A survey of the challenges facing management of sports in Kenya Hockey Union

By
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A research project submitted in partial fulfillment for the award of Master Degree in Business Administration Degree (Strategic Management) of Kenyatta University.

September, 2011
DECLARATION

This research project is my original work that has never been presented to any university or institution of learning for the purpose of an award of degree or diploma. Works from other sources have been duly acknowledged.

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SUPERVISOR'S APPROVAL

This project has been submitted for consideration with my approval as University Supervisor.

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This project has been submitted for consideration with my approval as chairman of the department.

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# LIST OF ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS

<table>
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<tr>
<th>AK:</th>
<th>Athletics Kenya</th>
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<tr>
<td>KAAA:</td>
<td>Kenya Amateur Athletics Association</td>
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<td>KN:</td>
<td>Kenya National Sports Council</td>
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<td>KFF:</td>
<td>Kenya Football Federation</td>
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<td>KHU:</td>
<td>Kenya Hockey Union</td>
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<td>KVF:</td>
<td>Kenya Volleyball Federation</td>
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<td>KBF:</td>
<td>Kenya Basketball Federation</td>
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<td>KRU:</td>
<td>Kenya Rugby Union</td>
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<td>MOYAS:</td>
<td>Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports</td>
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to establish the challenges faced by the management of the sports federations that hinder the development of sport in Kenya. The study sought to achieve this by finding solutions to the following research questions: what is the effect of corruption on the management of Kenya Hockey Union?; What effect does political interference have on the management of Kenya Hockey union?; does ethnicity affect the management of Kenya Hockey union?; and what economic factors affect the management of Kenya Hockey union?

The study used simple random sampling to select three officials of the sampled 23 clubs resulting into a sample size of 69 respondents. Data was collected by use of questionnaires and analysed by use of descriptive statistics. Tables, bar charts, histogram, grouped frequency distributions and pie charts were used to present the data collected for ease of understanding and analysis.

The study established that the hockey union makes long term plans and set targets for sports development. The study also established that the federations appointed qualified management staff. The federation was faced with corruption as there was no transparency in the management of funds. Although the government should be involved in running of the sports in Kenya, it should not be the sole manager of the sports. Respondents described the training they received as inadequate. Among the causes for the wrangling in the federation included tribalism, competition for control of sports funds, rivalry over position, use of sports facilities and lack of proper hierarchical arrangement in management of sports. The study recommended that all the sports federations in Kenya be audited annually to ensure accountability for the sports funds. The study recommends that the government should refrain from interfering with the running of the sports in Kenya but only come in when there is need. The study recommended that the management of the sports federations be inclusive of everyone in the society i.e. should have a national image. The study recommended that the management of funds in the sports federations be made independent from the administrative management for effectiveness.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background of the study and the statement of the problem. It further presents the general objectives, the specific objectives and the research questions. The chapter highlights the significance of the study, the scope and limitations and delimitations of the study.

1.1: Background to the Problem

The history of sport in Kenya stretches back to the period before the establishment of the British rule. During the period before colonialism, the people of Kenya were mainly involved in traditional sports, which were mainly confined within various indigenous communities, such as dance, wrestling, hunting, traditional archery and others. The period during colonialism witnessed the introduction of many of the modern sports in Kenya, some of which were played along racial lines, for example, Rugby, Hockey, Cricket, and Tennis among others. The first major competition (international) in which Kenyans of Africa origin participated and made impact was in the 1954 Vancouver, Commonwealth Games. Since then, there has been increased competition and participation by Kenyans in both local and international sports competitions. (Ministry of National Heritage and Sports, Kenya, 2002)

Immediately after independence, it was found necessary to establish an umbrella organization to co-ordinate and harmonize the already established sports organization.
The government therefore, established the Kenya National Sports Council (KNSC) in 1966 under Societies Act as a supreme sporting authority to oversee the activities of the voluntary sporting associations that had started mushrooming in the country. For many years, sports portfolio has been in several ministries within the Department of Social Services. As at independence in 1963, sport was in the Ministry of Labour and Community Development. This was followed by another change which pushed sports to the Ministry of Co-operatives Development before being moved to the Ministry of Culture and Social Services, where it stayed for long time before it finally moved to the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports (MOYAS). (Ministry of National Heritage and Sports, Kenya, 2002)

Over the years sports has evolved into a multi-billion dollar industry worldwide especially in Europe and the Americas. It has become an important sector in the economy, contributing a significant percentage of the Gross Domestic Product. The development of sports has been phenomenal especially in Europe and was valued at $216 billion in 2002 (Transparency International, 2004).

In Kenya, it has scarcely been the aim of sports associations’ officials to make it possible for sportmen and women to get their fingers into this huge pie. Today, corrupt sports administrators enjoy massive benefits from sports at the expense of sportmen and women, many of whom live and die in crushing poverty. In almost all sports, officials earn a living by simply getting elected to the associations where they sit back and enjoy trips to international congresses and the accompanying allowances. For this reason, many
Sports associations in areas such as swimming, hockey, athletics, cricket, and even the National Olympic Committee of Kenya (NOCK), have had the same officials for over 10 years, some for over 20 odd years. With constitutions that have numerous loopholes, it has not been difficult for them to perpetuate themselves in office. (Transparency International, 2004).

While the difficult prevailing economic conditions have contributed to the poor standards in local sports, it is also true the situation has been aggravated by selfish administrators who have used these organizations purely for self-aggrandizement without regard for rules and the welfare of the players, let alone the good of the sport. These have compromised the performance of the sports in Kenya to such extents as even the once regarded as a power house in the continent is going to the All African Games in Zimbabwe as underdogs (Muringisi, 2011). Sadly, hockey like other sports in Kenya has suffered through the years from corruption, mismanagement and political intrigue, resulting in the country’s failure to make any significant impact in regional, continental or global competitions.

1.2: Statement of the Problem

The creation of various institutions and organizations over the years to oversee the development of sports in Kenya has been an important step towards popularizing and enhancing sport participation and competition levels in the country. However, in spite of these commendable efforts, the sports scene in the country has not been devoid of managerial shortcomings and issues which need to be addressed (Watt, 2003). The
management of sports in the country has been facing a myriad of problems. Wrangles within the sports organizations such as Kenya Football Federation, Cricket Kenya, Athletics Kenya and Kenya Hockey Union among others have not been uncommon. These have resulted in the declining performance both at the club levels and national levels.

While various studies have been done on the management of the sports federations, they have only been a partial solution to the problems in Kenya. For instance Oketch (2005) looked at the application of governance principles by sports federations in Kenya. Kiraguri (2007) studied that the influence of sponsorship in the development of sports in Kenya. While these studies attempted to investigate the management of sports federations in Kenya, no study known to the researcher has been done on the challenges facing the management of sports federations hence a knowledge gap. It is this gap that the study was seeking to fill.

1.3: General Objective

The main objective of this study was to establish the challenges facing the management of sports in Kenya.
1.3.1: Specific Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study included the following:

a) To establish the effects of corruption on the management of the activities of Kenya Hockey Union.

b) To determine the effects of political interference on the management of the activities of Kenya Hockey union.

c) To determine whether ethnicity affected the management of the activities of Kenya Hockey union.

d) To establish the economic factors affecting the management of Kenya Hockey union.

1.4: Research Question

The following research questions were used:

a). What is the effect of corruption on the management of the activities of Kenya Hockey Union?

b). What effect does political interference have on the management of the activities of Kenya Hockey Union?

c). Does racism affect the management of the activities of Kenya Hockey Union?

d). What economic factors affect the management of the activities of Kenya Hockey Union?
1.5: Significance of the Study

The study will be of significance to the management and administration of various sports federation first to Kenya Hockey Union and to any other personnel involved in the running of other sports clubs and organizations, as they will gain insights on what ails the management of sports federations in Kenya and hence come up with better strategies to manage the sport organizations in Kenya. The government and other policy makers will benefit from the study in that they will be able develop better policies for better management of sports federations. The study will be beneficial to the academia as it will contribute literature in the area of sports management and administration. The study will also be beneficial to the general public as they will get to understand the management problems facing various sports federations. The sportsmen/women will understand the management and administrative problems in their respective federations which may have contributed to the dismal performance.

1.6: Scope of the Study

The broad aim of the study was to establish the main challenges facing sports management in Kenya. The study was limited to Kenya Hockey Union, where the study involved the clubs affiliated to the union.

1.7: Limitation of the Study

The researcher did not have control over the administration and management of the
Kenya Hockey Union. Due to the magnitude of the problem, time did not allow for exhaustive examination of the management problems in the federation. The research required that the researcher cover a wider geographical area to establish the exact challenges facing the management of KHU. Due to limited financial resources, the study was limited to selected clubs in Nairobi.

1.8: Delimitation of the Study

Only Chairpersons and Secretary Generals of Kenya Hockey Union together with the management of hockey clubs participating in the league were targeted for responses in this study.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1: Introduction

This chapter subdivided into the following subheadings: concept of sporting, effective management of Sports, challenges to sports management, and education and training of sports managers.

2.2: The Concept of Sporting

Sport has evolved to become professional like other professions enterprises and has emerged as a lucrative business, with many opportunities and challenges for sports management. As Mason (1999) argued, professional sports teams unite to produce a league product that has evolved from mere “entertainment for spectators” to being “sold to four distinct groups”: fans who support leagues by attending games, following games on television and other media, and purchasing league and team-related merchandise; communities which build facilities and support local clubs; television and other media companies who purchase the rights to show games; and corporations which support leagues and clubs by increasing gate moneys, purchasing teams outright, or providing revenues through sponsorships or other associations. Consequently, championships provide that unique opportunity for management decisions and processes to occur in a range of environments and at varied levels. Indeed professional sport has become a growing segment within the broader, global, entertainment industry (Watt, 2003).
A number of sociological approaches seek to interpret sport variously as a form of
religion (Sage, 1981); as a reflection of authority and power relationships in the society
(Edwards, 1981); as a mechanism for fostering chauvinism (Tannsjo, 2000); as an
essentially political phenomenon (Hoberman, 1984); as a heavily gendered enterprise
(Mangan et al, 1987); as a collective representation of communities (Stone, 1981). Similarly, numerous definitions of sport have been proposed – “an active pastime or
diversion” (The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 1992) or “an
athletic activity requiring skill or physical prowess and often of a competitive nature”
(Random House Webster’s College Dictionary, 1999) or as “institutionalized competitive
activities that involve vigorous physical exertion or the use of relatively complex physical
skills by individuals whose participation is motivated by a combination of internal or
external factors” (Coaxley, 1994). Each definition may be problematic depending on the
context in which sport is discussed. What appears beyond contention, however, is the
ever-present nature of sporting activity at global levels. For Frank (2003) “Sport is more
than mere activity affecting only the participants and observers. Sport is much more. Sport is powerful. Sport is everywhere. Sport has seeped into the crevices of culture in
places where we did not anticipate it would and to a level we could not have imagined.”

Almost re-phrasing Frank and alluding to the same power and pervasiveness of sport
Holder (2003) observes; “At the level of society sport, especially during the last decade,
has been a social phenomenon of considerable magnitude. It has been described as
permeating any number of levels of contemporary society, touching upon and deeply
influencing such disparate elements as status, race relations, business life, automotive designs, clothing styles, the concept of the hero, languages and ethical values."

The history of sport is arguably richer than any other form of human activity. Sport has variously developed across the world as a ceremony, a celebration, a physical pursuit, a leisure activity and now, increasingly, a business. As an illustration, consider the case of football in England: some people believe the sport emerged over centuries, therefore giving it a depth and context that are unsurpassed by any other current industrial sectors. In its earliest form, myth has it that during the Viking invasions, victorious battlers among the resident population would cut off the heads of the invaders and kick them around their villages (Lanfranchi et al, 2001). From these origins, the game most notably began to thrive during the nineteenth century in the English independent schools system, as a puritanical form of healthy activity for young men. Thereafter, the onset of the industrial revolution led both to an upsurge in the popularity of football as a diversion for the masses away from their harsh industrial lives, and to the emergence of the professional game. Throughout the twentieth century, as people’s leisure time increased and communication links improved, regular international football began, the game developed and the popularity of football began to take hold. By the turn of the century, and in the light of technological and media change, regulatory influence from bodies such as the European Union, internationalization and globalization, and the prevalence of free market economics, business oriented thinking began to pervade across a large number of sports. Beech (2004) has generally characterized such an overall transition as having being comprised of seven phases: foundation, codification, stratification,
professionalization, post-professionalisation, commercialization; and post-commercialization.

While English football is not necessarily typical of all developments across the sporting world, it does help to show a very important characteristic of sport: that it is deeply socio-culturally embedded, which creates highly distinctive, and often unique, challenges for sport managers (Dobson et al, 2001). When we consider one of the current developments evident in sport, we can see that in the intensity of fan loyalty to certain sports brands, managers simultaneously face the juxtaposition of major commercial and managerial opportunities and the constraints of history and heritage. Many other brand managers can do little more than crave the strength of loyalty, affiliation and identification displayed by some sports fans towards “their team”. The problem is, in seeking to target new customers, secure new market entry, or build a global fan base, such loyalties often pose a serious challenge to what business managers might normally expect to achieve in such branding activities elsewhere in industry. For academic researchers too, there are consequences for them in sport’s socio-cultural embeddedness. In philosophical terms, serious questions must be raised about whether sport business management is a rational economic activity. Such an observation is borne out by the involvement of corporate benefactors in sport across the world, and the continuing predilection of some executives for engaging in sport sponsorship on the basis of the “hobby motive”. This implies that sport management is as likely to have a social-psychological foundation as much as it does an economic one.
2.3: Effective Management of Sports

As yet though, the management literature has not got to grips with such a fundamental debate. Indeed, an overall sport management paradigm has yet to meaningfully emerge, while prevailing generic management theory/practice is often parachuted in to sport in order to explain what are often highly untypical situations (Watt, 2003). While it might be too early or too naive (or actually completely unnecessary) to propose that we need a general theory of sport management, a greater understanding of sport management’s philosophical foundations is required. The allusion being made here is that sport management is actually different to mainstream management, that somehow the knowledge base, skill set and practice of management is distinct from managing in other sectors. Such an allusion is not unintentional, begging the question: what makes sport so different to management in other industrial sectors? In short, sport managers are in the business of uncertainty; as Neale (1964) noted, the essence of sport is the uncertainty of outcome associated with a contest between two individuals or teams. That is, one never really knows who is going to win the game, the race or the championship, and this is what draws so many people, groups and organizations to sport, each for their own reasons. The heritage of uncertainty in sport can be traced from Neale’s work through to more recent work published by people such as Downward et al, (2000).

Although the psychology of uncertainty has received attention in the literature (for instance, Grether, 1978; Morgan, 1978), we do not seem to know how or why watching an uncertain contest may lead one to become a lifetime fan or affiliate of, say, a rugby team. For countries and sports that do not operate a franchise model, a particularly
interesting debate would also be the relationship between uncertainty and the geographic identity that is implicitly bound up sports fan's decision to "support" a team. If uncertainty of outcome constitutes the fundamental basis of sport, then preserving the strength of uncertainty becomes the essence of sport management. Once more, it has been economists who have led the way, competitive balance being advocated as the central element of maintaining competitive balance (for instance, see Fort et al, 1992). Established debate has tended to consider the relative merits of highly regulated models (synonymous with United States sport) in which salary caps, draft picks and franchise location are used to maintain uncertainty, versus more laissez-faire approaches where sport independently functions and issues of uncertainty are addressed through the periodic interventions of governing bodies. Such interventions implicitly direct us to a management challenge that has thus far received scant attention in the literature. That is, how games, leagues, competitions and tournaments can be managed to ensure that uncertainty, balance and, indeed, equity are promoted (Downward et al, 2000).

There is evidence both of new sports (e.g. Indian Premier League cricket) being managed to fulfill these principles, and of existing sports (e.g. recent rule changes in Formula One motor racing) being managed by governing bodies in response to competitive pressures by, for instance, changing points structures or qualifying formats. However, both of these approaches have either been predicated on US-type models or have been reactive in nature. The management and structuring of contests really needs to become higher profile, with a greater emphasis on progressive, proactive and strategic management, as
The way in which contest management might ascend to a new level of importance is an interesting issue in itself. Even in sport where more commercial modes of operation are evident, the sport themselves has historically been product-led. In other words, it has been what happens on the field of play, the athletes involved in this and the management of them, that have largely dictated the product offering (Downward et al, 2000). This explains why in many sports, fans and customers often appear as being subservient to teams, clubs and governing bodies. In many respects, this must continue, especially given the importance of the finite resource that is talented athletes. However, the notion that sport should become a more market-led industry is an interesting one. This immediately implies a clear split between managing on-field and off-field activities. For off-field activities, such as stadium/capacity utilization, the relevance of being led by the market place is both more obvious and more justifiable. In the case mentioned, utilizing stadium capacity is both a financial and an ethical imperative: how to make best use of a valuable finite resource and one that can potentially generate important revenue flows (Beech, 2004).

2.4: Challenges to Sports Management

The argument that on-field activities should have a stronger market focus is rather more challenging; if no unpalatable for some. Contest management has already been highlighted as the biggest challenge facing managers, which can clearly be driven by the demands of a dynamic, rapidly changing industry. Yet developments that challenge the
The fundamental nature of sport pose much greater managerial problem. The failure of extreme Football in the USA, where World Wrestling Entertainment re-packaged American Football in order to target new consumers, is a case in point (Willoughby et al, 2003). In a similar vein, a proposal made by US officials prior to the FIFA World Cup in 1994, that goal sizes should be increased to enhance the appeal of soccer to consumers, was dismissed by football purists. The tension in sport between product and market is therefore an important one, and understanding the nature of their inter-relational dynamics is significant for researchers and practitioners alike. Central to this understanding would surely be the question: should sport be market-led, or should the product always come first?

Although uncertainty is the fundament of sport and contest management a means of preserving it, neither can exist without a third element: competitors. Without one or more individuals, teams or groups, the execution of sport would be impossible (and sport would cease to be sport, and simply be a leisure pursuit). Central to managing the successful execution of sporting contests is the notion that individuals/teams/groups will need to coordinate their activities (Maguire et al, 2000). This is a further feature that marks out sport as being significantly different to other industries, as sport organizations actively need to engage with one another in order to fulfill their central purpose. The notion of collaborating to compete is something that has been acknowledged across a range of literatures and sectors since the late 1980s (Bleeke et al, 1993). However, the heritage of sport in this regard was established far longer ago. Yet despite the imperative of joint action, sporting contests have yet to be considered as a form of collaboration,
collaborate in the scheduling of contests is one important issue for researchers to address, especially if uncertainty (and the attendant tensions associated with it) is to be maximised for the full duration of, for example, a tournament or a season.

One form of collaboration is Scheduling, there are many other forms including: teams collaborating with one another as part of a league, both for individual and collective benefit (such as the National Basketball Association); and teams collaborating across international boundaries (such as the alliance between Arsenal FC and Colorado Rapids football teams) (Maguire et al., 2000). Identifying the full range of collaborative arrangements, the specific nature of them, the management issues they raise and the intended/actual outcomes of such arrangements are all important issues that have yet to receive detailed attention from researchers. Clearly there are opportunities for researchers to apply generic models of collaboration in a sporting context. However, in the light of the juxtaposition of uncertainty, collaboration and competition, there would also appear to be a tremendous case for establishing a sport-specific approach to the notion of collaborating to compete (Maguire et al., 2000).

2.5: Ethnicity

To begin with, ethnicity may be defined as "the employment or mobilization of ethnic identity and difference to gain advantage in situations of competition, conflict or cooperation" (Osaghae 1995). This definition is preferred because it identifies two issues that are central to discussions on ethnicity. The first is that ethnicity is neither natural nor
accidental, but is the product of a conscious effort by social actors. The second is that ethnicity is not only manifest in conflictive or competitive relations but also in the contexts of cooperation (Lonsdale 1994, Mamdani 1996). A corollary to the second point is that ethnic conflict manifests itself in various forms, including voting, community service and violence. Thus, it need not always have negative consequences. Ethnicity also encompasses the behaviour of ethnic groups. Ethnic groups are groups with ascribed membership, usually but not always based on claims or myths of common history, ancestry, language, race, religion, culture and territory. While all these variables need not be present before a group is so defined, the important thing is that such a group is classified or categorised as having a common identity that distinguishes it from others. It is this classification by powerful agencies such as the state, religious institutions and the intelligentsia such as local ethnic historians that objectifies the ethnic group, often setting in motion processes of self-identification or affirmation and recognition by others. Thus, ethnicity is not so much a matter of ‘shared traits or cultural commonalities’, but the result of the interplay between external categorization and self-identification (Brubaker et al, 2004).

Very little research using public sector organizational data has assessed the impact of diversity on performance outcomes (Wise et al, 2000). With regard to ethnicity as a social phenomenon, the bulk of research comes from psychologists, sociologists, and those interested in education policy (Phinney, 1996). Many characterize research on ethnic diversity in organizations as being relatively lacking, although it is much more prevalent in organizational behavior or “generic management” research than in the public sector
literature (Nkomo, 1992). Some researchers have characterized research on diversity as moving away from a focus on ethnicity and closer to interest in functional and educational diversity (Williams et al., 1998), but a recent meta-analysis found that performance studies using an ethnicity variable outnumbered studies of any other diversity dimension (Wise et al., 2002). It remains clear, however, that there is much to be understood about how diversity operates, specifically in the public-sector context.

2.6: Corruption

There is great debate today about how to properly define corruption and of what use the various definitions play in our understanding of the phenomenon. The most common definition involves private gain via public authority: the abuse of public power for private benefit or profit. This is the working definition that many world organizations use in discussing corruption, including the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, and Transparency International (Webster, 2001). It is also, we should note, an attempt to define corruption universally and without regard to a specific culture. To refine this, corruption is literally a transaction. Much of the academic research, particularly from the economic perspective, emphasizes this approach. Corrupt transactions occur at the intersection of the public and private sectors. Rose-Ackerman (1978), laid emphasis on the interface between public finance and private profit. The goal in this viewpoint is to isolate the *quid pro quo* nature of transactions between agents to understand the economic effects and "suggest how legal and institutional reforms might curb the harms and improve the efficiency and fairness of government".
The classical definition of corruption is often attributed to Nye (1967) as “behaviour that deviates from the formal duties of a public role (elective or appointive) because of private-regarding (personal, close family, private clique) wealth or status gains” (Nye 1967). Khan (1996) offers that corruption is “behaviour that deviates from the formal rules of authority because of private-regarding motives such as wealth, power, or status”. Corruption, then, may exceed legal boundaries and become a question of morality, following this logic naturally.

Often, the definition of corruption is tied to a particular style or category of the occurrence as a whole. For example, the distinction between systemic or institutionalized corruption and private or petty payoffs is seen as defining the study and understanding of the impact of corruption on state and society (Rose-Ackerman 2006). Another naming convention often used as a substitute for corruption is “rent seeking.” Rent seeking, however, is really a category of corruption: it defines an economic transaction based on a value (Kunicova et al, 2005). In other words, rent is in excess of all relevant costs. As such, rent seeking may not always be considered immoral or illegal but is often inefficient.

Corruption is an issue that constantly crops up in top level sports. 2010 was yet another year blighted by corruption scandals, most notably in Cricket with a betting scandal involving three Pakistani cricketers, leading to their suspension. 2011 has opened with scandals of match fixing in sumo-wrestling and the suspension of a Premier League Footballer over drug misuse, and there will undoubtedly be more to come. The Olympic
movement is one that has continually faced issues of corruption since its conception. This issue is one that Pierre de Coubertin was well aware of in establishing the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in 1894, and by establishing the Olympic Charter he hoped to prevent the apparent evils such as corruption from his Olympic movement.

Sport stands as an important societal institution and is considered as important in relaying ideals, norms and values on to those who participate or spectate. Indeed, the inception of the modern Olympic Games was in part an attempt to revive the games with the basis of reforming and highlighting these sporting ethics. ‘Corruption’ is a term that is wide and varied in its definition. In its simplest form, corruption has been defined as ‘dishonest and illegal behaviour (Nieuwenboer et al, 2008) And as ‘the misuse of authority for personal, subunit and/or organisational gain’. Similarly, Treisman (2000) defines it as the “misuse of public office for private gain”.

In investigating corruptive behaviour of sports officials and within the governance of sport, these definitions are well suited (Chardwick et al, 2010). An example of this form is the bidding process for the 2002 Winter Olympics, won by Salt Lake City amidst claims of corruption of officials. However, in identifying corruption within the context of a sporting contest, Chadwick et al, 2010) provide the definition of corruption as involving: “any illegal, immoral or unethical activity that attempts to deliberately distort the result of a sporting contest for the personal material gain of one or more parties involved in that activity”
Corruption in sport is not a new phenomenon. At the Olympic Games in 388BC, Eupolos Thessalia bribed three of his competitors in a fighting tournament, allowing him to win (Maening, 2005). The modern Olympic movement has also continually fought against corruption and had to change its values in order to attempt to keep it out of the Games. Amateurism is a philosophy that the Olympic movement owes its foundation to, as Coubertin originally established the Paris Congress of June 1894 to discuss the issue of amateurism (Young, 1996), and only later did the revival of the Olympic Games join the discussion. The result of the meeting was a strict code of amateurism was established along this guideline for what constitutes a professional: ‘Any individual who has never participated in a competition open to all comers, nor completed for a cash prize, or for a prize of any amount of money regarding of its source, specifically from admissions to the field-or with professionals-and who had never been, at any time in his life, a teacher or paid instructor in physical exercise’ (De Coubertin, 1997).

2.7: Conceptual Framework

A concept is a basic idea. It is an idea that is generally abstract and universal rather than concrete and specific. It is basic in the sense that it cannot be easily explained in terms of other ideas or equated to other ideas. In terms of ideas then, a concept is a basic building block that captures the essence of a thing, Denscombe, (1999). A conceptual framework is a formal way of thinking (i.e. conceptualizing) about a process/system under study.
The dependant variable is the effective sports management while independent variables are stable economic factors and zero tolerance of corruption, political interference and racism in sports management. These have been discussed in details in the previous paragraphs. This framework is illustrated in the diagram below;

**Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zero tolerance of political interference in sports management</td>
<td>Sports Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zero tolerance of Corruption in sports management</td>
<td>- Accountability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal treatment of all in spite of race, gender, economic status, etc in sports management</td>
<td>- Improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stable Economic factors</td>
<td>- Efficient management of national leagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Efficient management of national teams</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2011)

2.8: Chapter Summary

The literature review has highlighted the challenges facing the management of sports. Some of the challenges include ethnicity which has also been referred to in the study as diversity. The literature however revealed that studies on the performance of organization have been scarce. Literature has also revealed that the management of sports federations has not been devoid of corruption.
CHAPTER THREE  
METHODOLOGY  

3.1: Introduction  
This chapter focuses on the description of the procedures that was used in carrying out the study. It covers design of study, target population sampling, procedure, research instruments, data collection procedures and analysis techniques.  

3.2: Research Design  
This was a descriptive survey aimed at determining the challenges facing sports management in Kenya. According to Cooper (1996), a descriptive study is concerned with finding out who, what, where and how of a phenomenon which are the concern of this study. The purpose of descriptive research design is to describe the state of affairs as it is at present (Kothari, 2009). It provides data about the population being studied; it is used when the objective is to provide a systematic description that is as factual and accurate as possible.  

3.3: Target Population  
A population is the total collection of elements from which we wish to make some inference (Kothari, 2009). The target populations of the study was all the 93 officials of the 31 hockey clubs participating in national league in Kenya (see appendix 1).
3.4: Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The study purposively sampled 23 hockey clubs based in Nairobi. The study then used simple random sampling to select three officials from each of the sampled clubs. This resulted into a sample size of 69.

3.5: Research Instrument

Primary data was collected by use of questionnaires constructed by the researcher with the help of the supervisors. The use of a questionnaire was selected because it was convenient in obtaining the answers from the respondent. A questionnaire enables the researcher get first hand information about the work situation. It also provides an opportunity for anonymity to promote high response rate.

3.6: Pilot Study

Prior to collection of the actual data, pilot-testing of questionnaires was done to test the accuracy of language and meaning and to test whether the respondents understand the questions. The pilot study used sports disciplines, which were under study. It looked at the University sports department during the pilot study.

3.7: Data Collection Procedure

Permission was sought from the Ministry of Education as well as from the Kenya Sports Council to be able to collect data from the various target federations. Drop and pick method was used to administer the questionnaires to the officials. Respondents were asked to fill the questionnaire and return them to the researcher.
3.8: Data Analysis

The data collected from the field was coded and entered into the computer for analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics frequency distribution and percentages was used to analyse the data. This was presented using graphs, pie charts and tables and a final report compiled for presentation containing the recommendations and conclusions of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATIONS AND FINDINGS

4.1: Introduction

The previous chapter discussed research methodology used in the study. In this chapter data pertaining to the effect of corruption on the management, the effects of political interference on the management, the effect of ethnicity on the management and the effect of economic factors on the management of activities at Kenya Hockey union has been analyzed and interpreted in figures and tables. The findings are presented in the subsequent subsections.

4.2: Response Rate

A total of 69 respondents (hockey club officials) were given questionnaires. Out of this, 50 respondents responded by completing and returning the questionnaires. This gave an adequate response rate of 72%.

4.3: Demographic Data

In this section respondents were asked to indicate their gender, age, position/designation, marital status, level of education and duration at the club.
4.3.1: Distribution of Respondents by Gender

The respondents were asked to indicate their gender. According to the findings presented in Figure 4.1, majority (60%) of the respondents were male while 40% were female. This is an indication that the leadership of hockey clubs in the country are male dominated. However, the results show that the representation of the gender distribution does not go against the constitution which states that the composition of management of club or organization should not be more than two thirds of one gender.

Figure 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Gender

![Pie chart showing gender distribution with 60% male and 40% female.]

Source: Author (2011)

4.3.2: Distribution of Respondents by Position

The study sought to establish the distribution of hockey club officials by positions. As shown in Figure 4.2, 50% were assistant secretary general while 30% of the respondents were chairmen.
Figure 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Position

Source: Author (2011)

4.3.3: Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status

Respondents were asked to state their marital status. The results are presented in Table 4.1 show that majority of respondents (80%) indicated that they were married. Only 10% showed that they were single. The results is interpreted to mean that most officials at the hockey clubs are married.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Windowed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2011)
4.3.4: Distribution of Respondents by Highest Educational level

The respondents were asked to indicate their highest level of education in the club. According to Figure 4.3, 56% of the respondents indicated that they had attained post secondary college education and 40% indicated that they had university education. The results may be interpreted to mean that the officials of the clubs are highly educated.

**Figure 4.3: Distribution of Respondents by Highest Educational level**

![Bar chart showing distribution of respondents by educational level](image)

Source: Author (2011)

4.3.5: Distribution by Age Bracket

The study sought to establish the respondents’ distribution by age bracket. In relation to the findings presented in Figure 4.4, most (52%) respondents were in the age bracket of 31 and 40 while 20% were in the age category of 41 and 50 years. The results of the study can be interpreted to mean that most respondents were in their middle ages, while a sizable proportion were in their advanced ages. Only a handful of the club officials are in their youthful years.
4.3.6: Distribution by Duration at the club

The study sought to establish the duration the respondents have been at the club. According to the results presented in Figure 4.5, 44% of the respondents had been in the club for between 11 and 20 years while 36% had been in their current between 5 and 10 years. The study may be interpreted to indicate that majority of the officials had worked for the club for many years.

Figure 4.5: Distribution by Duration at the club

Source: Author (2011)
4.4: Challenges facing Management of Sports

In this section the study sought to establish factors affecting the management of sports federations in Kenya. The findings are presented in the subsequent sections.

4.4.1: Extent to which the following factors contributed to effective management of sports

The respondents were asked to indicate to what extent various factors contributed to the effective management the confederation in Kenya. According to the data findings presented in Table 4.2, 78% of the respondents indicated that to a large extent the federation makes long-term plans and sets targets for sports development. The study further established that 80% of the respondents indicated that to a large extent the federation reviewed its organization structure. The study results show that majority of the respondents (88%) indicated that to a large extent the federation elected and appointed qualified persons for effective management. The findings of the study revealed that according to 78% of the respondents, the federation to a large extent organized training for its management staff. The study established that according to 86% of the respondents, the federation was to a large extent guided by the national sports policy from where it derived its guiding principles. The findings show that most of the respondents (34%) indicated that there was very minimal transparency in the management of sports funds in the federation while according to 36%, the transparency in the management of funds was described as moderate. The study showed 42% of the respondents indicated that the government should only be involved to a moderate extent in the management of the
federation for effective management of the sport. The respondents were however opposed to the idea that the government be involved exclusively in the management of the sports as 40% indicated that this should only be so to a moderate extent while 30% indicated that this should never be the case. Finally the study results show that majority of the respondents (56%) indicated that to a large extent, improvement in the remuneration of sports managers would contribute to effective management of the sports in Kenya. The study can be interpreted to mean that the mentioned factors should be adopted by the management of sports federation in Kenya for effective management of sports affairs.

Table 4.2: Extent to which the following factors contributed to effective management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>No extent (%)</th>
<th>Small extent (%)</th>
<th>Moderate extent (%)</th>
<th>Large extent (%)</th>
<th>Very large extent (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Making long-term plans and setting targets for sports development</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revision of the sports organization structure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Election and appointment of qualified management staff</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training of sports management staff</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formulation and implementation of a national sports policy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of the constitutions of the Federations</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency in management of sports funds</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports to be run exclusively by government</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusion of government from running of sports so that voluntary sports organization can do the job</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement in the remuneration of sports managers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2011)
4.4.2: Level of Training of the Officials of the Federations

The respondents were asked to state their view on the level of training of officials of the federation. According to the findings presented in Figure 4.6, most respondents (62%) indicated that the training was inadequate while according to 24% of the respondents, the levels of training were adequate. The results could be interpreted to mean that the management of the federation does not receive adequate training for effective management of sport in Kenya.

Figure 4.6: Level of training of officials of sports federations

Source: Author (2011)

4.4.3: Factors Leading to Wrangles in Sport Federations in Kenya

The study sought to establish the extent to which various factors have led to wrangles in the Kenya Hockey Union. According to the results presented in Table 4.3 most respondents (78%) indicated that to a large extent indicated that tribalism contributed to the wrangles being witnessed in the federation. The study results indicated that most of
respondents (54%) indicated that to a large rivalry over leadership positions has caused wrangles in the federation. Another factor according to 72% of the respondents was the competition for access to sports funds. The study further established that 56% of the respondents indicated to a large extent the need for inclusion in foreign sports trips had led to wrangles in the federation. The study results show that most of the respondents indicated that the differences between the experts in the management and the generalists only caused wrangles to a moderate extent. However according to 36% of the respondents, these differences to a large extent caused wrangles in the federation. The findings further showed that to a large extent differences over the use of sports facilities was indicated by majority of respondents (50%) led to wrangles in sports. The study further indicated that 32% of the respondents indicated that the use of inappropriate/outdated constitutions has not in any way led to wrangles in the federation. The study again established that 30% of the respondents indicated that lack of sports law in the country did not in any way lead to wrangles in the federation. The findings also show that that government intervention in sports matters did not lead in any way to wrangles in the sports. The study sought as well to find out the extent to which differences over the way national teams are selected lead to wrangles in sports. As indicated by the results, majority of the respondents (52%) to a large extent indicated that indeed it leads to wrangling. The results indicated that lack of proper hierarchical arrangement in management of sports lead to wrangles in sports to a large extent (88%). The study finally found out that according to 42% of the respondents differences over personal issues did not lead in any way to the wrangling in sports.
Table 4.3: Extent to which the following factors lead to wrangles in sports federations in Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>No extent (%)</th>
<th>Small extent (%)</th>
<th>Moderate extent (%)</th>
<th>Large extent (%)</th>
<th>Very large extent (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tribalism</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivalry over leadership positions</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition for access to sports funds</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for inclusion in foreign sports trips</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differences between experts in management and generalists.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference over the use of sports facilities</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of inappropriate/outdated constitutions</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of sports law in the country</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government interventions in sports matters</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differences over the way national teams are selected.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of proper hierarchical arrangement in management of sports</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference over personal issues</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2011)

4.4.5: The Factor that is Mostly Crucial to Effective Management of Sports

The respondents were asked indicate the factor that is most crucial to effective management of sports by various sports federations in Kenya. As illustrated in Figure 4.7, 30% of respondents indicated that election and appointment of qualified personnel is
mostly crucial for effective management of sport federation in Kenya. The study also revealed that 20% of the respondents indicated that it was the formulation and implementation of the national sports policy that is crucial for effective sports management. As presented the results could be interpreted to mean that the election and appointments of qualified personnel is the most crucial factor to effective management of sports in Kenya.

Figure 4. 7: The factor that is mostly crucial to effective management of sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distribution of Respondents (%)</th>
<th>Formulation and implementation of a national sports policy.</th>
<th>Election and appointment of qualified management personnel.</th>
<th>Review of the constitutions of the various sports federations.</th>
<th>Enaction of sports Law in Kenya.</th>
<th>Review of the organizational structure of sports management in Kenya</th>
<th>Training of sports management Personnel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2011)
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1: Introduction

In the previous chapter data from the field was analysed and the findings presented in tables and figures. In this chapter the findings are summarized and conclusions made followed by recommendations for the management. The study also makes recommendations for further research.

5.2: Summary

The study established that according to 34% of the respondents to a large extent the management of the sports funds lacked transparency which according to 36% of the respondents indicated that transparency in the management of the funds was only there to a moderate extent. The study established that according to 72% of the respondents among the main factor that lead to the wrangles in the federation was the competition for access to the sports funds.

The study indicated that 30% of the respondents indicated that although the government’s participation in the running of the sports was welcomed, the government was not permitted to exclusively manage the sports and respondents therefore felt that government support is only needed at some stage but is not to interfere with the running of the management of the federations. The study established that according to 54% of the
respondents the wrangling in the federation was as a result of rivalry over leadership positions by the management.

The study sought to establish the extent to which various factors lead to wrangles in sports federation in Kenya. According to the results, most respondents (60%) to a large extent indicated that tribalism lead to wrangles in sports federation while 38% indicated to a very large extent that ethnicity has led to wrangling in the sports federation. The study sought as well to find out the extent to which differences over the way national teams are selected lead to wrangles in sports.

The fact that competition for access to sports funds was indicated by respondents to a large extent (54%) as a factor that lead to wrangles in sports while 28% indicated to a very large extent that it leads to wrangles, is a clear indication that economic factors influence the management of sports federations in Kenya.

5.3: Conclusion

The study established that the hockey union makes long term plans and set targets for sports development. The organization as well reviewed its organizational structure to make the management relevant. The study also established that the federations appointed qualified management staff. However, the federation was faced with corruption as there was no transparency in the management of funds. Respondents also indicated that although the government should be involved in running of the sports in Kenya, it should not be the sole manager of the sport. Respondents recommended improvement of the
remuneration for those in charge of the management of sports in Kenya. Respondents described the training they received as inadequate. Among the causes for the wrangling in the federation included tribalism, competition for control of sports funds, rivalry over position, use of sports facilities and lack of proper hierarchical arrangement in management of sports.

5.4: Recommendations

The study established that one of the challenges facing the management of sports federation in Kenya was corruption. The study recommends that all the sports federations in Kenya be audited annually to ensure accountability for the sports funds. The study also recommends that the government should make policy that will ensure there is accountability for the sports funds in the federations.

The study established that although the respondents were of the opinion that the government should be involved in the running of sports in Kenya, they indicated that it should not interfere. The study recommends that the government should refrain from interfering with the running of the sports in Kenya but only come in when there is need.

Ethnicity was one factor which featured as the major reasons for wrangling in the sports federation in Kenya. The study recommends that the management of the sports federations be inclusive of everyone in the society i.e. should have a national image.
Control over the management of the funds was cited by the respondents as the main reason for the wrangles in the federations. The study recommends that the management of funds in the sports federations be made independent from the administrative management for effectiveness.

5.5: Areas for future research

This study focused on the Kenya Hockey Union, its therefore recommended that similar studies be carried out at other sports federation in the country for comparison purposes.
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www.sportingchronicle.com/premierleaguewinners.html
APPENDIX 1: HOCKEY CLUBS IN KENYA

Men’s Premier Table
1 Strathmore
2 Green Sharks
3 Kenya Police
4 Nairobi Simba Union
5 USIU-
6 KCA University
7 Kisumu Simba
8 Western Jaguars
9 Wazalendo
10 Karate Axiom
12 Mvita XI
11 Parkroad

National Men’s Table
1 Nakuru
2 Multimedia University
3 Parklands Spots Club
4 Kimath University
5 Kenya Navy
6 Mombasa Sports Club
7 JKUAT
8 Kenya polytechnic
9 University of Nairobi
10 Mombasa Institute
11 Daystar University
12 NYS
13 Nairobi Gymkhana

Women Premier Table
1 Telkom Orange
2 Strathmore University
3 U.S.I.U-A
4 Vikings
5 Mombasa Sports Club
6 Sliders
7 Daystar University
APPENDIX 2: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

June, 2011

Dear Respondent,

REQUEST FOR RESEARCH DATA

I am a Master of Business Administration (MBA) student at Kenyatta University. I am required to submit as part of my course work assessment, a research project report on the challenges facing sports management in Kenya: the case of Kenya Hockey Union. I am kindly requesting you to assist me in this study by filling the attached questionnaire to the best of your ability as it applies to your institution.

Please be assured that the information you provide will be used solely for academic purposes and all responses will remain confidential.

Thank you very much for your time.

Doreen Anyango Odhiambo,
Student researcher
APPENDIX 3: QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data on the challenges facing sports management in Kenya. Kindly answer by ticking in the provided boxes {✓} or by writing a brief statement in the open-ended spaces provided.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TOP MANAGERS OF CLUBS/ ASSOCIATION

1. Name of the club/ institution affiliated to the Kenya Hockey Union

2. Please indicate your gender:
   A. Male
   B. Female
   C. Other (Specify)

3. What is your position in the sports federation from the following?
   A. Chairman
   B. Secretary General
   C. Secretary General
   D. Assistant Secretary-General

4. What is your marital status?
   A. Single
   B. Married
   C. Divorced
   D. Windowed
   E. Other (Specify)

5. What is your highest level of education from the following?
   A. Primary School level
   B. “O” Level (form one to four)
   C. “A” Level (form five to six)
   D. Post-secondary College level
6. What is your age from the following age categories?
A. 25 years and below
B. 26-30 years
C. 31 – 40 years
D. 41 – 50 years
E. Over 50 years

7. For how long have you been an official in your Sports Federation?
A. Less than 1 year
B. 1- 4 years
C. 5 - 10 years
D. 11 - 20 years
E. Over 20 years

8. Indicate to what extent the following factors can contribute to effective management of sports in Kenya on a scale of 1 - 5 where 1 means no extent and 5 very large extent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Making long-term plans and setting targets for sports development.</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. Revision of the sports organization structure.</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. Election and appointment of qualified management staff.</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. Training of sports management staff.</td>
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<tr>
<td>e. Formulation and implementation of a national sports policy.</td>
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<tr>
<td>f. Review of the constitutions of various Sports Federations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>g. Transparency in management of sports funds.</td>
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<tr>
<td>h. Sports to be run exclusively by government.</td>
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<tr>
<td>i. Exclusion of government from running of sports so that voluntary sports organization can do the job.</td>
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<tr>
<td>j. Improvement in the remuneration of sports managers.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
9. What is your view about the level of training of officials of sports federations in Kenya?
A. Very adequate
B. Adequate
C. Inadequate
D. Very inadequate

10. In your view, to what extent do the following factors lead to wrangles in sports federations in Kenya on a scale of 1 - 5 where 1 means very much and 5 not at all?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Tribalism</td>
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<tr>
<td>ii. Rivalry over leadership positions</td>
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<tr>
<td>iii. Competition for access to sports funds</td>
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<td>iv. Need for inclusion in foreign sports trips</td>
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<td>v. Differences between experts in management and generalists.</td>
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<td>vi. Difference over the use of sports facilities</td>
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<td>vii. Use of inappropriate/outhdated constitutions</td>
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<td>viii. Lack of sports law in the country</td>
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<td>ix. Government interventions in sports matters</td>
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<td>x. Differences over the way national teams are selected.</td>
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<tr>
<td>xi. Lack of proper hierarchical arrangement in the management of sports.</td>
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<tr>
<td>xii. Difference over personal issues</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

11. Indicate which factor is most crucial to effective management of sports by various Sports federations in Kenya (Tick only One)
   a. Formulation and implementation of a national sports policy.
   b. Election and appointment of qualified management personnel.
c. Review of the constitutions of the various sports federations.
d. Enaction of sports Law in Kenya.
e. Review of the organizational structure of sports management in Kenya
f. Training of sports management Personnel.

If any other, please specify------------------
### APPENDIX 4: RESEARCH BUDGET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>COST (KSHS)</th>
<th>KSHS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Writing Materials</td>
<td>5,000/=</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Typing of Proposal</td>
<td>3,000/=</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) Typing of final report</td>
<td>5,000/=</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) Printing services</td>
<td>5,000/=</td>
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<tr>
<td>e) Proposal spiral binding</td>
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<tr>
<td>f) Final report binding</td>
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<tr>
<td>g) Computer Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>h) Data analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>i) Miscellaneous</td>
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<td>Sub total</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
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</table>
APPENDIX 5: RESEARCH TIME FRAME

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparation of research proposal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Presentation of proposal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Data collection</td>
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<tr>
<td>Data analysis and compilation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Writing of the report and presentation of report</td>
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<tr>
<td>Final Submission of Report</td>
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