

**INCENTIVE RATING AMONG SELECTED KENYAN MALE
ATHLETES**

BY

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DECLARATION

I Mukhwana Kizito Ongalo declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for the award of a degree in any other university or any other award.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to God and to my family, namely, my wife Norah and my children, Glenn Ongalo, Reina Ongalo, Sikhoya Ongalo and Larry Ongalo *okhwa* Ongalo.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

A-IMI-Alberta Incentive Motivation Inventory

ATP- Association of Tennis Professionals

NIE-New Institutional Economics Framework Theory

PGA-Players Golf Tour

RIVRSQ-Reinforcer Incentive Value Rating Scale Questionnaire

SPSS- Statistical Package for Social Sciences.

ANOVA-analysis of variance

N-number of subjects

S.D-standard deviation

S.S-Sum of squares

Df- degrees of freedom

Ms Mean square

Tukey HSD-Tukey's HSD (honestly significant difference) test

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms are defined as used in this study

Athlete - refers to persons involved in sporting activities.

Combat sports - refers to boxing and karate.

Employment opportunities -refers to the provision of jobs or information about jobs or negotiation of overseas training or release system from work or promotion at place of work.

Incentives - refers to outward gains such as employment opportunities, scholarship award, material and monetary rewards, public recognition free medical services and insurance covers among others.

Free medical care-refers to paid up medical care for athletes, athletes' family members or specialized medical treatment in case of injury or reimbursement of money spent on treatment.

Fulltime athletes- refers to athletes who depend on athletics as the only source of income.

Individual sports- refers to athletes in activities such as swimming, track and field events including marathon and excluding relay.

Insurance Coverage- refers to life insurance or accident insurance while in active service which includes compensation of property destroyed or compensation in case of a permanent injury.

Incentives Value- refers to an individual perception of value attached to employment opportunities, scholarship award, and material and monetary rewards, public recognition, free medical services and insurance.

Material and monetary rewards- refers to rewards such as monetary allowances, match bonuses, material gifts, trophies, certificates, sport equipment, related literature for sports.

Part-time athletes- refers to athletes who have jobs and participate in sports for recreational purposes or as a means of supplementing their income.

Public recognition- refers to acknowledgement through media, industrial products, international media, reception of partners of international sporting caliber, naming of streets and stadium, conferment of honours or national honours by the president among many others.

Reinforcement- refers to the act of presenting a stimulus contingent upon a successful response.

Scholarship awards- refers to tuition waiver, fees payment, scholarship to study abroad or locally for athletes or vocational training to the children of the athletes.

Team sports- refer to team activities such as soccer and field hockey

Value rating- refers to the personal ranking of an incentive.

ABSTRACT

Not much is known about incentives value rating in team and individual sports and how they affect sports performance in Kenya. In the presence of wide spread reinforcement initiatives, there is need to effectively scrutinize incentive value rating in the diverse Kenyan sporting populations. The purpose of this study was to analyze the differences in responses among Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports on the selected incentives and their value. The major hypothesis of the study was that there would be no significant differences in incentive value ratings on employment opportunities, public recognition, material and monetary rewards scholarship awards, free medical care and insurance coverage by Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports. A survey research design was utilized. 120 athletes were sampled hence 40 athletes were selected from each sport (individual, team and combat sport). Simple random sampling was done for the sample selection for each sport. The fish bowl technique was employed. The study employed an extrinsic reinforcer value-rating questionnaire which gathered data on the value rating by the subjects on employment opportunities, public recognition, material and monetary reward, free medical care and insurance coverage. The data obtained were analyzed both descriptively and inferentially. The statistical analysis techniques used was one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), where rejection of null hypotheses was set at $p < .05$. A Tukey post hoc test (HSD) was conducted to ascertain the source of the difference. The results of this study revealed significant differences amongst Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports athletes incentives' value rating on employment opportunities $F(2,118) = 26.482$ $p < .05$, public recognition $F(2,118) = 3.771$ $p < .05$ material and monetary $F(2,118) = 96.204$ $p < .05$, free medical care $F(2,118) = 17.485$ $p < .05$, insurance coverage $F(2,118) = 5.643$ $p < .05$. With 2 and 118 degrees of freedom equal to 3.07, these values are significant at .05 alpha level ($p < .05$). Findings on scholarship awards showed no significant differences $F(2,118) = 1.204$ $p < .05$. A Tukey test (post-hoc) was then conducted to establish the source of the differences. Based on the findings of this study it was concluded that the type of sport was a major determinant of incentive value rating. It was recommended that the government should formulate a sports policy in which sports performance incentives should be spelt out. The relevant government authorities in liaison with sports federations should have some in built performance reinforcer provisions in athletes' contracts for potential national and international athletes.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the problem

The critical role of motivation in explaining athletic participation, success and failure has been researched on and emphasized in the sports psychology literature. Akinsanmi (1991) identified motivation as the only factor amongst the three key factors (motivation, task difficulty and ability) that influences performance and is entirely under the athletes' control. Sohi (1987) described motivation as the mediating variable in athletic success. Talent is important but motivation is what might make the difference between winning and losing. Ajala (1987) pointed out that motivation serves to energize, select and direct performance. Motives of involvement in competitive sports are diverse and are directed by the needs and interests of athletes (Sohi, 1987).

Most sports researchers agree that incentives motivate the behaviour of an organism and that incentives of all types may influence behaviour and attitude of a person to work. According to Ogunjimi (2007), an athlete may have the abilities and those abilities may be employed as a tool to fulfill his ambition, but it is the incentives that determine the extent to which the individual gets motivated to work. According to Kundu and Tutoo (2002), the level and amount of effort in a person will either increase or decrease on the basis of the quality of incentives offered to the person. Indeed sport is not an exception to this phenomenon.

Athletes are willing to increase their effort on the basis of the incentives on offer. An incentive which does not or cannot be transformed to satisfy the unsatisfied needs is not motivating. Mshelia (1990) points out that athletes require financial, non-financial and welfare issues as incentives for participation in sports. Studies by the incentive federation conducted in 2003 determined that 92% of the respondents in a research on incentives stated that incentives were reasons why they achieved their goal (Clark and Jenkins, 2003). According to Jamieson and O'Mara (1991, pp44),

“What is rewarding to different people varies greatly depending on their background, expectations, values, and needs. The value of money, response to public recognition, the desire for peer and professional respect, and the need for challenging assignments all vary according to lifestyle and culture. The importance of these rewards to individuals affects their motivation, productivity, and satisfaction.”

This background highlights the need to understand the perception as well as the value of incentives as motivators for athletes in the sporting arena. The cause of these differences is related to one's needs, values and expectations which vary among different national settings. Athletic ability today is inextricably tied to economic factors such as the ability to finance one's activities of daily living such as purchase of food, secure housing and provide for uncertainty in the future. In addition, a sport also provides individuals with additional psychological benefits, such as achievement, honor, and social connectedness.

Alderman and Wood (1979) define incentive motivation as the incentive value that an individual attaches to the possible outcomes of actions which he/she chooses to engage in. Incentives value determines the courses of action one actually chooses. Alderman and Wood (1979) developed a sport specific instrument, the Alberta Incentive Motivation Inventory (A-IMI) in order to assess the values that athletes place on incentives and evaluate which of these incentives were more important for athletes participating in several sports. They administered the Alberta Incentive Motivation Inventory (A-IMI) to 2000 athletes (ages 11-18) participating in several sports and reported similarity between the incentives of males and females. They did not report any motivational differences with regard to gender, age and culture. Abernethy, (1993) examined gender and type of sport (team vis a vis individual) differences on the A-IMI in 400 female and male swimmers and basketball players aged 11 to 15. Abernethy (1993) research results revealed gender differences which were not apparent in Alderman and Wood (1979) study. Mac Donald (1985) examined incentive motivation differences between 319 United States and Canadian male and female Junior High school athletes and reported significant gender differences. Mowrey (1989) investigated on the incentive motivation of female and male United States Master Swimmers with the A-IMI and reported significant gender differences. Schwartz (1995) administered A-IMI to former collegiate athletes in basketball and swimming. No significant differences were found between swimmers and basketball players. All the aforementioned results of various studies results showed that there exists gender

differences in value rating of incentives in the different types of sports. However, only one study by Schwartz (1995) explored if type of sport is a major determinant of incentive value rating and no differences were reported amongst former collegiate basketball and swimming. Having considered all the above findings, a question then arises as to whether these findings are similar to the situation in Kenya? Do the current Kenyan athletes hold the same perception? The focus of this study was therefore to determine incentive value rating amongst elite male athletes in team, individual and combat sports. Information about athletic incentive value orientations in team and individual sports is important to attaining superior athletic performances.

Kenya is without doubt, one of the worlds' greatest sports power in long distance running, especially cross country races and the marathon (Aschmann, Knechtle, Cribari, Rüst, Onywera, Rosemann, and Lepers, 2013; Asembo, 2000; Eichenberger, Knechtle, Rüst, Lepers, Rosemann, and Onywera, 2012; Njororai, 1995; 2003; 2010; 2012; Onywera). The nation is further consolidating the various unique sports niches and is also an emerging African power house in various sports like volleyball, hockey, rugby and cricket. The desire to excel has necessitated the usage of different kinds of rewards to help achieve this objective. There is no structured format that is used to reward athletes. It is worthwhile to note that despite the important role played by these incentives, the aspect of incentive value rating (quality of incentive) has been downplayed in Kenya. The

lack of crucial information regarding athletes' incentives value rating poses difficulties for researchers and practitioners to adequately predict what to expect (in terms of performance) from a behavioural perspective and is likely to impede progress towards superior athletic performances by Kenyan athletes. One cannot be sure if the incentives previously used have been significantly effective; neither can we know whether they have not. It would be unwise to continually use these incentives or otherwise change them before gathering the essential information for evaluating effective sports performance incentives. The focus of this study was therefore to determine incentive value rating amongst male athletes in team, individual and combat sports. This study also aimed at unearthing information on whether the type of sport is a major determinant on incentive rating amongst male athletes in team, individual and combat sports. The selected extrinsic incentives included employment opportunities, public recognition, material and monetary rewards, scholarship awards, free medical care and insurance cover.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Incentives determine the extent to which the individual gets motivated. Incentives change the drive and the capacity of a person to work. The level and amount of effort in a person will either increase or decrease on the basis of the quality of incentives offered to the person (Kundu and Tutoo, 2002). Numerous and diverse incentives continue to be used in Kenya as sports performance reinforcers without proper verification of their reinforcer properties. There are different types of

incentives commonly used in sports in Kenya and are categorized as employment opportunities, public recognition, materials and monetary rewards, scholarship awards, free medical care and insurance coverage. However the incentive value in respect to the different types of sports remains unknown. This study therefore sought to analyze incentive value rating patterns of Kenyan male athletes in individual, team and combat sports. Individual sports athletes are those in track and field events including marathon and excluding relay. Swimming athletes are also included. Combat sports athlete refers to those in boxing and karate. Team sports athletes are soccer players participating in premier league for soccer and field hockey players participating in Kenya Hockey Union League.

There are few available studies on extrinsic incentives but none has been conducted on Kenya male athletes. Hence it becomes necessary to establish the extrinsic reinforcer incentive value rating patterns of Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports where there is paucity of studies. This study specifically focused on the value rating of selected extrinsic incentives by elite male athletes in individual, team and combat sports. The extrinsic incentives selected include employment opportunities, public recognition, material and monetary rewards, scholarship awards, free medical care and insurance cover.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to analyze the differences in responses among Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports on the selected incentives and their rating.

1.4 Objectives of the study

This study was guided by the following objectives;

1. To investigate the demographic characteristics of the selected Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports.
2. To establish the differences in incentive ratings amongst the Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports in terms of:
 - i. Employment opportunities
 - ii. Public recognition
 - iii. Material and monetary rewards.
 - iv. Scholarship awards.
 - v. Free medical care
 - vi. Insurance

1.5 Research hypotheses

The major hypothesis of the study was that there were no significant differences in incentive ratings on employment opportunities, public recognition, material and monetary rewards, scholarship awards, free medical care and insurance coverage by Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports.

The specific sub hypotheses tested included the following:

Ho₁ There is no significant difference in the incentive rating of employment opportunities as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

Ho₂ There is no significant difference in the incentive rating of public recognition as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

Ho₃ There is no significant difference in the incentive rating of material and monetary rewards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

Ho₄ There is no significant difference in the incentive rating of scholarship awards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

Ho₅ There is no significant difference in the incentive rating of free medical care as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

Ho₆ There is no significant difference in the incentive rating of insurance coverage as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

1.6 Theoretical framework

The theoretical basis of this study is the new institutional economics framework theory which is relevant to motivation through incentive compensation (Williamson, 1996). This theory considers both the formal and informal institutional framework. The formal framework is the legal body of rules and the informal framework is more implicit, composed of social, cultural, historical and religious values (North, 1990). Motivation theorists such as Herzberg (1966), Maslow (1968), McClelland (1953) and Vroom (1964) have tried to explain what motivates persons. However, these theories do not take into account the institutional frameworks that affect the needs of individuals. The formal framework determines the setting in which individuals operate by determining what is legal in a country, what is provided by the law and for which factors the individuals are responsible themselves. These factors determine the preferences of individuals. As the preferences are determined, unsatisfied needs can be singled out. Sports do not exist in a vacuum. There are various sports institutions, federations and associations that govern each discipline. These institutions are the structures that determine and define choices athletes make and shape their performance over time

Institutional framework-compatible incentive schemes are needed in order to motivate different persons in different aspects. Differences in appreciation levels for what appears to be the same incentive item may result from institutional frameworks. Secondly, the performance incentives schemes are dependent on laws which differ in each institution and at the same time the motivational effects of

incentives are again conditioned by norms as well as individual differences. This theory therefore assumes that different institutional frameworks generate different individual preferences with respect to sports incentives as shown in figure 1.1. The NIE theory illustrates that different institutional frameworks often provide different rewards in different compensation settings which need to be considered when designing compensation plans across the various institutional frameworks. There are different institutional frameworks that provide different compensation settings.

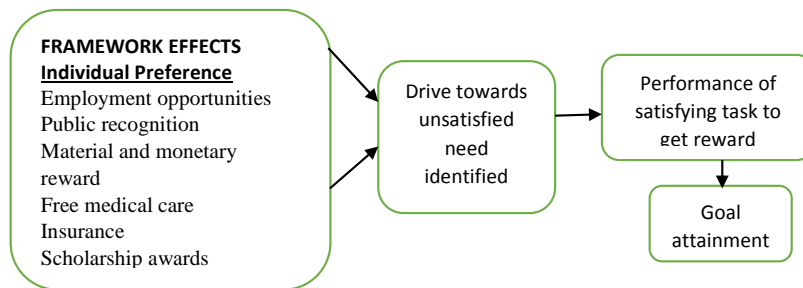


Figure 1.1: Diagram of the new institutional economics framework theory (Adopted from Gunkel, Lusk and Wolf (2007, 6).

It might, for instance, be more beneficial for tax reasons for athletes to receive part of their compensation as benefits rather than as monetary compensation. Also, it might be less costly for the sports organizations to provide a non-cash reward such as health benefits to athletes because the organization often can negotiate group discounts, for instance, on insurance and free medical care (Lazear, 1998). The focus of this study is on the athletes coming from various sports organizations.

This is where managers and athletes act, put forth effort, and give and receive rewards.

There has been a continued indiscriminate use of rewards as incentives in sports with the view of motivating athletes in Kenya. This arbitrary rewarding of athletes aims at reinforcing good performance. Good performances are pegged on how athletes value the rewards. The effectiveness of any reward depends on its value and meaningfulness to the recipient. To avoid rewards being abused or mismanaged because they are not valued by the recipients, it is imperative to establish the incentive value of these rewards. It is hard to point out which rewards have the highest incentive value and which ones are of low incentive value and in which sport. Figure 1.1 illustrates the pathway to attaining extrinsic incentives in sports. This diagram shows that there are preferred incentives that arise due to the frame work effects. The differences amongst athletes in their preferences is created by these frameworks. The availability of these incentives creates a demand for these needs hence leading to unsatisfied needs which later drive one towards performing a satisfying task that guarantees the attainment of a reward. It is this reward that's translated into attainment of a goal that emanated from the desires derived from the existing frameworks. This study aimed at establishing the athletes' value of the existing incentives. This was investigated by analyzing the incentives value of selected sports incentives that is employment opportunities,

public recognition, material and monetary rewards, insurance scholarship award and free medical care amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

1.7 Significance of the study

Not much is known about incentives value rating in team and individual sports and how they affect sports performance in Kenya. In the presence of wide spread reinforcement initiatives, there is need to effectively scrutinize incentives value rating in the diverse Kenyan sporting populations. This study on incentives value patterns provides a unique opportunity to carefully examine a variety of potentially positive and negative sports incentives beyond simple athletic awards. As sports incentive initiatives expand in Kenya, there is need to understand the role of incentives and how they affect sports performance. This will help in the development of effective reward systems and strategies that will increase participation and enhance quality of performance and likewise enhance the understanding of athletic incentives.

Secondly, this study will contribute to current knowledge to be used by future researchers, managers and administrators. The study provides baseline data upon which other related research in sports science particularly sport psychology can be developed. Additionally, the study findings would help initiate appropriate changes in incentive programmes that will further strengthen the use of reward as an incentive in sports in Kenya.

Third, the findings of this study will help sport practitioners understand the different types of incentives and how they are rated by athletes in different sports. The findings of this study will help add to the body of research on incentives and sports performance and particularly at the elite level of sports in Kenya, which hitherto have been missing.

1.8 Assumptions of the study

This study assumed that:

- a) The respondents are cognizant of the selected incentives.
- b) The recipients appreciate the utility as well as the opportunity costs of the selected incentives.

1.9 Limitations of the study

This study was limited by the following:

- i. The data were limited to selected male team, individual and combat sports athletes.
- ii. The athletes participating in the study were those participating in the leagues and sporting events.
- iii. The respondents were team individual and combat sports athletes.
- iv. The results were discussed within the institutional economics theory.

1.10 Delimitations of the study

This study was delimited to:

- i. The use of a questionnaire to elicit incentives value by using the 5 point Likert scale format.
- ii. Male athletes participating in soccer and field hockey team sports, individual athletes participating in athletic track and field, swimming and karate and boxing.
- iii. Extrinsic reinforcer incentive value rating was measured using reinforcer incentive value rating scale (RIVRS) (Okopi, 1995).
- iv. Selected reinforcers adapted from Okopi (1995), which included employment opportunities, scholarship awards, public recognition, material and monetary rewards, free medical services.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed literature pertaining to the use of extrinsic reinforcers in sports. The types of reinforcers and reinforcement, reward preferences, social recognition, insurance and medical care benefits and the related studies on incentive preferences are presented herein. The choice to use this comparative analysis of incentive preferences was prompted by the paucity of closely related studies in sports within this area. Thus this was meant give further direction to the conclusions in this study.

2.2 Use of extrinsic incentives in sports

The use of incentives in sports dates to the origin of sports. Cox (1990) and Bull (1996) reveal the common phenomenon in early Greek history. The most coveted award was the crown of olive branches placed upon the head of an Olympic victor that signified vitality. Olympic Games later gained importance and prestige. Competing was for the glory of human achievement. The winners were honoured and respected in the ancient world. The noblemen and royalty sought honours at Olympia competing side by side with the commoners hoping to be awarded the coveted olive wreath. The fourth and fifth century's (AD) saw professionalism creeping in. The games were the greatest events of those times and the athletes became famous as they reflected what was most admired in Greece. The winners were no longer interested in the olive wreath and these saw the advent of other tangible rewards as incentives such as recruitment in the military camps, allocation of pieces of land, and naming villages after the victors' names (Bull 1996). In the first Olympics at Athens, a Greek shepherd won the marathon race with much jubilation of the home cheering crowd. For his victory, a Greek barber promised him shaving services for life (Bull 1996).

2.3 Types of reinforcers and reinforcement

Behavioural management in sports is primarily concerned with behavioural change through the consequences of positive reinforcement. In particular, a reinforcer represents a desired consequence by an athlete that, if added to the situation, it increases the frequency of an athlete's task-related behaviour. A positive

reinforcement (frequently used technique in behavioural management) is an application of an incentive upon desired athletic behaviour. Thus, in behavioural management, the unit of analysis is athletic behaviour, where direct measurement of the frequency of behaviour is needed, and behaviour is functionally analyzed in terms of its antecedents and at work consequences (Luthans and Kreitner, 1985).

2.4 Social recognition

One of the most important rewards for a good job done is acknowledgement of ones performance by peers, supervisors, family and friends. This social reinforcement comes from others knowing about one's good performance rather than receipt of an incentive *per se*. This is one of the central tenets behind most reinforcement theories. Social recognition consists of personal attention, conveyed mostly, verbally through expressions of interest, approval of others, and appreciation for a job well done, insurance schemes, free medical care, and scholarship awards (Luthans and Stajkovic, 2000). While social recognition does not have direct financial costs, it does involve increased use of time, effort, and interpersonal skills by sports managers. Social recognition drives its outcome utility from its predictive value and not from the social reactions themselves (Bandura, 1986). Since desired personal outcomes (promotion or praise) are usually preceded by social approval, by reversing the correlates, positive reactions of relevant others become predictors of desired (mostly material rewards), and thus become incentives for future action. As a result, people will engage in behaviour

that received social recognition and avoid behaviour that leads to disapproval of others (Bandura, 1986; Luthans and Stajkovic, 2000). Similar to money, social recognition does not entail much task related information that may be useful for the subsequent performance improvement.

However, whereas the informative value of money is differentiated by its amount, the informative value of social recognition focuses on the content of what has been delivered and not on the quantity of it. Showing athletes how much their work is valued through social recognition is not achieved by frequent non-contingent phrases, but by the genuine personal appreciation for the successful performance. This is because indiscriminate approval that does not eventually result in desired benefits becomes an “empty reward” thus lacking the motivating potential. The difference between the indiscriminate approval and the genuine recognition with promising outcomes portrays the continuum from dichotomous to the ordinal informative level of social recognition. The motivational power of social recognition is cognitively operationalized through the basic human capability of forethought based on the social recognition received and, thus, the perceived prediction of desired consequences to come (Luthans and Stajkovic, 2000).

2.5 Material and monetary rewards

There are relatively few research studies in sports with regard to incentive value rating of monetary rewards. The majority of empirical evidence using sports data

supports the positive impact of monetary incentives on sporting performance. Studies on sports data where performance can relatively be measured are from disciplines like golfing (Ehrenberg and Boggnano, 1990; Melton and Zorn, 2000; Orszag, 1994), horse racing (Ferne and Metcalf, 1999; Lynch and Zax, 2000), tennis (Sunde, 2003), car racing (Becker and Huselid, 1992), running (Maloney and McCormick, 2000) in order to test the incentive value rating of material and monetary rewards. Ehrenberg (1990) studied golf data from the US senior players golf tour (PGA) in 1984 and found that the amount of prize money had a positive influence on the players' performance. The observed effect occurs primarily in the later rounds of a tournament due to the marginal returns on efforts. Players with larger marginal returns achieve better scores. Ehrenberg (1990) was able to confirm most of these results, using European PGA Tour data from the year 1987.

Orszag (1994) found no significant link between the amount of total prize money and golfers' performance using data from the United States senior golf tour of 1992. Further studies confirmed Ehrenberg's (1990) initial findings. For instance, using 1994 and 1995 data, and trying to eliminate any possible survival biases, Melton and Zorn (2000) found support for their theory that the amount of prize money in senior PGA tournaments affected players' performance. Sunde (2003) used data from the final two rounds of the most important tennis tournament for professionals from the men's ATP tour. The results indicated that the amount of prize money positively affects a player's performance if you count the number of

games won and the total number of games played. Lynch and Zax (1998) examined the role that prizes played in Arabian horse races in the United States and Canada from 1991 to 1995 and found support for a positive relationship between the prize spread and the absolute level of performance.

Similarly, Fernie and Metcalf (1999) investigated relationship between prize and performance in an unbalanced panel of 50 individuals over eight years. They found that a hard working jockey receives higher extra pay. Interestingly, the results also demonstrate that reputation lags behind performance or, in other words, that it takes a certain time for good performance to be recognized. Evidence from sports supports the proposition that the overall level of performance in a tournament is affected by the amount of prize money paid.

Maloney and McCormick (2000) worked on data from 115 foot races held in the southeastern United States from 1987 to 1991. The Results indicated that higher prizes were associated with faster times for individuals already in the race and that the higher prizes also attract faster athletes and thus a faster field of athletes. A higher concentration of the prize money leads to higher effort levels (Maloney and McCormick, 2000). Other researchers, studied road races on certified courses in the United States and abroad in 1994. Lynch and Zax (2000) could not find a robust impact of a positive prize effect. After controlling for runners' ability through individual fixed effects or world-ranking points, the incentive effect mostly disappeared (it remained only statistically significant for the marathon). The

results suggest that races with larger prizes lead to faster times due to the fact that they attract faster runners rather than encourage runners to run faster. Focusing on team sports, this study goes beyond investigating on the performance impact of absolute income by studying the performance impact of relative income. However, the theoretical predictions are countervailing. It is therefore not possible to predict whether larger income differences raise or lower individual performance.

2.6 Insurance and medical care benefits

The majority of sports today (soccer, ice hockey and motor sport) provide a number of required voluntary insurance benefits such as athlete's compensation and health insurance. Athlete's compensation aims at provision of prompt income and medical benefits to sports related accident risks or their dependants regardless of the fault. Insurance firms dealing with athletic compensation must be government approved insurance firms (Luthans and Stajkovic, 2000). Athletes' compensation benefits can be monetary or medical. In case of death or disablement the athletes' dependants are paid cash benefits, based on prior earnings. The athletes may receive additional benefits on statutory list of losses even though he or she may return to competition. In addition to the cash benefits, the federations must furnish medical, surgical and hospital services as required by the athletes. Free medical care looms large in many athletes' choices of sport because such insurance is expensive. Most medical schemes provide at least basic hospitalization and surgical funding. Others pay for hospital room board, surgery

charges and medical expenses such as doctor's visits. Accidental death or dismemberment coverage provides benefits in case of accidental loss of limbs or sight (Luthans and Stajkovic, 2000).

2.7 Related studies on incentive preferences

Tshube, Akpata, and Irwin, (2012) studied the use of non-monetary incentives as a motivational tool in sports. This study examined the extent to which athletes are motivated by social and tangible non-monetary incentives. Junior (ages 13–18) and elite (19 and above) athletes (190 males and 180 females) from different clubs in Botswana responded to a questionnaire assessing their perceptions of and the extent to which they were motivated by tangible (cars and scholarships) and social (media coverage and praise from leaders) non-monetary incentives. Results showed that Botswana athletes placed significant value ($p < 0.001$) on both tangible and social non-monetary incentives regardless of gender and age. Also, results indicated that the level of importance on both tangible and social non-monetary incentives varied by sport. Boxing reported the least value ($M = 1.85$) on the importance of social non-monetary incentives while volleyball reported the highest value ($M = 2.80$). Netball reported the least value ($M = 2.33$) on tangible non-monetary incentives while basketball reported the highest mean ($M = 3.21$). Results suggest that nonmonetary incentives may be a useful supplement to monetary incentives in motivating athletes to win medals, particularly in Africa where economies are struggling.

Oworu and Ipinmoroti,(2011) studied the factors influencing the choice of athletic events among university athletes in south –western Nigeria The study investigated the factors influencing the choice of athletic events among university athletes in South –Western Nigerian. One hundred and twenty (120) randomly selected athletes from three (3) different Universities in South-Western Nigerian were used for the study. University of Ibadan,University of Lagos and Obafemi Awolowo University were studied. Four (4) hypotheses on influence of financial incentive, scholarship award, becoming a professional athlete and socialization were formulated and investigated with validated questionnaire administered on all subjects, the statistical analyses of chi –square was used to analyses the data at 0.05 alpha level of significance. It was however found from the findings that, financial incentive, scholarship award, desire to become a professional athlete and socialization motivated university athletes to choose athletic events.

Senchi, (2000) studied the preference for incentives among Kebbi state sportsmen and women in Nigeria. The purpose of this study was to investigate the preferences of athletes for incentives among Kebbi State sportsmen and women. To achieve this purpose, a questionnaire was developed and standardized. The questionnaire thus developed was administered to 120 athletes selected at random from athletics, volleyball, basketball, handball and football associations. One hundred and fourteen (114) questionnaires out of 120 questionnaires were filled and returned. The information thus collected was statistically analysed to test the

hypothesis generated for this study. Analysis of variance was used to find out the significant differences between the selected athletic groups in their preferences for incentives to improve performance during competition and motivational level of the athletes.

The major findings of the study were as follows: There was no significant difference between the selected athletic groups in their preference for job offer. It was discovered that no significant differences were observed in the preference of athletes for monetary reward. There was no observable difference between the selected athletic groups in their preference for scholarship award. There were significant differences between the athletes in their preference for medals and certificates. No significant differences were seen between the athletes in their preference for admission into higher institutions of learning. There was no significant difference in the preference of athletes for promotion. No significant difference was observed between the selected athletic groups in their preference for adequate facilities and equipment. No difference in preference of athletes for efficient coaching services was revealed in the study. The findings of the above mentioned study by Senchi, (2000) showed that scholarship award was ranked highest, followed by employment opportunity, monetary reward, admission for higher education, promotion, while the least ranked incentive was in-service training.

Adesoye, (1996) investigated the incentives enjoyed by officials and players in public and private sports clubs in two states, Kwara and Niger. The study population consisted of 92 and 100 registered public and private sports clubs in Kwara and Niger states respectively. The study involved eighty-five percent (85%) sample selected by stratified random sampling technique; i.e. 78 and 85 sports clubs were involved in the study. The incentives in this study were: accommodation, rent subsidy, car loan, transport allowance, camp allowance, playing allowance, winning allowance, feeding allowance, fee medical service, yearly bonus award, insurance during competition and academic scholarship.

Findings indicated that no significant differences existed in the incentives enjoyed by officials in public and private sports clubs in Kwara and Niger states in Nigeria. Apart from “Playing” and “winning” allowances where significant differences were obtained in favour of private sports clubs, no significant differences existed in all the other incentives purportedly given to players in both public and private sport clubs in the two states.

2.8 Summary of literature review

The reviewed studies have explicitly shown that there is need to study incentives amongst Kenyan sports athletes. The conclusions in this studies point out that, for incentives to elicit a desired behavior there must be internal justification from the recipient .The conclusions from the studies below point out the necessary facts that necessitate the study of incentives among Kenyan athletes.

Tshube, et al, (2012) study pointed out that there are differences in the rating of social non-monetary incentives and they varied by sport. The emerging differences were notably between boxing, netball, basketball. This study though is a different setting, vividly pointed out that there are differences in incentive rating even in social non-monetary incentives.

Oworu and Ipinmoroti, (2011) in their findings indicated the financial incentive, scholarship award, desire to become professional athlete and socialization motivated university athletes to choose athletes events. This study revealed that each athlete has both financial and social desires that propel them to become professional sports athletes. This study equally confirms that incentives required by athletes are diverse.

Senchi, (2000) in his findings showed that scholarship awards ranked highest, followed by employment opportunities, monetary reward, admission for higher education, promotion and the least ranked was in service training. This study shows that there are incentives that are more attractive than others hence they can be ranked in the order of preference.

From the above, it is evident that incentives are diverse and athletes' preferences are equally diverse. This study therefore aimed at probing further the existence of these differences.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focused on the methodology that was used in the study. The areas covered in this chapter included; research design, target population, sample size

and sampling procedures, research instrument, procedure for data collection and data analysis

3.2 Research design

The design that was considered most appropriate for this study was the survey research design. A survey research design allows the researcher to gain desired information about a characteristic attitude or behavior within a selected sample or population. A survey is used when the independent variable is an attribute rather than an active variable (characteristic of the subjects) as explained by Wiersma (1980).

In a survey research design the independent variables are observed rather than manipulated. In this design the actual characteristic of the group is the proposed cause of differential results in the dependent variable (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012). This design is useful when we have two or more groups which differ on dependent variables and we want to test hypotheses about differences on one or more independent variables. This study sought to analyze extrinsic incentive value rating amongst selected Kenyan athletes in team, individual and combat sports. Since the type of sport was the major characteristic of the subjects under study, the type of sport was the independent variable and was defined as team, individual, and combat sports. The type of incentive was the dependent variable. It was defined in terms of employment opportunities, public recognition, material and monetary rewards, scholarship awards, and insurance coverage. Secondly, an ex-

post-facto research design was used for the study because the study sought to establish facts that already existed in the athletes (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012). The advantages of this study design is that it is able to yield useful information concerning the nature of the phenomena. However, the disadvantages of ex-post facto research design are that interpretations and conclusions are limited because the researcher cannot verify whether a particular variable is a cause or result of behaviour being studied and also there may be a third variable which could be affecting the established relationship in an ex post facto study but which may not be established in the study.

3.3 Target population

The target population comprised of male athletes in team, individual and combat sports in Kenya. The target population was 5 top teams in the soccer premier league, 5 top teams from the field hockey national league, 5 top boxing and karate club each consisting of 15 athletes and 50 athletes each from athletics and swimming totaling to 400 athletes. This study excluded athletes participating in relay and marathon since they were team events in athletics in a field selected for individual sports.

3.4 The sample and sampling procedure

The sampling was guided by the formula for minimum sample size ($n = 2[(Z\alpha/2 + Z\beta) \sigma/ES]^2$), with a power of .90. 120 athletes were sampled and 40 athletes were

selected from each sport (individual, team and combat sport). Type of sport (independent variable) was used as a major characteristic that is important in the study thus stratifying the study population prior to random sampling. Simple random sampling was done for the sample selection in each sport. This is the most efficient sampling procedure as all members of the population have an equal chance of becoming a research participant (Gage, 1991). In order to conduct this sampling strategy, the researcher defined the population first, obtained lists from the clubs, listed down all the members of the population and then selected members to make the sample. For this procedure, the fish bowl technique was employed. This method involves the selection of the sample at random from the sampling frame through the use of random number tables (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012). Numbers were assigned for each athlete in the master list. These numbers were written on pieces of paper and drawn from a box; the process was repeated until the sample size was reached. Second, defining the sample and random selecting from the larger population was important in maintaining the construct validity of the independent variable. Finally, the random selection of the sample was aimed at impacting on external validity. This was important because of the representativeness of the sample and subsequent generalization of the results on the appropriate larger population.

3.5 Research instrument

Research instruments are chosen to reflect the substantive research interests identified by the researcher. The survey questionnaire was used as the main data-gathering instrument for this study (See Appendix D&E). A closed-ended questionnaire was used to collect data from the athletes. A questionnaire modeled from a previous study developed by Okopi (1995) was modified and utilized for data collection (see Appendix D, E). The modification of the questionnaire was aimed at contextualization of the items as well as the ability of the questionnaire to generate sufficient information for the study. The questionnaire was divided into three parts. Appendix B a covering letter, appendix B part A, instructions and demographic data items of the subjects, while appendix E consisted of indicators from the six selected dimensions of sports performance reinforcers. These were employment opportunities (5 items), public recognition, (8 items), material and monetary rewards, (6 items), scholarship awards, (4 items), and insurance coverage, (5 items). These items required the subject to put a tick on the response that most appropriately described the incentive value rating of the extrinsic sports reinforcers. The instrument followed a five point likert scale. The Likert survey was the selected questionnaire type as this enabled the respondents to answer the survey easily. In addition, this research instrument allowed the researcher to carry out the quantitative approach effectively with the use of statistics for data interpretation.

3.6 Validity and reliability

The questionnaire was piloted using identical sample of athletes from the National Youth Service for soccer, hockey, athletics, karate and boxing teams while Aga Khan swimming club swimmers were used for the pilot study. These athletes were not included in the main study and for the researcher to familiarize himself with the data collection procedure. This was done to appraise the instrument. This also enabled the researcher to establish the validity and reliability of the research instrument. The validity of the instrument was scrutinized during the pilot study to determine its suitability, appropriateness and clarity of questionnaire in addressing the variables under investigation.

Validity is the degree to which a test measures whatever it is supposed to measure (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012). Gage and Berliner (1991) defined content validity as “the degree to which an achievement test’s content contains a representative and appropriate sample of the content (subject matter) contained in the instructional objectives whose attainment the test is intended to measure”. For the purpose of this study two supervisors who are competent in research methods in sports psychology assessed the relevance of the content in the questionnaire in the current setting. After their examination, the researcher incorporated their feedback in the instrument that was used in the study. The validity was further analyzed in the pilot study.

Reliability is the degree to which an instrument consistently measures something (Crowl, 1996). This instrument has been used previously by Okopi (1995). The reliability has already been established at 0.87. A test retest method was used to determine the reliability of the research instrument after revision. In order to determine reliability of the instrument the questionnaire was administered to 100 subjects on two different occasions with an interval of two weeks. The reliability after the pilot study was 0.84, which is considered as an acceptable level (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012).

3.7 Data collection procedure

Permission to conduct this study was granted by the Kenyatta University Institutional Research Board. Additionally, the research sought consent from the respective sporting organizations, teams and individual athletes. The organizations whose consent was sought from included Kenya Football Federation, Kenya Hockey Union, Swimming Association of Kenya, Karate Association of Kenya and the Boxing association of Kenya. Consent was also obtained from the coaches and the subjects as well through a letter written to them for the request of subjects to participate in this research (Appendix B &D). Data was collected by means of a questionnaire containing 42 items. The researcher administered the questionnaires personally to the athletes in their respective training grounds. The respondents were required to tick (✓) the answer that best described the value rating of the extrinsic incentive reinforcers. All the information used in this analysis was

derived from the questionnaire data. All questionnaires were returned immediately and the rate of return was 100%. The questionnaires were administered at the respective teams training grounds.

3.8 Data analysis

The statistical software package 11.5 version of SPSS was used in this investigation. In this research quantitative analysis was used. The types of quantitative analysis used were inferential and descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics identified percentages, means, and standard deviations. A one- way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the hypotheses. The significance level was set at alpha level of .05 for this study. If the variables were found to be of significance, then a post hoc test was conducted to identify where the significance lies.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a data analysis procedure that is used to determine whether there are significant differences between three or more groups of samples at a selected probability (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2012). The hypotheses of the study were tested by one –way analysis of variance (ANOVA). This statistical tool was used because it allows the evaluation of the null hypothesis among two or more group means with the restriction that the groups represent levels of the same independent variable. Simple One way- ANOVA allows all three group means to be compared simultaneously, thus keeping alpha at

a designated level of .05 (Weirsmas, 1998). The significance level was set at alpha level of .05 for this study. If the variables were found to be significant, then a post hoc test was done to test the strength of the existing differences.

Tukey honestly significant difference test (HS.D) was used to test the strength of resulting significant differences. Tukey (HS.D) was chosen because it allows all comparisons to be made as it corrects all the increased risk of type errors reducing the significance level of individual comparisons and it is also easy to carry out.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to analyze the differences in incentive value rating amongst selected Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports. The selected incentives included employment opportunities, public recognition, material and monetary rewards, scholarship awards, free medical care and insurance coverage. To achieve these goals, the following research objectives shown in section 1.5 were formulated and used to guide this study. To test the strength of resulting significant differences from one way ANOVA, Tukey HSD was used. The acceptance and rejection of the hypothesis was set at $p < .05$. Additionally the critical value for the Tukey test was set at .05. The findings of the study were interpreted and discussed.

4.2 Respondents' characteristics

This study sampled 120 athletes. These were 40 athletes each from team, individual and combat sports. The breakdown of each of the three major sports can be seen as shown in the frequency table 4.1. Frequency tables were chosen to show respondent characteristics because they give a very complete picture of the distribution of data for the selected characteristics. Table 4.1 depicts that 40 respondents (33.3%) were in combat sports comprising equal numbers also

distributed equally between soccer and hockey and 40 participants (33.3%) were individual sports athletes from boxing and karate.

Table 4.1: Distribution of athletes according to type of sport

Type of sport	Frequency (<i>f</i>)	Percentage (%)
Combat		
Boxing	20	16.6
Karate	20	16.6
Total	40	33.3
Team Sports		
Soccer	20	16.6
Hockey	20	16.6
Total	40	33.3
Individual		
Swimming	20	16.6
Athletics	20	16.6
Total	40	33.3
Total	120	*100.0

*Percentage rounded off to one decimal place

Forty (40) respondents (33.3%) were team sport athletes who were also distributed equally between swimming and athletics (individual).

4.3. Categories of athletes according to age

The range of the respondents' age is shown in table 4.2. In the 15-20 years age bracket there were 14 (35%) combat sport athletes, 10 (25%) individual athletes and 14 (40%) team sport athletes. The age brackets of 21 - 24 years was constituted by 39 athletes (33.5%) whose 8 of them (20%) were combat sport

athletes; 16 (40%) were individual sports athletes and 15 (37.5%) were team sport athletes.

Table 4.2: Distribution of respondents according to age

Age in years	Combat		Individual		Team sports		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
15-20	14	35	10	25	14	35	28	31.60
21-24	8	20	16	40	15	37.5	39	32.5
25-30	10	25	10	25	10	25	30	25
31 and above	8	25	4	10	11	27.5	23	19.1
Total	40	100	40	100	40	100	120	100

*Percentage rounded off to one decimal place.

The 25-30 years age bracket had 30 athletes (25%) of whom 10 respondents (25%) were combat sport athletes, 10 respondents (25%) were individual sport athletes and 10 respondents (25%) were team sport athletes. The 31 years of age and above bracket had 23 athletes (19.1%) comprised of 8 athletes (25%), 4 athletes (10%) and 11 athletes (27.5%) in combat sports, individual sports and team sports respectively. At 21-24 years of age, there are 39 athletes (32.5%). This age bracket had the majority of the athletes where it is said to be the peak age for athletes to excel in various sports according to Ikulayo (1990). Mean age for all the athletes was $\bar{x} = 23.49$.

4.4 Academic qualifications

Distribution of respondents according to their academic qualification is shown on table 4.3. It shows that there were 5 of the athletes (4.16%) with primary school certificate and they were found in athletics. 63 athletes (52.5%) had secondary school education where 28 of them (70%) were in combat sports, 10 (25%) had college level education where 8 (20%) were combat sport athletes, 20 (50%) were individual sports athletes and 5 (12%) were from team sports. 19 athletes (15.8%) had university level of education of which 10 (25%) of the individual sports athletes were found in athletics only team sports category had the biggest number of athletes with highest level of education, namely 10 (25%) whose majority were hockey players.

Table 4.3: Distribution of respondents according to academic qualifications

Academic Qualification	Combat		Individual		Team sport		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Primary (certificate)	0	0	5	12.5	0	0	5	4.16
Secondary (certificate)	28	70	10	25	25	62.5	63	52.5
College (Diploma)	8	20	20	50	5	12.5	33	27.5
University (Degree)	4	10	5	12.5	10	25	19	15.8
Total	40	100	40	100	40	100	120	100

*Percentage rounded off to one decimal place.

4.5 Categories of athletes according to years of experience

Respondents' distribution according to playing experience is shown on table 4.4.

7 respondents (5.8%) had played for one year, 26 respondents (21.7%) for two years, 23 respondents (19.2%) for three years, 17 respondents (14.2%) for four years, 15 respondents (12.5%) for five years, 16 respondents (13.3%) for six years, 13 respondents (10.8%) for seven years and 3 respondents (5%) for eight years.

The mean years of playing for playing experience was 4.0167

Table 4.4: Distribution of respondents according to years of experience

Years of experience	N	%
1	7	5.8
2	26	21.6
3	23	19.1
4	17	14.1
5	15	12.5
6	16	13.3
7	13	10.8
8	3	2.5
Total	120	*100.0

*Percentage rounded off to one decimal place

4.6 Categories of athletes according to athletic status

Distribution of respondents according to their athletic status is shown on table 4.5.

The table reveals that 67 athletes (55.8%) were fulltime athletes while 53 respondents (44.1%) belong to the part time category of athletes. 18 athletes (26%) in combat sports were fulltime while 22 (41.5%) were part time. For

individual sports athletes, 28 respondents (40.5%) were fulltime while 12 (22.6%) were part time. Whereas 21 respondents (30.4%) in team sports were full time, 19 (35.8%) were part time. There were 28 full time individual sports athletes (40.5%) which was the highest number of full time sports athletes observed.

Table 4.5: Distribution of respondents according to athletic status

Type of sport	Fulltime		Part time		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Combat	18	26	22	41.5	40	33.3
Individual sports	28	40.5	12	22.6	40	33.3
Team sports	21	30.4	19	35.8	40	33.3
Total	67	55.8	53	44.1	120	* 100.0

*Percentage rounded off to one decimal place

4.7 Athletes' levels of performance

Distribution of respondents according to their level of performance is shown on table 4.6. The table shows that 13 players (65%) of both soccer and hockey (teams sports) were of national status while 7 (35%) were competing at international level. The table also shows that 7 swimmers (35%) and 10 track athletes (50%) were of national status. 13 swimmers (32.5%) and 10 track athletes (25%) were competing at international levels. 14 boxers (70%) and 12 karate athletes (60%) were of national status. 6 boxers (30%) and 8 karate athletes (40%) were of

international status. 69 (57.5%) were of national status as compared to 51 (42.5%) who were of international status. Whereas 21 respondents (30.4%) in team sports were full time, 19 (35.8%) were part time. There were 28 full time individual sports athletes (40.5%) which was the highest number of full time sports athletes observed. It can also be observed that all players, therefore, had been involved in their respective sports for a minimum of four years and therefore possessed invaluable experience in terms of training, competition and performance incentives. This also indicated that the responses given by the athletes about incentive rating were a true reflection of the general perception of most athletes.

Table 4.6: Distribution of respondents according to level of performance

Type of sport	Level of performance				Total	
	National		International			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Team Sports						
Soccer	13	65	7	35	20	100
Hockey	13	65	7	35	20	100
Individual sport						
Swimming	7	35	13	65	20	100
Athletics	10	50	10	50	20	100
Combat sports						
Boxing	14	70	6	30	20	100
Karate	12	60	8	40	20	100
Total	69	57.5	51	42.5	120	100

*Percentage rounded off to one decimal place

4.8 Findings on incentive rating on employment opportunities

Table 4.7a shows the means and standard deviations of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating on employment opportunities.

Table 4.7a; Means and standard deviations of sports athletes' incentive rating of employment opportunities

FACTOR	GROUPS	N	Mean	S.D
Employment Opportunities	Team sports	40	13.50	2.480
	Individual sports	40	17.05	1.762
	Combat sports	40	16.55	2.846
	Total	120		

Table 4.7a reveals that team sports athletes rated employment opportunities lowest on incentive value ($m=13.50$, $S.D=2.480$) while individual sports athletes rated it highest amongst the groups ($m=17.05$, $S.D=1.762$). Table 4.8b is a summary of one-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of team, individual and combat sports athlete's incentive value rating of employment opportunities.

Table 4.7b; Summary table of one-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of sports athlete's incentive rating of employment opportunities

FACTOR	Source	SS	df	Ms	F	Comments
Employment Opportunities	Between	306.467	2	153.233	*26.482	Significant
	Within	677.000	118	5.786		
	Total	983.467	120			

*F
(2,1
18)
=3.
07
p<.
05 *

indicates significant

Results on employment opportunities in table 4.7b show a significant F value

$F(2,118) = 26.482$ $p < .05$ while the F-critical value is 3.07. This shows that there are significant differences amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes value rating of employment opportunities as an incentive. The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of employment opportunities as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected.

The post hoc tests (Tukey HSD test) revealed the specific significant differences. Comparisons between the three groups showed that individual and combat sports athletes differed significantly with team sports athletes on the rating of employment opportunities as an incentive.

4.9 Findings on incentive rating on public recognition

Table 4.8a shows means and standard deviations of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating of public recognition. Table 4.8a reveals that individual sports rated public recognition lowest on incentive value ($m = 18.20$ $S.D = 2.928$) while team sports athletes rated it highest amongst the groups ($m = 19.88$ $S.D = 3.411$).

Table 4.8a; Means and standard deviations of sports athletes' incentive rating of public recognition.

FACTOR	GROUPS	N	Mean	S.D
Public Recognition	Team sports	40	19.88	3.411
	Individual sports	40	18.20	2.928
	Combat sports	40	19.87	2.945
	Total	120		

Table 4.8b is a summary table of one -way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of team, individual and combat sports athlete's incentive value rating of public recognition.

Results on public recognition in table 4.8b are significant. The F-value observed $F(2,118) = 3.771$ $p < 0.5$ was greater than the F-critical value (3.07) indicating that there are significant differences amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes value rating of public recognition as an incentive. The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of public recognition as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected.

Table 4.8b; Summary table of one -way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of sports athlete's incentive rating of public recognition

FACTOR	Source	SS	df	Ms	F	Comments
Public Recognition	Between	75.650	2	36.325	*3.772	Significant
	Within	126.550	118	9.629		
	Total	199.000	120			

* $F(2,118) = 3.07$ $p < .05$ * indicates significance

Tukey post hoc (Tukey HSD) comparisons of the three groups indicated that athletes in team sports, combat sports and individual sports did not differ in terms of the value rating of public recognition.

4.10 Findings on incentive rating on material and monetary rewards

Table 4.9a shows means and standard deviations of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating of material and monetary rewards. Table 4.9a indicates that individual sports rated material and monetary rewards lowest on

incentive value ($m=13.60$, $S.D=2.121$) while team sports athletes rated it highest amongst the groups ($m=20.95$, $S.D=2.828$). Table 4.9a is a summary table of one-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating of material and monetary rewards. Results in table 4.9b on material and monetary rewards showed significant differences. The F-observed $F(2,118) = 96.204$ $p < 0.5$ was greater than the F-critical value (3.07) indicating that there are significant differences amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes' value rating of material and monetary rewards.

Table 4.9a; Means and standard deviations of sports athletes' incentive rating of material and monetary rewards

FACTOR	GROUPS	N	Mean	S.D
Material And Monetary Rewards	Team sports	40	20.95	2.828
	Individual sports	40	13.60	2.121
	Combat sports	40	13.73	3.096
	Total	120		

Table 4.9b; Summary table of one-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of sports athlete's incentive rating of material and monetary rewards

FACTOR	Source	SS	df	Ms	F	Comments
Material And Monetary Rewards	Between	416.517	2	708.258	*96.204	Significant
	Within	861.475	118	7.362		
	Total	1277.992	120			

* $F(2,118) = 3.07$ $p < .05$ * indicates significance

The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of material and monetary rewards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected. Tukey

(HS.D) post hoc test indicated that team sports athletes differed with combat and individual sports athletes in on the rating of material and monetary rewards.

4.11 Findings on incentive value on free medical care

Table 4.10a shows means and standard deviations of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating of free medical care. Table 4.10a shows that combat sports rated free medical care as lowest on incentive value ($m=6.522$ $S.D=2.837$) while teamsports athletes rated it highest amongst the groups ($m=9.255$ $S.D=1.656$).

Table 4.10a; Means and standard deviations of sports athletes' incentive rating of free medical care

FACTOR	GROUPS	N	Mean	S.D
Free Medical Care	Team sports	40	9.255	1.656
	Individual sports	40	6.901	1.971
	Combat sports	40	6.522	2.837
	Total	120		

Table 4.10a is a summary table of one -way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating of free medical care.

Table 4.10b; Summary table of one -way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of team, individual and combat sports athlete's incentive rating of free medical care

FACTOR	Source	SS	df	Ms	F	Comments
Free Medical Care	Between	171.150	2	85.575	*17.485	Significant
	Within	572.550	118	4.894		
	Total	743.700	120			

*F (2,118) =3.07 $p<.05$ * indicates significance

Results in table 4.10b on the rating of free medical care were also significant. F-value observed $F(2,118) = 17.485$ $p < 0.5$ was greater than the F-critical value (3.07) indicating that there are significant differences amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes' value rating of free medical care as an incentive. The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of free medical care as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected.

Post hoc tests (Tukey HS.D) revealed that team sports athletes differed with combat and individual sports value rating of free medical care as an incentive.

4.12 Findings on incentive rating on insurance coverage

Table 4.11a shows the means and standard deviations of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating on insurance coverage. Table 4.11a shows that team sports rated insurance coverage as lowest on incentive value ($m=10.30$ $S.D=1.150$) while combat sports athletes rated it highest amongst the groups ($m=18.35$ $S.D=2.239$).

Table 4.11a; Means and standard deviations of sports athletes' incentive rating of insurance coverage

FACTOR	GROUPS	N	Mean	S.D
Insurance Coverage	Team sports	40	10.30	1.150
	Individual sports	40	12.75	3.631
	Combat sports	40	18.35	2.239
	Total	120		

Table 4.11b shows a summary table of one -way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of team, individual and combat sports athlete's incentive value rating of insurance coverage. Results for insurance coverage in table 4.11b were also significant. The F-ratio observed $F(2,118) = 5.643$ $p < 0.05$ was greater than the F-critical(3.07) indicating that there are significant differences amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes value rating of insurance coverage as an incentive.

Table 4.11b; Summary table of one -way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of athlete's incentive rating of insurance coverage

FACTOR	Source	SS	Df	Ms	F	Comments
Insurance Coverage	Between	362.200	2	681.100	*5.643	Significant
	Within	121.000	118	120.692		
	Total	483.200	120			

* $F(2,118) = 3.07$ $p < 0.05$ * indicates significance

The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of insurance coverage as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected. Tukey HSD post hoc test showed that combat sports athletes differed with team sports on the value rating of insurance coverage as an incentive.

4.13 Findings on incentive rating on scholarship awards

Table 4.12a shows means and standard deviations of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating of scholarship awards.

Table 4.12a; Means and standard deviations of sports athletes' incentive rating of scholarship awards.

FACTOR	GROUPS	N	Mean	S.D
Scholarship award	Team sports	40	9.62	2.870
	Individual sports	40	9.22	1.818
	Combat sports	40	8.85	1.847
	Total	120		

Table 4.12a shows that combat sports rated scholarship awards as lowest on incentive value ($m=9.62$ $S.D=2.870$) while team sports athletes rated it highest amongst the groups ($m=8.85$ $S.D=1.847$). Table 4.12b shows a summary table of one-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating of scholarship awards. The F-value observed (1.204) in table 4.12b is smaller than the F-critical (3.07). Results in scholarship awards were not significant $F(2,118) = 1.204$ $p < .05$. The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of scholarship awards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes is therefore accepted.

Table 4.12b; Summary table of one-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of athlete's incentive rating of scholarship awards

FACTOR	Source	SS	df	Ms	F	Comments
Scholarship Awards	Between	12.017	2	6.008	1.204	Not Significant
	Within	583.450	118	4.987		
	Total	595.467	120			

* $F(2,118) = 3.07$ $p < .05$ * indicates significance

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents discussion of the findings on respondents characteristics, athletes age, academic qualifications, playing experience, athletic status, levels of performance and there rating on the selected incentives.

5.2 Discussion of respondents' characteristics

Team sports (soccer and hockey) as well as individual sports (athletics) are widely played in Kenya at institutional and community levels. Swimming, unlike athletics, is popular amongst people from areas of large water masses and swimming is particularly undertaken for recreational purposes (Mazrui, 1986). The majority of the people in urban areas who take up swimming for recreational and competitive purposes feel reasonably westernized in their social orientation (Mazrui, 1986). Combat sports (boxing and karate) are also popular, although they are not in the school curriculum (Mazrui, 1986; Njororai, 1995). Combat sports are popular within the disciplined forces namely Military, Police, Prisons and generally because they are part of the course curriculum because they are considered necessary skills that are prime to the nature of their work (Njororai, 1995).

5.3. Discussion of athletes according to age

The age categories showed that at 21-24 years of age, there were 39 athletes (32.5%) among the sampled athletes. This age bracket had the majority of the athletes where it is said to be the peak age for athletes to excel in various sports according to Ikulayo (1990).

5.4 Discussion of athletes' academic qualifications

Findings on academic qualifications of athletes imply that these athletes can also excel when they are still in primary school hence they concentrate on running for a living. It can as well be inferred that, school has become a very important factor in talent nurturing and hence cannot be overlooked as a major contributor of development athletic talent. Currently in Kenya, the identification and nurturing of talent is being done largely by schools where the school systems are quite strong and dynamic and well supported (Bulinda, 2008). Team sports category had the biggest number of athletes with highest level of education, namely 10 (25%) whose majority were hockey players. This implies that unlike athletics where an athlete can earn directly from participation, other sports do not have direct income therefore forcing the athletes to pursue higher academic training to compete for the few available jobs and only get involved in sports for recreational purposes. It is also important to note that hockey is played in very few secondary schools due to the fact that the resources required for this sport are huge as compared to other

sports. For one to play hockey, it is a must that he or she must have gone through the few secondary schools or colleges offering hockey. Primary schools do not offer hockey as one of the sport in their curriculum and this probably explains why most hockey players have high academic qualifications.

5.5 Discussion of athletes according to years of playing experience

The findings on age implied that most athletes had enough experience to enable them evaluate and rate sports incentives accordingly. This revelation also shows that most players hardly played for 10 years. Experience gives an advantage to any team as athletes are more exposed to well-grounded techniques and tactics. Dropout of most players before attaining 10 years of exposure could be attributed to lack of equitable rewarding experiences. This may explain why most athletes have been unable to participate in sporting activities for more than 10 years as shown by these results.

5.6 Discussion of athletes according to their athletic status

It was observed that the majority of the fulltime athletes were found in athletics. This existing professionalism in the sector may be due to the fact that most athletes take up running as a fulltime occupation. Athletics is one sport where many athletes can earn directly from participating in various competitions. On the contrary, team sports are dominated by part-time athletes who have fulltime jobs elsewhere and only take part in sports for recreational purposes and hardly earn any income from it. In the emerging sport powers in the world, most athletes are

taking up sports as a fulltime occupation thus making it a profession which is a complete contrast of the Kenyan situation (Rushall, 1972; Senchi, 2000).

5.7 Discussion of athletes' highest levels of performance

69 (57.5%) athletes were of national status of performance as compared to 51 (42.5%) who were of international status. These findings about status were a good pointer towards the level of success already attained by the different sports in Kenyan athletes. National status athletes have participated in sports at national level while international athletes have participated in continental and international sports events. The issue of reinforcement is critical at both the national and international events. International status of sports athletes can only be acquired through skills improvement and perfection as well as the desire to succeed.

5.8 Discussion on incentive rating of employment opportunities

Findings on employment opportunities in table 4.7b showed a significant F value $F(2,118) = 26.482$ $p < .05$ while the F-critical value is 3.07. The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of employment opportunities as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected. The post hoc tests (Tukey HSD test) revealed the specific significant differences. Comparisons between the three groups showed that individual and combat sports athletes

differed significantly with teamsport athletes on the rating of employment opportunities as an incentive.

These findings are however different from the findings of Senchi, (2000) who found no significant differences in the rating of employment opportunities as an incentive amongst Kebbi sportsmen and women in Nigeria. Schwartz (1995) equally did not find any differences and concluded that the type of sport is not a major determinant of incentive value rating amongst former collegiate basketball players and swimmers. The differences in the rating of employment opportunities may be as a result of lack of direct employment opportunities to young and talented sportsmen in the different sporting institutions. Some sports like athletics enjoy direct recruitment while others like karate are viewed as recreational.

5.9 Discussion on incentive rating of public recognition

Results on public recognition in table 4.8b were significant. The F-value observed $F(2,118) = 3.771$ $p < 0.5$ was greater than the F-critical value (3.07) indicating that there are significant differences amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes value rating of public recognition as an incentive. The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of public recognition as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected. Tukey post hoc (Tukey HSD) comparisons of the three groups indicated that athletes in team sports, combat

sports and individual sports did not differ in terms of the value rating of public recognition.

These results agree with the findings of Tshube, *et al*, (2012) who found that in Botswana, athletes placed significant value on social non-monetary incentives such as media coverage and praise from leaders but the level of importance varied due to the type of sport thus creating the differences in the rating.

These results however are in disagreement with the results of Alderman and Wood (1979) who reported similarities in incentive rating between the males and the females regardless of the sport. Abernethy (1993), Macdonald (1985) and Mowrey (1989) equally did not report any differences in incentive rating with regards to the type of sport, but reported gender differences in their studies.

The differences in the value rating of incentives by athletes in different types of sports in Kenya may be as a result of some sports enjoying widespread attraction and thereby attracting huge publicity avenues as compared to other sports. Soccer enjoys a worldwide patronage thus creating a worldwide platform for publicity as compared to sports like karate. Ikulayo (1990) opines that, the need for prestige, status, dominance, attention, importance, appreciation and recognition are firmly based on human nature and they underlie human motivation. When athletes achieve or meet the set standards, they should be acknowledged and recognized.

Public recognition helps in building athletic image. This leads to athletes enjoying acceptance and reputation by masses as a sovereign source of motivation.

5.10 Discussion on incentive rating of material and monetary rewards

Results on material and monetary rewards showed significant differences. The F-observed $F(2,118) = 96.204$ $p < 0.5$ was greater than the F-critical value (3.07) indicating that there are significant differences amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes' value rating of material and monetary rewards.

The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of material and monetary rewards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected. Tukey (HS.D) post hoc test indicated that team sports athletes differed with combat and individual sports athletes in on the rating of material and monetary rewards.

These findings are contrary to the findings of Senchi, (2000) who found no significant differences amongst athletes in their preference of monetary reward as an incentive. Adesoye (1996) reported similar findings in his study. He found no significant differences in the incentives enjoyed by officials and players in public and private clubs in Kwara and Niger states. This revelation is not unique to the Kenyan situation. Financial incentives represent a means to greater wealth and admiration. The differences in incentive value amongst team, individual and combat sport athletes may be due to the existing commercialization in sports.

Soccer and athletics being among the world's most popular sports attract huge sums of money and huge financial returns as compared to sports like karate and swimming. This is evident in the daily transfer fees of professional soccer players as well as prize money and appearance fee money for renowned athletics participants (Ajala, 1987).

5.11 Discussion on incentive value of free medical care

Results in table 4.10b on the rating of free medical care were also significant. F-value observed $F(2,118) = 17.485$ $p < 0.5$ was greater than the F-critical value (3.07) indicating that there are significant differences amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes' value rating of free medical care as an incentive. The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of free medical care as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected

Post hoc tests (Tukey HS.D) revealed that team sports athletes differed with combat and individual sports value rating of free medical care as an incentive. These findings are indifferent to the findings of Adesoye (1996) who found no differences in the rating of free medical services amongst players in private and public owned sports clubs. These finding are not unique to Kenya. For a long time medical services has been regarded as an automatic membership scheme for

athletes rather than an incentive in sports. Athletes' perception of free medical care has to be changed in order to make free medical care to qualify as an incentive.

5.12 Discussion on incentive rating of insurance coverage

Results for insurance coverage in table 4.11b were also significant. The F-ratio observed $F(2,118) = 5.643$ $p < 0.05$ was greater than the F-critical(3.07) indicating that there are significant differences amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes value rating of insurance coverage as an incentive. The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of insurance coverage as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes was therefore rejected.

Tukey HSD post hoc test showed that combat sports athletes differed with team sports on the value rating of insurance coverage as an incentive. These findings are different from the findings of Adesoye (1996). His study showed no differences in the rating of insurance coverage as a sports incentive. Athletes should be covered by an adequate insurance policy. Any insurance undertaken protects the athlete against the risk that may occur during participation in sporting events.

5.13 Discussion on incentive rating of scholarship awards

Table 4.12b shows a summary table of one-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of team, individual and combat sports athletes' incentive value rating of scholarship awards. The F-value observed (1.204) in table 4.13b is smaller than the F-critical

(3.07). Results in scholarships awards were not significant $F(2,118) = 1.204$ $p < .05$. The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference in the value rating of scholarship awards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes is therefore accepted.

These findings are different in relation to the findings of Senchi, (2000), Adesoye (1996), Owuru and Ipinmoroti, (2011) who found no differences in the rating of scholarship awards. The findings of Tshube, Akpata, and Irwin (2012) are in agreement with the findings of the current study. The lack of significant difference on incentive value ratings amongst different sports athletes can be attributed to the fact that scholarships awards have been there for a long period of time and still remain the most available incentives in the sporting arena.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the findings, as well as conclusions and recommendations based on the findings.

6.2. Summary of the Findings

The purpose of this study was to analyze the differences in incentive value rating amongst selected Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports. The selected incentives included employment opportunities, public recognition, material and monetary rewards, scholarship awards, free medical care and insurance coverage. To achieve these goals, the following research objectives were formulated and used to guide this study

- To investigate the demographic characteristics of team, individual and combat sports athletes
- To establish the differences in incentives value ratings amongst the selected Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports in terms of:
 1. Employment opportunities
 2. Public recognition
 3. Material and monetary rewards.
 4. Scholarship awards.

5. Free medical care

6. Insurance

To guide the attainment of the above objectives, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested by the use of one- way analysis of variance (ANOVA). To test the strength of resulting significant differences from ANOVA, Tukey HSD was used. The acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses was set at $p < .05$. Additionally the critical value for the Tukey test was set at .05.

The specific hypotheses for the study were;

H₀₁ There is no significant difference in incentive rating of employment opportunities as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

H₀₂ There is no significant difference in incentive rating of public recognition as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

H₀₃ There is no significant difference in incentive rating of material and monetary rewards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

H₀₄ There is no significant difference in incentive rating of scholarship awards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

Ho₅ There is no significant difference in incentive rating of free medical care as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

Ho₆ There is no significant difference in incentive rating of insurance coverage as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

On the overall, 120 athletes participated in the study where 40 athletes were sampled from each group (individual, team and combat sports). A direct contact questionnaire was utilized for data collection in the study. A closed-ended questionnaire was used to collect data from the athletes. Descriptive statistics involved percentages, means, and standard deviations. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the hypotheses. The significance level was set at alpha level of .05 for this study. Tukey honestly significant difference (HS.D) was used to test the strength of resulting significant differences.

The major findings of the study are presented below.

1. There was significant difference in incentive rating of employment opportunities as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.
2. There was significant difference in incentive rating of public recognition as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

3. There was significant difference in incentive rating of material and monetary rewards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.
4. There was no significant difference in incentive rating of scholarship awards as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.
5. There was significant difference in incentive rating of free medical care as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.
6. There was significant difference in incentive rating of insurance coverage as a sports performance reinforcer amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes.

6.3. Conclusion

This research set out to analyse the incentive rating amongst selected Kenyan male athletes. The purpose of this study was to investigate the demographic characteristics of team, individual and combat sports athletes and also to establish the differences in incentives value ratings amongst the selected Kenyan male athletes in team, individual and combat sports. The results of this study show that there are differences in incentive rating amongst team, individual and combat sports athletes in terms of employment opportunities, public recognition, material and monetary rewards, free medical care and insurance coverage. Scholarship

awards did not show any differences. The findings of this study suggest that incentives must be administered with caution in sport since not all of them elicit the same motivational response as intended. The empirical findings of this study make substantial contributions to the current sports literature available on incentive rating. There is additional evidence that suggests that incentives in sports must be verified to ascertain their relative value in relation to a specific sports. Although the current study is based on a comparison of team individual and combat sports, the findings suggest that there exists some differences in terms of incentive ratings in various types of sports. The current study has only analysed the existing differences in the rating of selected incentives in sports. This study was limited in several ways, first, to male athletes participating in soccer and field hockey team sports, individual athletes participating in athletic track and field, swimming and karate and boxing. Two, the study only dealt with selected reinforcers, which included employment opportunities, scholarship awards, public recognition, material and monetary rewards, free medical services. Three, this study was limited to the differences but did not set out to compare the demographic data with the findings. Further research may be done to explore the same. In respect to the new institutional economics framework used for this study, sporting institutions are guided by the existing legal and social frameworks in the provision of incentives. Their perceptions of what is motivating are viewed in the institutional parameters.

6.4 Recommendations

From the findings of this study, the following recommendations for policy formulation and further research are made.

6.4.1 Policy and Practice

From the findings of this study it was recommended that:

- a) The government, in consultation with sporting organizations, athlete representatives and other stake holders, should formulate policy guidelines for sports performance incentives at various levels of sports performance in the country.
- b) The relevant Government authorities and in liaison with sports federations should have in-built performance reinforcer provisions in athletes' contracts for national and international athletes.
- c)

6.4.2 Suggestions for further research

It is suggested that further research be carried out to:

- a) Comparatively analyze the existing sports incentives value rating between male and female athletes with a view of establishing their differences and similarities.
- b) Comparatively analyze incentive systems in Kenya and other countries with a view of establishing differences in incentive ratings as dictated by national cultures.

- c) To investigate demographic characteristics of athletes and how they affect reward preferences.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Letter for request of subjects

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION
P.O BOX 43844
NAIROBI

14TH OCTOBER 2003

TO THE
TEAM MANAGER _____
P.O BOX _____

Dear Sir,

REQUEST FOR SUBJECTS

I am a student in Kenyatta University undertaking a Master of Science degree course specializing in physical education.

I intend to analyze extrinsic incentive value rating of selected male team, individual and combat sports athletes. Your team/ athlete has been selected for this study. The proposed study will cover various selected reinforcer variables. The results of the study will be purely used for academic purposes, and as such will be treated with high confidentiality.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

MUKHWANA KIZITO ONGALO

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION
P.O BOX 43844
NAIROBI

14TH OCTOBER 2003

TO

Dear Sir,

**RE: INFORMED CONSENT AND VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION
FORM**

I am a postgraduate student at Kenyatta University Physical and Health Education department studying Msc degree in Sports Science specifically sports psychology. I intend to ask you questions on incentive rating if you accept.

A questionnaire containing items on incentive rating will be given to you to fill. It will only take you twenty minutes to complete it.

The information given will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used for research purposes only. If you don't understand anything, you can contact the researcher for any clarification regarding any aspect of the research.

Your participation is voluntary, and that consent has been freely obtained from you and you may withdraw at any time without fear of sanction from this research. Kindly sign to confirm that you agree to participate in this research.

Consent

I have read this form and agree to participate in this research.

Sign _____ **Date** _____

APPENDIX C

Letter of introduction

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION
P.O. BOX 43844
NAIROBI.

14TH OCTOBER 2003

Dear Sir/Madam,

Re: Incentive Rating amongst Kenyan male athletes

The extrinsic incentives incentive values scales attached to this letter is specifically designed to elicit the degree to which you value each of the following extrinsic incentives listed below.

In section A, you are required to supply vital demographic information while in section B; you are required to indicate your responses by ticking the most appropriate columns, which best describe the degree to which you value the extrinsic incentives.

All responses will be strictly used for research purposes and be treated with high level of confidentiality.

Yours Sincerely,

Mukhwana Kizito.

APPENDIX D

Extrinsic incentives Incentive Values Rating Scale in sports

SECTION A

INSTRUCTIONS.

1. Do not write your name on this questionnaire
2. Answer all the questions in this questionnaire.
3. Do not make alterations or any other unnecessary marks on this questionnaire.
4. In the case of the questions requiring you to mark, please indicate one mark on every question.
5. Be honest.
6. Let your handwriting be legible in places that require writing.
7. Use a pen or pencil provided for by the researcher.
8. In case of doubt ask for clarifications from the researcher.

SECTION B

Demographic Data

1. Name of the sport.....
2. Level of performance..... (National or International)
3. Years of experience.....
4. Athletes status (Fulltime or Part-time)
5. Age.....
6. Level of education: primary.....Secondary.....College.....
University.....

APPENDIX E**Reinforcer Incentive Value Rating Scale****Questionnaire**

	Very high Incentive	High Incentive	Moderate Incentive	Low Incentive	Very low Incentive
1. EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES	5	4	3	2	1
a. Provision of jobs through sports					
b. Provision of information about jobs					
c. Negotiating or overseas vocational training or professional training on behalf of the athletes					
d. Promotion at work place					
d. Release system by which sports men and women are allowed off work by their employers for camping or training without loss of salary and other benefits.					
2. PUBLIC RECOGNITION					
a. Public recognition through mass media like national radio television, magazines and newspapers					
b. Public recognition through industrial products and advertisement.					
c. International recognition through international media like televisions, radios, magazines, newspapers and cable network Services.					
d. Hosting and reception of partners of International Sporting Calibre.					
e. Naming streets, stadia e.g. of major towns athletes province of origin or district.					
f. Conferment of honors like sportsman of the year/sportswoman.					
g. Display of athletes enlarged photograph in the wall of fame.					
h. National honors by Head of State					

	Very high Incentive	High Incentive	Moderate Incentive	Low Incentive	Very low Incentive
3. MATERIALANDMONETARY REWARD	5	4	3	2	1
a. Monetary allowances for sportsmen in camp or in training.					
b. Match bonuses/event.					
c. Material gift e.g. cars, radio etc					
d. Award of trophies and Certificates					
e. Material gift of sports equipment e.g. track suits, sporting shoes, socks etc					
f. Gift of National and International Journals of sport related literature.					
4. SCHOLARSHIP AWARDS					
a. Overseas scholarship to any tertiary Institution of athletes' choice.					
b. Scholarship award to secondary schools and /or tertiary institutions within the Country/tuition waver in schools					
c. Scholarship award to for children of athletes for both secondary and/ or tertiary institutions in an event that an athlete died or incapacitated in active service.					
d. Scholarship award for vocational training or professional training					
5. FREE MEDICAL CARE					
a. Free medical care for athletes' family members.					
b. Specialized free medical treatment					

for all athletes in case of serious injury or sudden illness.					
c. Reimbursement of money spent on treatment of athletes.					
6. INSURANCE COVERAGE					
a. Life insurance while in active service					
b. Accident insurance while in active service					
c. Compensation for properties destroyed during the course of participation					