a woman to handle a national team is not the norm. This also suggests that Mercy Tagoe does not have the mental strength to handle the male national team. All mental aspects that will affect a female athlete's ability to successfully compete in her sport is deemed mental weakness. References of this nature that highlight flaws or weaknesses in female footballer's or female football coaches' games are common in these sports newspapers. These articles contain references to the mental state of these female footballers and football coaches (2018, January, 17, *Graphic Sport*, p, 3).

In another article where a male coach is appointed as the head coach of Ghana's female national team, the Black Queens, the writer used words that suggests that it is the norm and that is normal for a male coach to handle a female coach but for a female to do that, she needs support because she is not fit mentally. The writer says:

Experienced coach, Sellas 'Borbor' Tetteh says football speaks no gender language and so his new responsibility as the Black Queens coach will be to bring his technical expertise to bear on the team to build a team capable of winning laurels. Last Monday, the Ghana Football Association (GFA) issued a statement on its website announcing that Tetteh had replaced Mas-Ud Didi Dramani as Queens coach (2018, January, 31, *Finder Sports*).

The writer, in the above article, suggests that for the male coach to handle a female football team is normal but because women are not strong mentally, they are not capable of handling a male team. The writer, in this article, makes it known that Sellas Tetteh is *experienced* and that he can handle a female team. In the extract, this means that when it is a male coach, he is experienced and can handle a female football team. This is even captured in one of the paragraphs which reads:

As he waits for the final decision, Borbor, who has no known association with women's football, told the Graphic Sports: "Football is a universal language. It is the same set of rules and regulations so that should not be a problem. "I think it is more important to have the experience which I do. With regard to my knowing all the players, I frankly admit that I don't but I think I have a capable assistant who will help very much in that regard. Once

we get the players for the roles, we set to work on the technical bit. That is the most important,” Coach Tetteh said (2018, January, 31, *Finder Sports*).

This is of concern to the analysis because this article or story was published not too long after the news of the appointment of the female coach who would handle a male national team and it came with a lot of discriminatory descriptions. This means that when it is a male, he has the mental strength to handle anything but when it comes to female taking up certain roles, they are seen to be weak mentally such that they cannot work on their own because they are weak mentally and need to be supported. This goes on to suggest that for male to handle a female team it comes easy and with experience, he can do it. But for a female, because of her mental weakness, she would not be able to stand the pressure of handling a team of men in a national team. This is an exhibition of reference to mental weakness which is made in the article by the writer.

In an article discussing how Samaria Ladies improved their play on the field to lift up their football match against Police Ladies, the writer used words and phrases that have links with characterisation of weakness to describe the event and proceedings on the field of play. The writer, in the sixth (6th) paragraph, discusses how the coach of Samaria Ladies was constantly on the touchline to improve the play of the team. The writer states:

With their coach Anas Seidu constantly on the touchline to issue instructions, an improved Samaria Ladies team got the sizable crowd cheering throughout the game as they proved too tough for their opponents in all the departments of the game. Samaria Ladies kept pushing for a goal in the 30th minute their efforts yielded result when Juliet Abankwa scored.

They held on to the lead till referee Gloria Mortu whistled to end the first half. (Laryea, (2018, March, 14) *Finder Sports*, p, 6).

In the above extract, the writer mentions that the team which won the match between Samaria Ladies and Police Ladies could not have done it alone. Their male coach (Anas Seidu) had to come to the touchline constantly to issue instructions for the team to lift up its game to win the game after first half. The writer suggests, here, that Samaria Ladies were only able to make it because their coach was constantly on the touchline to push them to victory at the end of the first half. This article suggests that the team made a successful comeback and lifted their game and that got them a goal and the writer credits their motivation, saying that, it is because their coach was constantly on the touchline. This implies their disappointing play initially in the game is at least partially caused by a lack of motivation, which is a mental aspect of the game. In the same article, words and phrases associated with mental weakness are also used to describe the Police Ladies team. One of the statements concerning the Police Ladies team states that:

“From recess, Police Ladies woke up from their slumber as ... to snatch the all-important victory.”

This in context suggests that the team’s lack of success earlier in the game is due to her lack of confidence (Laryea, (2018, March, 14) *Finder Sports*, p, 6). A lack of confidence and motivation are both phrases that are associated with a weaker mind set. This article provides numerous references to mental weakness for two of the top professional female football team and their players.

The *Graphic Sports* newspaper's article that discusses the Black Queen's goals target against Niger in the WAFU Zone B tournament, also provides many references to mental weakness (Amoh, February, 16). When the writer notes that the female national team, the Black Queens, were in a desperate mood to win their match against Niger by harvesting goals in their second game. Some of the reasons the writer lists relate to their mental state of mind. The implications one may read from the list suggest that the team does not have the mental toughness required to be a successful. The writer states that:

In a desperate bid to get their WAFU Zone B women's tournament back on track, Ghana's Black Queens have targeted a goal harvest against Niger in their second group game this afternoon.

The writer also states that the Black Queens are in a desperate and anxious mood to see themselves beat their counterparts from Niger. Anxiety is a feeling of worry, nervousness, or unease about something with an uncertain outcome. This is to say that the team was nervous, worried, apprehensive, and afraid. This conclusion implies that the Black Queens lacked the mental wherewithal and ability to strive for a win against their counterparts from Niger. The perception is that the Black Queens lack the motivation and mental strength to achieve success or victory in that match. This article illustrates the concept of mental weakness that is often associated with female footballers, female coaches, etc.

These articles contain references to the mental state of these female athletes. Mental weakness is related to the framing of female footballers, female football stories and women's sports in general. In many of the articles that were analysed, the writers

reference motivation, confidence, and lack of experience in relation to the mental game of female football. While, some articles blatantly question the mental strength of these athletes, others reference these concepts with a more subtle approach. Whether direct or indirect, reference to mental weaknesses is a common trend that is seen throughout these sports newspapers which were used for the study.

4.1.4. Hierarchy of Naming

This theme of hierarchy of naming appeared as the fourth (4th) frame out of the frames used to cover female football stories from January 2018 to December 2018. It was found that women's events were gender marked numerous times, such as referring to a football game as the "women's championship," while men's events were never gender marked. This gender marking, Malik (2016) says presented men's events as the norm, while women's events were continually marked as other and in turn implied as inferior.

According to Malik (2016), "hierarchy of naming," was the idea that women were "infantilised" by writers who referred to them by their first names, while referring to male footballers by their last names (p. 25) and even their full names. Gendered hierarchy of naming is the establishment of a dominant/subordinate relationship through the differential use of forenames and surnames (Gratton & Jones, 2010). Again, highly accomplished female athletes (footballers and coaches) and footballers are often "infantilised" by sports by referring to them as "girls" or "young ladies" whereas skilled male athletes are rarely (if ever) referred to as "boys" (Messner et al., 1993;

Wensing & Bruce, 2003). The newspapers infantilise female athletes by calling them by their first name only whereas this rarely occurs with male athletes.

It was found that none of the *Finder Sports* newspapers identified female footballers by their first name but this was common in the *Graphic Sports* newspapers. There were articles and even titles of stories which come with the first names of the female football players and coaches. The *Graphic Sports* referred to the players and coaches by their first name. For instance, in an article entitled *Black Queens will be ready for Olympic qualifier against Gabon - Mercy Tagoe-Quarcoo*, the writer states:

Additionally, Coach Mercy has requested for the services of three other foreign-based players – Portia Boakye, Alice Kusi and Priscilla Okyere, to strengthen her squad dominated by home-based players (Amoh (2018, August, 12) *Graphic Sports*).

In the article above, the writer used the the first name of the coach of the senior national female team, the Black Queens, to show her request in the story. This is a gender marking which infantilized the coach of the Black Queens. This and many others as well as frequently calling players by their first name was seen within the article texts. This is not typical of reporting on male footballers in Ghana and previous studies have also shown that women are more likely than men to be identified by their first name (see, for example, Wensing and Bruce, 2003).

Another way in which infantilisation tempers the symbolic threat posed by successful adult sportswomen is to refer to them as ‘girls’ and ‘young ladies’ (Fink & Newhall,

2016; Wensing and Bruce, 2003). The findings from the analysis showed there was a tendency to infantilise the Ghanaian team in this way in the newspapers. This can be seen in most of Graphic Sports articles, with a number of articles referring to ‘girls’ and/or ‘lady/ladies’. For instance, one writer states:

Anticipated to be a very tough game, given the growing rivalry between the two countries, Coach Yusif Basigi remains hopeful that his girls will prevail as they have prepared well for the task ahead (Amoh (2018, January, 12) *Graphic Sports*).

Here, the writer referred to the team as girls which infantilised the players by referring to them as girls. In the following paragraph, the writer again states that:

He told the Graphic Sports yesterday that the ladies were very much aware of the task ahead and were not taking chances at all (Amoh (2018, January, 12) *Graphic Sports*).

There is the use of ladies here too to describe the female team who are not girl. Again, this is seen in another quote as the writer states:

Over the weekend, the Princesses held Cameroun to a 1-1 draw game in Yaounde in the first leg and Coach Yusif Basigi is optimistic his ladies will win and qualify when they host the second leg in a fortnight from now (Amoh (2018, January, 17) *Graphic Sports*).

The players, from the above extract, are referred to as ladies but they are supposed to be football players in action. When they are referred to as ladies, it brings about a gender

marking which discriminates against the females who play football and those females who coach too. In some of the articles, the writers referred to the female football players as sisters. This is an extract from one of the articles:

We are very much aware of what their big sisters did to the Black Queens in a 2016 Olympic qualifier, so we will not target a draw in Yaounde. We will aim for a win; our worst result in this first leg should be a draw. We intend to take care of business in the first leg on Sunday so that there will be no pressure on us during the second leg which we will host," Coach Basigi assured the *Graphic Sports* (Amoh (2018, January, 12) *Graphic Sports*).

In the excerpt above, the writer uses sister to refer to the football players of the Black Queens of Ghana who are supposed to be in action of the field of play. This is also a gender marking that infantilises the female footballer players.

Again, the *Graphic Sports* newspaper infantilises players with references to the word 'Queens', 'Lionesses' and no mention of other terms. The term 'Lionesses' was applied to the Sea Lions women's team and was used extensively in the newspapers. The term Queens was also used extensively in the newspaper to refer to the senior national female team of Ghana, the Black Queens. This name has been developed on the back of the men's more famous 'Black Stars phrase.

One of the ways in which gender hierarchy is reinforced is through gender marking in sport and football. In media reporting, Ghana football is usually assumed to be men's football, whereas the women's game is reported as 'women's football'. Similarly, when

the men's national team compete, they are referred to universally as 'the national team of Ghana, The Black Stars, without the need for gender identification. Consequently, this serves to reinforce men's football as 'real' sport, while the women's game is demoted to 'other' (Fink, 2013, p. 334). Such language disparities serve to reflect the lower reputation of female athletes and reinforce existing negative, or ambivalent, attitudes about women's sport (Messner et al., 1993).

Because majority of spectators experience sporting events through the media such as newspapers, the mass media have a great influence on the perception of sports in society. Through media framing, which refers to the selection and presentation of content by a media outlet, the media can influence the audience and have a strong impact on the perception of female athletes (football players) around the world (Guigglioli, 2013).

4.2.0 RQ2: What is the level of consistency among the newspapers on the gender portrayal of female football stories?

The researcher conducted an analysis on the texts analysed in this study to determine if the thematic framing used in the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers is consistent in both newspapers. Throughout the texts analysed in this study, the researcher looked for references made to male references, mental weakness, sexism and Hierarchy of naming or infantilisation. This Research Question Two (2) sought to find out whether the two newspapers used for the study used the same frames to cover female football stories because one is state-owned and the other is privately-owned

If two or more aspects of mental weakness, sexism and male reference, or hierarchy of naming status are found in one article it is counted twice because the researcher is

interested in how many aspects are referenced and not just in how many articles they can be found. For example, if a writer discusses a footballer's lack of commitment and later mentions her lack of confidence, they are each counted as separate references to mental weakness. In terms of male reference, each male reference within an article or textual segment is counted, but if the same male reference is mentioned two or more times throughout the text he is only counted once. The researcher is more concerned with how many male references are mentioned, as opposed to how many times each male reference is mentioned within one article. This enabled the researcher to determine how often these two newspapers utilize these frames, and not just in how many articles they can be found. The results revealed the frames used among the two (2) newspapers are inconsistent, but there are similarities found between *Graphic Sports* and *Finder Sports* newspapers. In reference to the collective inconsistency, it should be noted there are only four articles in the *Finder Sports* issues analysed for this study that reference female football players and female football stories, which affects how this publication compares with the other one. Of these four articles or textual segments, three of them referenced one of the four emergent themes (Male reference and sexism, and mental weakness). The inconsistencies among the two (2) sports publications is not necessarily because *Finder Sports* newspaper does not utilize these frames, but more so because the newspaper publishes a very minimal selection of texts that reference female football stories and women's sports in general. The *Graphic Sports* utilized all four (4) frames (male reference, sexism, mental weakness and hierarchy of naming). In terms of male reference and sexism, the two publications are identical in the number of times they each reference these themes. They are also similar in mental weakness, with *Graphic Sports* citing this reference slightly

more than *Finder Sports*. Collectively, the publications are inconsistent in how they frame female football stories. This is to say that the two (2) newspapers are inconsistent with the frame of Hierarchy of Naming. It appeared in *Graphic Sports* newspaper but was not seen in the *Finder Sports* newspaper.

4.3.0 Summary

This chapter of the research focused on findings of the study. This study sought to examine media framing of female football stories in Ghana. The study used *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers from January, 2018 to December, 2018 for the analysis. Content analysis was used to analyse the news stories in the two (2) newspapers and it was revealed that four (4) frames were used by the newspapers in their coverage of female football stories in Ghana. These frames are: *Male Reference*, *Sexism*, *Mental Weakness* and *Hierarchy of Naming*.

It was revealed that the frames used by both newspapers are inconsistent, but there are similarities found between *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers. It was revealed that sports writers have a practice to discriminate against women sporting events, including women's football, making women sports events including women's football appear inferior. From the analysis it was suggested that women, even when they are doing so well in football the greatest cannot escape gender stereotyping. And the newspapers, whether privately-owned or state-owned use frames that are discriminatory to women football and women football players, thereby setting the agenda for women football to be pushed to the background and patronize male football.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter came-up with the summation of the entire study. This includes a detailed summary, conclusion of the research which came from the findings and related literature reviewed. The chapter also provides a discussion of the limitations of the research study and offer recommendations for future studies in this area and better media coverage of female football issues.

5.1.0 Summary

This research set out to examine how sports newspapers frame or portray female football stories in Ghana from January, 2018 to December, 2018. This is to say that, this study was conducted in order to find out press coverage of women football stories with focus on investigating how the two newspapers, (the *Graphic Sports* newspaper and the *Finder Sports* newspaper) selected for the study, portray or frame female football stories in Ghana. It probed into the kinds of frames used by newspapers to tell female football stories and to see if the frames are consistent in the two (2) newspapers used for this study.

In order to know the possible answers to the stated objectives and research questions, related literatures were reviewed. The extensive literature that were reviewed served as a foundation for exploring into the frames used by the newspapers in Ghana to cover female football stories. The theories that were used to explain the data – Agenda Setting

Theory (Lippmann, 1922; McComb & Shawn, 1972; Mc Quail, 2000), Framing Theory (D'Angelo, 2018; Entman, 1993; Goffman, 1974) and Feminist Theory (Brantley & Legermann, 2004; Vukočić, 2017), were also reviewed and situated in newspaper contexts.

Agenda-setting, as Mc Quail (2005) puts it, is a process by which the relative attention given to items in news coverage influences the rank order of public awareness of issues and attribution of significance. It estimates that the more the media attention on the issue, the greater the importance attributed to that issue by the audience (Alhassan, 2015). So, if the newspapers highlight the male football and portray female football negatively, they will be setting the agenda for female football to be sent to the background.

Mc Combs (2005) expounds further that the power of the news media to set a nation's agenda, to focus public attention on few public issues; is an immense and well documented influence. People acquire factual information about public affairs from the news media and again society also learns how much importance to attach to a topic on the basis of stress and importance that is placed on it in the news. Newspapers provide a host of cues about the salience of the topic in daily news, lead stories on page one, either display large headlines, etc. (Oladunde & Ajibola, 2009).

Agenda setting is closely related to framing. This is to say that Agenda Setting says, this is what we want you to think about. The next thing is that, the story is framed so that the audience will interpret it in a particular way. That is, framing is the second level of agenda setting. Entman (1991) defined framing as the way media shapes the news to elicit specific responses from viewers and readers. According to Kafle (2014) framing is

a very important concept to understand and interpret news. Meanwhile Iyenger (2005) indicated that at the most general level, framing refers to the way in which opinions about an issue can be altered by emphasising or deemphasising particular facets of that issue. This is to say that, the notion of framing refers to the effects of presentation on judgment and choice (Iyenger,1996). Framing helps to not just to understand news but also to help identify the intention and the process of news making. Framing is based on the assumption that how an issue is characterised in news reports can have an influence on how it is understood by the audiences (Scheufele & Tewksbury, 2007). Framing is an influential way of forming and sharing public opinion. This means that framing can increase or decrease the importance of an event. The way a story is framed by a journalist, can lead to interpretation by the consumer.

According to Vukoičić (2017), feminism is a modern social and political movement which is motivated by individual and collective experiences of women and it is based on the claim that a society is based on patriarchal principles, according to which men are privileged over women, which results in discrimination against women in public and private life. Brantley and Legermann (2004) perceive feminist theory as a generalised, wide-ranging system of ideas about social life and human experience developed from a woman-centered perspective. Feminist theory is a constantly dynamic growing complex of theories that take as their point of departure the analysis of gender as a category of experience in society (Birrel, 2000). Feminist theory could be a drive to liberate and free the subordination, demotion and relegation of women in patriarchal society which will ultimately lead to the empowerment of women worldwide. This because all feminists share an assumption that women are oppressed within a patriarchy society and have the

commitment to change those conditions (Birrel, 2000). Though sports is one of the most celebrated and contested institutions in the society, Roper (2013) mentions that sports does not always lead to positive outcomes. Sports is clearly a gendered profession, that is, a profession that not only welcomes boys or men enthusiastically than women but also serves as a site for celebrating skills and values clearly marked as ‘masculine’ (Birrel, 2000). This undoubtedly goes in contradiction of the beliefs of feminist theory as women are not treated nor seen as the central ‘subjects’ in sports, in general, and football in particular. These theories enabled me make sense of the data collected.

The research approach and design for this study were qualitative (Brennen, 2017; Creswell, 2014; Croucher & Cronn-Mills, 2017) and Content Analysis (Givens, 2008). These afforded me the opportunity to delve deeper into the phenomenon in a natural setting. The two newspapers were selected based on a set of criteria thus the appropriateness of purposive sampling (Daymon & Holloway, 2001; Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). The dominant method of data collection was document analysis where I selected one (1) year – from January, 2018 to December, 2018 - publication of *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* newspapers. Lastly, I content analysed the data. This method of data analysis is believed to be appropriate since a large amount of the data was mined through document analysis (Bowen, 2009). This method gave me the chance to tease out categories and themes from the data to answer and present the findings of the Research Questions of the study.

The findings of the study are grounded on data collected through content analysis of two sports newspapers- the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports*. Data was also collected

through analysing contents of the two (2) newspapers to analyse the frames newspapers use to cover female football stories in Ghana. It was discovered that there has been an increase in the coverage of female football stories but, the media coverage of women football stories was not adequate compared to men football stories in the newspapers, most of the papers' reportage focused on men football stories.

The study, which used the *Graphic Sports* and the *Finder Sports* to examine how the sports newspapers in Ghana frame female football stories, identified four (4) frames that the newspapers use to describe or portray the female football stories in Ghana. The frames that the study realised in the content analysis of the study are based on thematic codes, with overall total percentage and rankings as follows: Male Reference: 108 (47.79%); Sexism: 58 (25.66%); Mental weakness: 40 (17.69%) and Hierarchy of naming: 20 (8.85%).

5.2.0 Conclusion

The main findings that were revealed upon analysing the data to answer the research questions led to several conclusions. Overall, the results of the content analysis of the two sports newspapers to examine how Ghanaian print media frame female football stories, were mixed. The findings revealed many characteristics about the ways in which female football stories are framed in Ghana by the newspapers. The current research study found four (4) emergent themes, but only one, hierarchy of naming, was not consistent in both newspapers. It did not appear in the *Finder Sports* newspaper, not because the newspaper did not frame female football negatively but it is because it did not give female football stories enough coverage. The remaining three frames include male reference, sexism and

mental weakness. On the whole, these were the four frames that were realised in terms of how sports newspapers portray females in the sports world.

Sadly, these frames do not show independence, strength, competition, the talent and athleticism of female footballers and their stories, and when this is omitted, it can have a negative impression on how the general public views women and their football because the media has the power to shape perceptions. Just like Govender (2010) mentioned, media has a powerful influence on the audiences. Not only are female football stories negatively framed, but in one publication, the *Finder Sports* newspaper, they are hardly mentioned. It was that serious such that the *Finder Sports* newspaper throughout the whole year gave female football stories a very low and insignificant coverage. This prevents readers from learning about female football, and this neglect makes them (readers) less likely to view these women as legitimate footballers because they are not exposed to articles about their agile and healthy accomplishments. This set the agenda for female football stories to be pushed to the background and male football to be embraced and seen as the best.

As a result of the above discussions in Chapter Four (4), there is clear indication that the two newspapers, *Graphic Sports* and *Finder Sports* give little coverage to women sport stories, though the focus of the study is an area that needs to be given much attention in order to assist policy makers, we must also look at helping grow the game so that female football can also put Ghana on the world map like male football does. When this is done, it will go a long way to help with development and tourism which in turn will bring revenue to the country. Instead, male football stories were given more attention.

Although there are a lot of negative aspects to the way female football stories are framed in these sports newspapers during the content analysis, what must be noted here is that, there were some positive findings as well. After data was collected and analysed, it was realised that the overtly sexualising of women found in other jurisdictions and past researches was not prevalent here.

One of the most shocking findings in this study was the lack of reference to female footballers and female football people in both newspapers. The researcher would assume that a national publication would have some sort of criteria to prevent such a large gender gap from occurring in its newspapers. It is disappointing that readers of *Graphic Sports* and *Finder Sports* do not have the opportunity to familiarise themselves with the talents and accomplishments of so many female football athletes. If they were exposed to more articles or textual segments highlighting these women and their achievements, the readers and target audience would come to appreciate the talent and skills these women possess. It is hard to encourage the support and recognition of female footballers and female football stories if some sports newspapers scarcely acknowledge their existence.

This content analysis of the print media shows evidence that gender bias continues to occur in media representations of female football, regardless of legal restrictions or the modernity of the outlet. While some may argue that media outlets are sticking to the needs and interests of their audience, concern remains that by doing so, they are only continuing to build that particular audience. In effect, they are not giving the female football the chance to grow, thereby giving up the opportunity to build an audience for

female football and even more troubling, helping to silence female football and their accomplishments altogether (Cooky, Hextrum, and Messner, 2013).

When sports fans are tasked with actively seeking out media content that covers female football, it is no wonder why the audience remains smaller than that of men football. Media coverage of male football stories is always readily available and presented in a positive action way and at places where they are noticeable. Fans are not charged with seeking out this content on their own, which reinforces their belief that only sports highly covered by the media hold importance in society. The media are largely guilty of first, telling the audience that female football is negative and, second, constantly reinforcing that belief by bombarding the audience with coverage that primarily focuses on male rather than being balanced between male and female.

While participation, and in turn media coverage, of female sports, in general and female football, in particular female football, has dramatically increased for some time now in Ghana and in the world over, coverage is yet to become completely balanced in all ways, including how they are framed and presented to the audiences. Media coverage of sports is driven with audience interest in mind, but just maybe the female and male football stories and their equal amounts of hard work and dedication, especially on the field of play, should be well-thought-out. All footballers and their stories are deserving of the equitable promotions that are required by Title IX. The opportunity to build audience interest where it has historically been lacking should serve as motivation for content creators as well. Completely balanced and non-biased media coverage of female and male football stories may be a tall task, but it is one that media outlets, especially those

that are sports based should strive for, whether it is privately-owned or state-owned, like the two (2) newspapers used for this study.

Media's agenda may primarily influence public debate through people talking about issues featured in the media and about the aspects given preferred treatment. In doing so, the media propagates issues of concern to individuals, groups and organisations. The issues featured in the news for example are thus guaranteed in forums and situations where the issue at hand will be discussed in relation to the everyday experiences of the people. The under-reporting female and how their football is framed is a tragic undervaluing of the sacrifices, dedication and extraordinary talent of Ghana's exceptional women's football.

5.3.0 Further Researches

The present study used content analysis to examine and analyse the texts of newspapers to see how the newspapers frame female football stories in Ghana. The result revealed that females are framed negatively which does not show how competitive their games are in the print media in Ghana. While this study helped to provide the frames that reporters and editors use in their coverage of female football stories in Ghana, it did not talk to them (editors and reporters) to examine what informs their choice of words in their reportage and indeed whether they know the implications or not. Studying the news providers through interviews or focus group discussions could help in the analysis of what goes into their reportage of female football stories.

It would be interesting to have a similar analysis of the photographic elements that were seen in the sports newspapers. The researcher came across many active and inactive photographs in the newspapers that could have been evaluated in this research project. An analysis of photographs would provide a separate understanding of what themes and patterns emerge from the photographic elements used to accompany the texts and provide a comparison to what themes emerged in the written portions of the newspapers used for the study.

Another research recommendation is to focus on the Internet websites associated with these newspapers. Again, another suggestion is to focus on radio and television. It would be interesting to see if the same frames used in the published newspapers are also employed on these other media platforms. The researcher is also curious to see how particular sports categories are formatted and/or highlighted in these newspapers. Are all female football stories listed after male football stories? Do any of the highlighted feature stories involve female footballers or women's football? Do any of the featured pictures or photo albums include female footballers or female football stories? The information that can be gathered from this type of research study will be beneficial because it will go a long way to enrich the outcome of this study.

Finally, it would be interesting to see how sports newspapers frame specific sports. For instance, do newspapers frame the lawn tennis differently than they frame the hockey? This would require a textual analysis with research criteria that only focuses on one or two sports. This would reveal whether or not these newspapers more positively frame one sport over another. There are many possibilities to this suggestion because a researcher

can explore one sport, one individual sport compared to another individual sport, a team sport compared to another team sport, or an individual sport compared to a team sport.

This information would be interesting

5.4.0 Limitations of the study

The purpose of this study was to examine newspapers' framing of female football stories in Ghana from January 2018 to December 2018. This was done by content-analysing of news stories to find out the frames used on the female football, and whether the frames are consistent in the newspapers that were used for the study.

There is one major limitation the researcher identified while using textual analysis as the primary research method. A textual analysis provides an in-depth qualitative description of the framing methods used in these magazines, but it does not provide an accurate number of times each frame is used. This research project did not focus on quantitative findings, but it could be beneficial to have this information for future research. If the researcher can identify the frames that newspapers employ more often, he/she will know which framing mechanisms to which the public is more exposed. This will allow the researcher to make a more informed suggestion as to how to counteract the frames based on which ones are more prominent in sports magazines.

Another limitation of this current study is that the researcher chose to content analyse only two newspapers-the *Graphic Sports*, and the *Finder Sports* newspapers. Even though these two (2) newspapers are seen as credible sources of sports news by the larger cross-section of the Ghanaian public, their contents, however, may not be enough to

represent the total view of all newspapers in the country such that the results cannot be generalised.

5.5.0 Recommendation

After realising some of the frames used by newspapers to describe and portrays female football stories, it is the duty of the researcher to make some suggestions to help alleviate the framing issues that are currently present in sports newspapers. Many of these frames used by members of the sports media are handed down from past generations of journalists. Some of the same frames and patterns found in past research are still used in the sports newspapers analysed for this particular study, which suggests that little progress has been made in breaking sports journalists of the gender-based framing habits of their predecessors even though women have seen some progress in their participation and coverage. In order to stop the framing trend that now exists it is important to teach sports journalists the significance of gender-neutral publishing. One suggestion is to mandate a course that focuses on female footballers and their stories for students interested in sports journalism. This would expose them (the students) to research highlighting the current frames and patterns used in newspapers. This will make them more conscious of the issue when they write articles on female football. Introducing students to this information will educate them on gender neutral writing styles in the media. The general public should also be made conscious of the way and manner in which women are depicted and presented in sports newspapers because the audiences or the general public are the ones who are going to be receiving and feeding on such content

with the frames in the various reportage, and they are mostly unconsciously not aware of the influence these frames will have on their perceptions and opinions on female football.

Policy makers, in an attempt to further develop female football, should provide opportunities for more girls and women. Again, the public must be educated on these frames and the media should be used as a tool to strengthen the argument that females are able to achieve excellence in football and in sports. In addition, attention needs to be focused on promoting the idea that it is acceptable for girls and women to be physically aggressive and participate in all sports, including those with body contact.

Just as Kusi (2017) declared, based on feminist theory, the radical feminist belief, female's consciousness needs to be reworked so that each woman recognises her own value and strength; see herself as a strong and independent person by rejecting patriarchal pressures and work in unity with other women regardless of the differences between them. Ultimately, I have a strong believe that the results and outcome of this particular research will inspire the general public especially football followers, to become a more educated media consumers and be conscious of the frames that may, in one way or the other, influence their attitudes and perceptions toward female football and female sports, in general.

REFERENCES

- Adams, T. & Tuggle, C. (2004). ESPN's Sports Centre and Coverage of Women's Athletics: It's a Boys' Club. *Mass Communication and Society*. 7(2). 237-248.
- Agboada, D. J. (2017). *Chief executive officers' social media use: A study of selected personalities in Ghana*. (MPhil Thesis). University of Education, Winneba, Ghana.
- Alhassan, H. (2015). *Press coverage of women health issues: A comparative analysis of Vanguard and Daily Trust Newspaper, 2011 – 2012*. (MA). Ahmadu Bello University, Nigeria, Zaira.
- Altheide, D. L., & Schneider, C. J. (2013). *Qualitative media analysis* (Vol. 38). Sage.
- Alomenu, K.D. (2015). *The role of employee communication in an organisation: A case study of the Ghana Institute of Journalism*. (Bachelor of Arts thesis). Ghana Institute of Journalism. Accra, Ghana.
- Amoani, F. K. (2005). *Research methodology: An overview*. Accra: Pentecost Press Ltd
- Asakitikpi, A. O. (2010). Media, Sport and Male Dominance: Analysis of Sport Presentations in a Nigerian Newspaper. In *Gender, Sports and Development in Africa*, ed. by Jimoh Shehu, 47-62. Dakar: Codesria, 2010.
- Atkinson, K. (1993). Language and Gender. In Jackson, S. et al. (Eds.) *Women's Studies: A Reader*. Hertfordshire: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- Atkinson, P. A. & Coffey, A. (1997). Analysing documentary realities. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative research: theory, method and practice*, London: Sage, 45–62.
- Ayikpi, G. (2015). *Framing the Accra floods: How Daily Graphic and Daily Guide newspapers covered the flooding in Accra*. (MA). University of Ghana, Legon, Ghana.
- Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. (2008). *The practice of social research*. South African edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.
- Babbie, E. (2014). *The basics of social research*. Cengage Learning.
- Bailey, K. (1994). *Methods of Social Research*. (4th ed.). New York: The Free Press.

- Banet-Weiser, S. (1999). Hoop Dreams: Professional Basketball and the Politics of Race and Gender. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 23, 403-420.
- Bangsbo, J. (1994). Energy Demands in Competitive Soccer.” *Journal of Sports Sciences*. 12: S5-12.
- Bangsbo J. (1994). The physiology of soccer: with special reference to intense intermittent exercise. *Acta Physiol Scand Suppl*, 619; 1-155.
- Baran, S. J. & Davis, D. K. (2010). *Mass Communication Theory: Foundation, Ferment and Future*. Boston: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Batterfeild, F.L., Dzalashinsky, B. M and Todd, S. Y. (2010). The Demise of the WNBA in Florida: A mixed method Case study of Newspaper Coverage about Women’s Professional Basketball. *The Sport Journal*. (Vol. 13) Retrieved from <http://www.thesportjournal.org/article/demise-wnba-florida-mixed-method-case-study-newspaper-coverage-about-womens-professional-bas...>
- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*. 13(4), 544-559. Retrieved from <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol13/iss4/2>.
- BBC (2003). *US women’s soccer league folds*. news.bbc.co.uk, 16 September 2003.
- Beck, D. & Bosshart, L (2003). *Sports and Media. Communication Research Trends*. 22 (4), 1-43.
- Bernstein, A. (2002). Is it Time for a Victory lap? Change in the Media Coverage of Women in Sports. *International Review for Sociology of Sports*, 37:3-4, 414-428.
- Bernstein, A. & Blain, N. (2009). Sport and the media: the emergence of a major research field. In: A. Bernstein & N. Blain, ed., *Sport, media, culture: global and local dimensions*, 1st ed. London: Routledge, pp.1-30.
- Billings, A. C. (2008). *Olympics Media: Inside the Biggest Show on Television*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Billings, A.C., & Eastman, S. (2003). Framing identities: Gender, ethnic, and national parity innetwork announcing of the 2002 Winter Olympics. *Journal of Communication*, 53(4), 569-586.
- Billings, A.C., Halone, K.K., & Denham, B.E. (2002). “Man, that was a pretty shot”: An analysis of gendered broadcast commentary surrounding the 2000 Men’s and Women’s NCAA Final Four Basketball Championships. *Mass Communication & Society*, 5(3), 295-315.

- Billing, YD., & Alvesson, M. (2001). Questioning the notion of feminine leadership: a critical perspective on the gender labeling of leadership. *Women & Language*, 24(1), 51.
- Birrell, S. & Cole, L.C. (Eds.). (1994) *Women, Sport and Culture*. Champaign, IL: Huma Kinetics, pp. 245–322.
- Birrell, S. & Theberge, N. (1994) 'Ideological control of women in sport', in D.M. Costa and S.R. Guthrie (eds), *Women in Sport: Interdisciplinary Perspectives*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, pp. 341–60.
- Birrell, S. (2000). Feminist theories of sport. *Handbook of Sports Studies*. London: Sage Publishing.
- Biscomb, K. & Griggs, G. (2012). What a Splendid Performance: Print Media Reporting of England Women's Performance in the 2009 Cricket World Cup', *International Review for Sociology of Sport*, 1 (4). 1-13.
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative research journal*, 9(2), 27-40.
- Brantley, J. N. & Lengermann, P. M. (2004). *Contemporary feminist theory*. American University: Hampton Press.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2014). *Successful qualitative research: A Practical guide for beginners*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Brennen, B. (2017). *Qualitative research methods for media studies* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Bronstein, C. (2005). Representing the third wave: Mainstream print media framing of a new feminist movement. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 82(4), 783-803.
- Brookes, R. (2002). *Representing Sport*. London: Arnold.
- Boyle, R. (2010). Sport and the Media in the UK: The Long Revolution? *Centre for Cultural Policy Research*. University of Glasgow.
- Buysse, J. A. M., & Embser-Herbert, M. S. (2004). Constructions of gender in sport: An analysis of intercollegiate media guide cover photographs. *Gender & Society*. 18(1), 66-81.

- Carriger, M. S. (2000). What is Research Design? *Research Design Version 1:2*. Retrieved May 18, 2019, from <http://www.dogbert.mse.cs.cmu.edu/./resdes.pdf>.
- Cartee, K. S. (2005). *News narratives and news framing: Constructing political reality*. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Carter, C., Branston, G. & Allan, S. (1998). *News, Gender and Power*. London: Routledge.
- Casey, B., Casey, N., Calvert, B., French, L. & Lewis J. (Eds). (2008). *Television studies: The Key Concepts*. New York: Routledge.
- Cavanagh, S. (1997). Content analysis: concepts, methods and applications. *Nurse Researcher*. 4(3), 5-16.
- Cellini, R. (1997). Television coverage of professional football: Information versus entertainment. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 58 (10), 3766A. (UMI No. AAG9813382).
- Chadwick, S. & Hamil, S. (2010). *Managing Football: An International Perspective*. London: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Chafetz, J. S. (1997). Feminist Theory and Sociology: Underutilized Contributions for Mainstream Theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*. 23, p. 97-120.
- Chandler, C. (2010). *Stereotyping, stigma and femininity in female sports*. (MA Thesis). Texas Tech University, USA.
- Chitharanjan, A. (2016). *Analysing the impact of social media marketing and online advertisements on consumer behavior*. (MBA Dissertation). Dublin Business School, Ireland.
- Chyi, H. I., & McCombs, M. (2004). Media salience and the process of framing: Coverage of the Columbine School Shooting. *Journalism and Mass Communication Quarterly*, 81(1), p. 22-23.
- Cissel, M. (2012) Media Framing: A Comparative Content Analysis on Mainstream and Alternative News Coverage of Occupy Wall Street. *The Elon Journal of Undergraduate Research in Communications*. 3, 67-77.
- Coakley, J. J. (2001). *Sports in America: KIN 101 Intro to Theories*. Retrieved from www.sjsu.edu/.../sports_Theories.pdf.
- Cohen, D. and Crabtree, B. (2006). *Qualitative Research Guidelines Project*. Retrieved from <http://www.qualres.org/HomeEval-3664.htm>.

- Cole, C. (1993). Resisting the Canon: Feminist Cultural Studies, Sports and Technologies of the Body, in *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*. 17, 77-97.
- Connolly, P. (1998). Dancing to the wrong tune': ethnography, generalisation and research on racism in schools. In P. Connolly, & B. Troyna (Eds.), *Researching Racism in Education: Politics, Theory and Practice*. (pp. 122-139). Open University.
- Cooky, C., Hextrum, R. H., & Messner, M. A. (2013). Women play sport, but not on TV: A longitudinal study of televised news media. *Communication and Sport*. 1(3). p.203-230.
- Corbin, J. & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Coulthard, M. & Caldas-Coulthard, C. R. (Eds). (1996). *Text and Practices: Reading in Critical Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Creedon, P. (1998). *Women, sports and media institutions: Issues in in sports journalism and marketing*. In L. Wenner (Ed.), *Media Sports*. London: Sage Publications Inc.
- Creedon, P. J. (2004). *Women, Media and Sports challenging Gender Values*. London: Sage Publications Inc.
- Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. (3th ed.). London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crolley, L. & Teso, E. (2007). Gendered Narratives in Spain: The Representation of Female Athletes in Marca and El Pais. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 42(2), 149-166.
- Crossman, J., Vincent, J. & Speed, H. (2007). The Times They are A-Changin: Gender Comparisons in Three National Newspapers of the 2004 Wimbledon

- Championships', *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 42 (1), 27-41.
- Croucher, S.M. & Cronn-Mills, D. (2017). *Understanding communication research methods: A Theoretical and practical approach*. New York: Routledge Publishing.
- D'Angelo, P. (2018). *Doing News Framing Analysis II: Empirical and Theoretical Perspectives*. New York: Routledge.
- Davis, K. & Tuggle, C. (2012). A Gender Analysis of NBC's coverage of the 2008 Summer Olympics', *Electronic News*, 6 (2). 51-66.
- Daymon, C., & Holloway, I. (2002). *Qualitative research methods in public relations and marketing communications*. London: Routledge.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research*. London: Sage Publishing Inc.
- Domenechetti, R. (2018). 'The other side of the net': (re)presentations of (emphasised) femininity during Wimbledon 2016. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*. 10:2, 151-163, DOI: 10.1080/19407963.2018.1403164.
- Downe-Wamboldt, B. (1992). Content analysis: method, applications, and issues. *Health care for women international*, 13(3), 313-321.
- Duncan, M, & Hasbrook, C, (2002), 'Denial of Power in Televised Women's Sports' in Scraton, S, and Flintoff, A, (2002), *Gender and sport, A reader*, Routledge, London and Canada.
- Duncan, M.C. & Hasbrook, C. (1988) 'Denial of power in televised women's sport', *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 5: 1-21.
- Duncan, M. C., Jensen, K., & Messner, M. A. (1993). Separating the men from the girls: The gendered language of televised sports. *Gender & Society*, 7(1), 121-137. doi:10.1177/089124393007001007.
- Duncan, M. & Messner, M. (1998), 'Media images of gender and sport', in Wenner, L. (ed.) *MediaSport*, London: Routledge. p. 170-85.
- Duncan, M.C. (1990) 'Sports photography and sexual difference. Images of women and men in the, 1984 and 1988 Olympic Games', *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 7 (1). 22-43.

- Duquin, M. (1989) 'Fashion and fitness images in women's magazine advertisements', *Arena Review*, 13. 97–109.
- Eagly, A. H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage resolving the contradictions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 31, 1-12.
- Eastman, S.T. & Billings, A.C. (2000) 'Sportscasting and sports reporting. The power of gender bias', *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 24 (2): 192–213.
- Eastman, S. T. & Billings, A. C. (2001). Biased Voices of Sports: Racial and Gender Stereotyping in College Basketball Announcing. *The Howard Journal of Communication*. 12, p. 183-201.
- Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 62, 107-115.
- Elo, S., Kääriäinen, M., Kanste, O., Pölkki, T., Utriainen, K. & Kyngäs, H. (2014). Qualitative Content Analysis: A Focus on Trustworthiness. *Sage Open*. Retrieved from <http://www.sagepub.com/journalsReprints.nav>.
- Entman, R. M. (1991). Symposium Framing U.S. Coverage of International News: Contrasts in Narratives of the KAL and Iran Air Incidents. *Journal of Communication*. 41 (4), 6-27.
- Entman, R. (1993). Framing: Toward clarification of a fractured paradigm. *Journal of Communication*, 43(4), 51-58.
- Fink, J., & Kensicki, L. (2002). An Imperceptible Difference: Visual and Textual Constructions of Femininity in Sports Illustrated and Sports Illustrated for Women. *Mass Communication and Society*, 5, 317 – 339.
- Fink, J.S. (2013). Female athletes, women's sport, and the sport media commercial complex: have we really "come a long way, baby"? *Sport Management Review*, 18(3). 331–42.
- Fink, J. N. & Newhall, K. (2016). Challenging the gender binary? *Sport in Society*, 19(8–9): 1316–1331.
- Federation Internationale de Soccer Association* (2003). Website, <http://www.fifa.com>.
- Frankel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2003). *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education* (4th ed.). Boston: McGraw.

- Franklin, B., Hamer, M., Hana, M., Kinsey, M., & Richardson, J. (2005). *Key Concepts in Journalism Studies*. London: Sage Publications.
- Frey, L. R., Botan, C. H., Friedman, P. G., & Kreps, G. L. (1992). *Interpreting communication research: A case study approach*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Frisby, C. (2017). Benched: A Content Analysis of Microaggressions in News Stories about Female Athletes Participating in the 2012 and 2016 Summer Olympics. *Journal of Mass Communication & Journalism*, 7:334. doi: 10.4172/2165-7912.1000335
- Gibbs, G. R. (2007). Analyzing qualitative data. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The Sage qualitative research kit*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Given, L. M. (2008). *The Sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods*. Los Angeles, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Giuggioli, J. (2013). *Framing the 2012 Olympics: A Content Analysis of International Newspaper Coverage of Female Athletes*. (MA Thesis). East Tennessee State University, USA. Retrieved from Electronic Theses and Dissertations. Paper 1108. <http://dc.etsu.edu/etd/1108>.
- Godoy-Pressland, A. (2014). 'Nothing to report': A semi-longitudinal investigation of the print media coverage of sportswomen in British Sunday newspapers. *Media, Culture & Society*. 36(5), 595–609.
- Goffman, E. (1974). *Frame analysis: An essay on the organization of experience*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Govender, N. (2010). *The Influence of Print Media in Portraying Women in Sport: A case study of the Independent on Saturday*. Dublin University of Technology.
- Graneheim, U. H., & Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: Concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. *Nurse Education Today*, 24, 105-112.
- Grappendorf, H., Henderson, A., Sandors, & Peel, J. (2007). Is it Equitable on Line? The Media Coverage of 2007 NCAA Division I Basketball Tournament on Foxsports.com. *The SMART Journal*. 5 (1), 30-42.
- Gratton, C. & Jones, I. (2010). *Research Methods for Sport Studies*. London: Routledge.

- Griffin E. (2011). *A First Look at Communication Theory*. (8th ed). Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Guilianotti, R. & Robertson, R (2004). The Globalisation of Football: A Study in the Globalization of the “Serious Life” *The British Journal of Sociology*. Retrieved from <http://onlinelibrary/wiley.com/doi/10.1111/1/1468-444-2004.0003.x/full>.
- Hall, A. (1996). *Feminism and Sporting Bodies: Essays in Theory and Practice*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Hancock, B. (2002). An introduction to qualitative research. *Trent focus group*. Retrieved from <http://classes.uleth.ca/200502/mgt2700a/Articles/Qualitative%20Research.pdf>.
- Hardin, M., Lynn, S. & Walsdorf, K. B. (2004). The framing of sexual difference in SI for kids’ editorial photos. *Mass Communication & Society*, 5(3), p. 341-359.
- Hargreaves, J. (1994). *Sporting Females: Critical Issues in the History and Sociology of Women’s Sports*. London: Routledge.
- Harris, J. & Clayton, B. (2002). Femininity, Masculinity, Physicality and the English Tabloid Press: The Case of Anna Kournikova, *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 37(3-4), 397-413.
- Harrison, L. A., & Lynch, A. B. (2005). Social role theory and the perceived gender role orientation of athletes. *Sex Roles*, 52 (3/4), 227-236.
- Heldman, C. C. (2000). Gender differences in print media coverage of Presidential candidates: Elizabeth Dole’s bid for the Republican nomination. Washington D.C.: *American Political Science Association*.
- Herman, E.S. & Chomsky, N. (1988). *Manufacturing Consent: The Political Economy of the Mass Media*. New York: Pantheon Books.
- Holsti, O. R. (1969). *Content analysis for the social sciences and humanities*. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.
- Hsieh, H. & Shannon, S. E. (2014). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*. 15 (9), 1277-1288 Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/7561647>.
- Huffman, S., Tuggle, C.A., & Rosengard, D. (2004). How Campus Media Cover Sports: The Gender-Equity Issue, One Generation Later. *Mass Communication and Society*, 7(4), 475-489.

- Iyenger, S. (1996). Framing Responsibility for Political Issues. *American Academy of Political and Social Science*. 546. 59-70.
- Iyenger, S. (2005). Speaking of Values: The Framing of American Politics. *The Forum*. 3(3), 1-9.
- Jackson, R. L., Drummond, K. D. & Camara, S. (2007). What Is Qualitative Research? *Qualitative Research Reports in Communication*. 8(1), 21-28.
- Jarvie, G. (2006). *Sport, culture and society: an introduction*. London: Routledge.
- Jones, D. (2006), The representation of female athletes in online images of successive Olympic Games. *Pacific Journalism Review*, vol.12 (1), 108-129.
- Julien, H. (2008). Content analysis. *The SAGE encyclopedia of qualitative research methods*, 2, 120-122.
- Kahneman, D. (2003). Maps of bounded rationality: A perspective on intuitive judgment and choice. In T. Frañngsmyr (Ed.). *Les Prix Nobel: The Nobel Prizes 2002* (pp. 449–489). Stockholm: Nobel Foundation.
- Kafle, S. (2014). *Framing analysis of BBC online coverage of Fukushima triple disaster*. (MA). Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Ritsumeikan, Japan.
- Karahüseyinođlu, M.F. (2012). Football spectators in Turkey in the perspective of official sports managers. *European Journal of Experimental Biology*. 2012, 2 (6):2068-2072.
- Kayode, J., & Adeniran, R. (2012). Nigerian Newspaper Coverage of the Millennium Development Goals: The Role of the Media. *Itupale Online Journal of African Studies*. Vol. 4.
- Kinkema, K. and Harris, J. (1998), 'MediaSport Studies: Key research and emerging issues', in Wenner, L. (ed.) *MediaSport*. London: Routledge, 27-54.
- Kirk, D., Cooke C. Flintoff, A. & McKenna J. (Eds.). (2008). *Key Concepts in Sport and Exercise Sciences*. London: Sage Publishing.
- Knight, J. L., & Giuliano, T. A. (2001). He's a Laker; she's a "Looker": The consequences of gender-stereotypical portrayals of male and female athletes by the print media. *Sex Roles*, 45 (3/4), 217-229.
- Knoppers, A. (1994). Gender and the coaching profession. In S. Birrell and C. L. Cole (Eds.), *Women, Sports and Culture*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinectics.

- Koppett, L. (1994). *Sports illusion, sports reality: A reporter's view of sports, journalism and society*. Urban: University of Illinois Press.
- Krawec, K. (2014). *Shaping and Being Shaped: Examining Women's Tackle Football in Canada*. (Master's thesis). Ontario, University of Windsor, Canada.
- Kumekpor, T.B. (2002). *Research Methods and Techniques of Social Research*. Accra: Son Life Printing Press and Services.
- Kusi, G. (2017). *Framing of female athletes in Ghana: a study of two selected newspapers*. (MPhil Thesis). University of Education, Winneba, Ghana.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Labuschagne, A. (2003). Qualitative research: Airy fairy or fundamental? The Qualitative Report, 8(1), Article 7. Retrieved, from <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR8-1/labuschagne.html>.
- Lampety, D. (2015). *Men and Women Football in the Ghanaian Print Media: A Case Study of Graphic Sports and Ghana Sports Newspapers*. (MA Thesis). Ghana Institute of Journalism, Accra, Ghana.
- Leedy, P. D. & Ormrod, J. E. (2010). *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Lefever, K. (2012). *New Media and Sport*. ASSER International Sport Law Series.
- Lei, X. (2006). Sexism in Language. *Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 5(1), 1475-8989. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/d03a/fdaa103c8526b75523cdadbacfd4a4d27041.pdf>.
- Lensky, H. (1998). Inside Sport' or 'on the margins'?: Australian Women and the sports Media. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*. vol. 33 (1),19-32.
- LeFever, K. (2012). *New Media and sport*. ASSER International Sports Law Series. The Hague: T.M.C. Asser Press.
- Lewis, S., 2015. Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches. *Health promotion practice*, p.1524839915580941.
- Lindlof, T. R., & Taylor, B. C. (2002). *Qualitative communication research methods*. (2nd Ed.). London: Sage Publications.

- Lippe, G. (2002). Media Image: Sport, Gender and National Identities in Five European Countries, *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 37 (3-4), 371-395.
- Lippmann, W. (1992). *Public Opinion*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co.
- Lussier, R. N. & Kimball, D. C. (2014). *Applied Sport Management Skills*. 2nd edn. Champaign: Human Kinetics.
- MacCambridge, M. (1998). *The franchise: A history of Sports Illustrated Magazine*. New York: Hyperion.
- MacNeil, M. (1988) 'Active women, media representations and ideology' in J. Harvey and H. Cantelon, (eds), *Not Just a Game: Essays in Canadian Sport Sociology*. Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press, pp. 195–211.
- Malik, M. R. (2016). "A Content Analysis of Gender-Specific Media Coverage of Sport: NCAA Athletic Department Home Webpages" *UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones*. 2703. Retrieved September 27, 2018 from <http://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesesdissertations/2703>.
- Marwat, M.K., Waseem, M., Khattak, H., Abbas, A. & Bi, I. (2014). Mass Media and Promotion of Sport (Historical Perspectives). *Asian Journal of Social Science and Humanities*. Vol. 3.
- Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative researching*. London: Sage.
- McComb, S, M, & Shawn, D. L. (1972). *Agenda Setting Theory*. Texas: University of Texas Press, USA.
- McCombs, M., Shaw, D. L., & Weaver, D. (1997). *Communication and Democracy: Exploring the Intellectual Frontiers in Agenda-Setting Theory*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc.
- McCombs, M. & Ghanem, S.I. (2001). "The Convergence of Agenda Setting and Framing." In S. D. Reese, O. H. Gandy, and A. E. Grant, eds., *Framing Public Life: Perspectives on Media and Our Understanding of the Social World*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- McGrouthers, S. (2011). *Women on Top of Their Game Still on Cutting Room Floor*. School of Journalism, University of Canberra. (NOWUC) Retrieved from

www.nownc.com.an/2011/11/women-at-top-of-their-game-still-on-cutting-room-floor/on November 14, 2018.

- McGuigan, D. L. (2011). *A Comparative Analysis of Gender Disparities in British Football and British Athletic*. Unpublished MPhil thesis. Birmingham: University of Birmingham.
- McQuail, D. (2000). *Mcquail's Mass Communication Theory*. 5th edn. London: Sage Publications.
- Meigas, I. (2008). *Media Relations in the Third Sector Organisations of Estonia*. (BA Thesis). Tallinn: Tallinn University Baltic Film and Media School.
- Messner, M. (1988). Sports and Male Domination: The Female Athlete as contested Ideological Terrain. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 5, 197-211.
- Messner, M.A., Duncan, M.C., & Jensen, K. (1993). Separating the men from the girls: the gendered language of televised sports. *Gender and Society*, 7, 121-137.
- Messner, M.A., Duncan, M.C., & Wachs, F.L. (1996). The Gender of Audience Building: Televised Coverage of Women's and Men's NCAA basketball. *Sociological Inquiry*, 66, 422-439.
- Messner, M. A. (2002). *Taking the Field: Women, Men, and Sports*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.
- Miller, W. L. & Crabtree, B. F. (1999). *Doing qualitative research*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif.; London: SAGE.
- Mugo, F. W. (2010). *Sampling in Research*. Retrieved from <http://www.answers.com/topic/sampling.html>.
- Murray, B. (1996). *The Word's Game: A History of Soccer*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Mwambwa, L. A. (2007). *Media Coverage of Women in Sports by National Newspapers in Zambia: An assessment of State Compliance to Women's Right to Sports*. (MA Thesis). University of Zimbabwe, Harare, Zimbabwe.
- Napikoski, L. (2019). What Is Sexism? Defining a Key Feminist Term. *Thought.Co*. Retrieved from <https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-sexism-3529186>.

- Nathanson, A. I., Wilson, B. J., McGee, J., & Sebastian, M. (2002). Counteracting the effects of female stereotypes on television via active mediation. *Journal of Communication*, 52 (4), 922-937.
- Nazemi, Y. & Khoshemer, A. H. (2012). Media and its Impact on Sports. *International Journal of Sports Studies*, 2 (12), 624-630. Retrieved from <http://www.ijssjournal.com>.
- Nelson, T. E., Clawson, R. A. & Oxley, Z. M. (1997). Media framing of a civil liberties conflict and its effects on tolerance. *The American Political Science Review*, 91(3), 567-583.
- Neuendorf, K. (2002). *The content analysis guidebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Neuman, W. R., Just, M. R., & Crigler, A. N. (1992). *Common Knowledge; News and the Construction of Political Meaning*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Nicely, S. (2007). *Media Framing of Female Athletes and Women's Sports in Selected Sports Magazines*. (MA Thesis). Georgia State University, USA. Retrieved from http://scholarworks.gsu.edu/communication_theses/31.
- North, L. (2012). The Gendered World of Sports Reporting in the Australian Print Media. *JOMEC Media*. Retrieved from <http://ssrn.com/...2215396>.
- Offen, K. (1988). Defining Feminism: A Comparative Historical Approach. *The University of Chicago Press*. 14(1), 119-157.
- Oladunde, R. M. & Ajibola, O. A. (2009). The Dialectics of Media Framing in Niger Delta Crisis. *Babcock journal of Mass Communication*. 2 (1).
- O'Leary, Z. (2013). *The essential guide to doing your research project*. London: Sage.
- Omona, J. (2013). Sampling in Qualitative Research: Improving the Quality of Research Outcomes in Higher Education. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*. 4(2), 169-185. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v4i2.4>.
- Oriard, M. (2001). *King football: Sport and spectacle in the golden age of radio and newsreels, movies and magazines, the weekly and the daily press*. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press.
- Pan, Z., & Kosicki, G. M. (1993). Framing analysis: An approach to news discourse. *Political Communication*. 10(1), 55-75.

- Panneerselvam, R. (2014). *Research methodology*. New Delhi: PHI Learning Pvt. Ltd.
- Parahoo K. (1997). *Nursing Research: Principles, Process and Issues*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). Designing qualitative studies. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*, 3, 230-246.
- Pederson, P. M. (2002). Examining Equity in Newspaper Photographs: A Content Analysis of the Print Media Photographic Coverage of Interscholastic Athletes, *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 37 (3-4), 303-318.
- Popescu-Jourchy, D. (2009). Le spectacle sportif et les medias. *Une relation toujours privilegiee*. Les cahiers du Journalisme, 19, 18-29.
- Quarcoo, G.O. (2006). *The Role of Football as a P. R. Tool in the Socio-Economic Development of Ghana (A Historical Perspective on the Gold Coast – Present)*. (Diploma dissertation). Ghana Institute of Journalism, Accra, Ghana.
- Qu, S. Q. & Dumey, J. C. (2011). The qualitative research interview. *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management*. 8. 238-264. 10.1108/11766091111162070.
- Rada, J. A., & Wulfemeyer, K. T. (2005). Color coded: Racial descriptors in television coverage of intercollegiate sports. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 49 (1), 65-85.
- Rahimizadeh, M., Sajardi, S. N., Goodarzi, M. & Ghamati, H. (2012). A Comparison of Online Marketing and Interacting with Fans through Official Website of Football Clubs in Iran, Asia and Europe. *International Research of Journal of Applied and Basic Science*, 3(5), 1065-1071, 2012 retrieved on the October 15, 2018 from <http://www.victoquestpub.com>.
- Rajasekar, S., Philominaathan, P., & Chinnathambi, V. (2013). *Research Methodology*. Retrieved from <http://arxiv.org/pdf/physics/0601009.pdf>.
- Rapley, T. (2007). *Doing conversation, discourse and document analysis*. London: Sage
- Reber, B.H., & Berger, B.K. (2005). Framing analysis of activist rhetoric: How the Sierra Club succeeds or fails at creating salient messages. *Public Relations Review*. (31), p. 185-195.

Roper, E. (Ed.). (2013). *Gender Relations in Sport*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Routledge, P. (2013). Football is the opium of the people, to misquote Marx. *Mirror*. Retrieved from

<https://www.mirror.co.uk/sport/football/news/paul-routledge-football-misquote-karl->

Rourke, L., & Anderson, T. (2004). Validity in quantitative content analysis. *Educational Technology Research & Development*, 52, 5-18.

Sandelowski, M. (1995b). Sample size in qualitative research. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 18, 179-183.

Scheufele, D. A. (2004). Framing-effects approach: A theoretical and methodological critique. *Communication*, 29, p. 401-428.

Scheufele, D. A. & Tewksbury, D. (2007). Framing, Agenda Setting, and Priming: The Evolution of Three Media Effects Models. *Journal of Communication*. ISSN 0021-9916.

Shifflett, B., & Revelle, R. (1994). Gender equity in sports media coverage: A review of the NCAA News. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*. 18(2), p. 144-150.

Schreier, M. (2012). *Qualitative content analysis in practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Scruton, S. (1992). *Shaping up to womanhood: Gender and girls' physical education*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Scruton, S. & Flintoff, A. (2013). Gender, Feminist Theory, and Sport. *A Companion to Sport*, (pp.96-111). New Jersey: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Skelton, C. (2000). A passion for football: Dominant Masculinities and primary schooling. *Sport, Education and Society*, 5: 1, 5-18.

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stake, R. E. (2013). *Multiple case study analysis*. New York: Guilford Press.

Tankard, J. W (2001). *Framing public life*. pp. 95-106. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Tavakolli, M., Najafi, A. & Ramezani, Z. N. (2013). Studying role of mass media in sport development. *Pelagia Research Library. Advances in Applied Science Research*. 4(4) 49-54.
- Theberge, N. (1989) 'A feminist analysis of responses to sports violence: media coverage of the, 1987 world junior hockey championship', *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 6: 247-56.
- Toro, H. M. (2005). *Public Perceptions of Credibility of Male and Female Sportscasters*. (MA Thesis). Blacksburg, VA: Virginia Polytechnique Institute and State University.
- Tsorme, P. (2009). *Ghanaian Sports Paper reportage on English Premier League: A Comparative Study on Graphic Sports and 90 Minutes*. (BA Thesis). Ghana Institute Journalism. Accra, Ghana.
- Tuah, L. K. (2016). *Women in sports journalism: A phenomenological study of selected female sports journalists in Ghana*. (MA). University of Education, Winneba, Ghana.
- United Nations Division for Advancement of Women Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2007). *Women, gender equality and sport*. New York.
- Vigh, J. (2008). *Guide to Sports Journalism*. Accra: Excellent Printing Press.
- Vukočić, B. (2017). Radical feminism as a discourse in the theory of conflict. *Research Gate*. 33-49. doi: 10.7251/SOCEN1305033V.
- Wakefield, K.L., Blodgett, J. & Sloan, H.J. (1996). Measurement and management of the sportscape. *Journal of Sport Management*, 10(1), 15-31.
- Walker, D., & Myrick, F. (2006). Grounded theory: An exploration of process and procedure. *Qualitative Health Research*, 16 (4), 547-559.
- Ward, L. M. (2004). Wading through the stereotypes: Positive and negative associations between media use and black adolescents' conceptions of self. *Developmental Psychology*, 40 (2), 284-294.
- Weber, R.P. (1990). *Basic Content Analysis*. Sage Publications, London.
- Wensing, E. & Bruce, T. (2003). Bending the Rules: Media Representations of Gender During an International Sporting Event, *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 38 (4), 387-396.
- Wernecken, J. (2000). *Wir und die anderen... Nationale Stereotypen im Kontext des Mediensports*. Berlin:Vistas.

- Wild, K. (2007). *Women in sports: Gender stereotypes in the past and present*. New York: Hampton Press.
- Williams, C., Lawrence, G. and Rowe, D. (1986) 'Patriarchy, media and sport' in G. Lawrence and D. Rowe (eds), *Power Play: the Commercialization of Australian Sport*. Sydney: Hale & Iremonger. 215–29.
- Williams, C. (2007). Research methods. *Journal of Business & Economic Research*. 5(3), 65-71.
- Williams, J. (2002). Women and Soccer, Factsheet 5. *Sir Normal Chester Centre for Soccer Research*. University of Leicester.
- Williams, J. (2006). An Equality Too Far? Historical and Contemporary Perspectives of Gender Inequality in British and International Football. *Historical social research*. 31(1). 131-169.
- Willis, P. (1982). Women in Sport in Ideology in Hargreaves, J (Ed), *Sport, Culture and Ideology*. London: Routledge.
- Windhauser, J. W. (1991). News coverage of the 1984 and 1988 campaigns. In G. H. Stempele & J. W. Windhauser (Eds.), *The media in the 1984 and 1988 presidential campaigns*. 13-66. New York: Greenwood Press.
- Wimmer, R., & Dominick, J. (2003). *Mass media research: An introduction*. (7th Eds.), Belmont CA: Thomson, Wadsworth Publishers.
- Wimmer, R., & Dominick, J. (2011). *Mass media research: An introduction*. (9th Eds.), Boston: Wadsworth.
- Wolter, S. (2015). A quantitative analysis of photographs and articles on espnW positive progress for female athletes. *Communication & Sport*. 3(2), 168-195.
- Wright, J. & Clark, G. (1991). Sport, the media and the construction of compulsory heterosexuality: A case of women's rugby union. *International Review for Sociology of Sports*. 34(3). 227-243.
- Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: design and methods (2nd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods (4th ed)*. London: Sage.
- Yoon, C. S. & Jain, A, K. (2010). *How to Conduct Marketing for Information Products and Services*. Retrieved from <http://www.crdi.ca/fr/ev-114859-201-do-TOPIC.html>.

Young, I. (1995). The Exclusion of Women from Sport: Conceptual and Existential Dimensions, in Morgan, W. and Meier, K. (Eds). *Philosophic Inquiry in Sport*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

APPENDIX A

FEMALE FOOTBALL STUDY CODING GUIDE

1. Name of Newspaper:

1= *Graphic Sports* 2= *Finder Sports*

2. Title of article

3. --/--/-- Date of article

4. Location of article

5. Page number

6. Thematic Categories

1= Yes 2= No

..... Inability to take pressure

..... Lack of self-confidence

..... Lack of focus

..... Lack of motivation

..... Lack of drive

..... Lack of intensity

..... Owners' support

..... Managers' support

..... Coaches influence

..... National women's football league

..... Women's league board

..... Women's football tournament

..... Reference to husband

Frames

..... Male reference: *managers support, coaches influence, role of owners*

..... Sexism: *national women;s league, women;s league board*

..... Mental Weakness: *lack of self-confidence, lack of focus, lack drive*

..... Hierarchy of Naming: *girls, ladies, reference to female footballer's or coaches first name*

1= Male Reference

2= Sexism

3= Mental Weakness

4= Hierarchy of Naming

..... Coaches influence

..... Role of owners

..... National Women's Football League

..... Women's league board

..... Role of mother

..... Reference to husband

Frames

..... Male Reference: *managers support, coaches influence, rule of husbands*

..... Sexism: *national women's football league, women's league board*

..... Mental Weakness: *lack of self-confidence, lack of focus, lack of drive*

..... Hierarchy of Naming: *girls, ladies, reference to female footballers and coaches with their first name*

1= Male Reference

2= Sexism

3= Mental Weakness

4= Hierarchy of Naming

APPENDIX B

CODING PROTOCOL

Instructions

Please, find below explanation for expressions and symbols used for the different items on the coding sheet. Beside each item is a blank space which is an answer space. Please, indicate your answer in that space. Please, indicate your answer in that space provided by indicating the corresponding digit/number beside the item.

Title of Article: Write down the title of the article exactly as it appears in the newspaper.

Newspaper: Choose the number beside the name of the newspaper that is being coded. If you are coding for the *Graphic Sports* indicate the number “1” in the blank space, and for *Finder Sports* indicate “2”.

Date of article: This indicates the date the newspaper article was published. The date should be designated as **Month** follow by **Day** and followed by **Year** as in the sample below:

Date of article: 01/12/18

Page Number of Article: Indicate the page number of the article.

Thematic categories: this refers to the various themes that are noted in the news story.

Indicate “1” for “yes” if the article discusses that themes and “2” for “No” id if there is no discussion. Please, note that there may be more than one theme in a news story.

Frames: This item corresponds to the frame under which the thematic category is discussed. Once you have identified a thematic category, check the frame cluster to which the category belongs and indicate the frames by checking the choice listed. Indicate in the blank space the digit that corresponds to the frame of choice. In other words, for the frames of **Male Reference** indicate “1”; for **Sexism** “2”; for **Mental Weakness** indicate “3” and for **Hierarchy of Naming** indicate “4”.

