MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS THAT AFFECT PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS' PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZED SPORT IN SHINYALU DIVISION OF KAKAMEGA DISTRICT, KENYA.

BY

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

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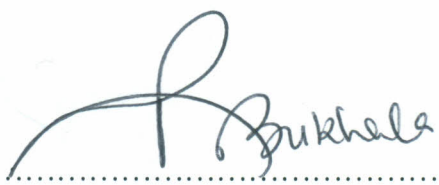

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family, Belinda Torrance, Dina Merlin, Cyrus Bulinda and Lenora Lutiali.

> "… Seek ye first the kingdom of God, and his righteousness
> and all these things shall be added unto you (Matthew 6:33)"

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated motivational factors that affect pupil's participation in organized sport in Shinyalu Division of Kakamega District. The research examined the most important factors in youth sport, which included interest in sport, perceptions of success in sport and perceptions of failure in sport. Data were collected by survey, which was conducted in nine schools in Shinyalu Division of Kakamega District. The study sample consisted of 20 pupils from each school, five boys and five girls from class 5 and also five boys and five girls from class 6. Three schools from Shinyalu Division were used for pilot study, but did not feature in the main study. Pupils responded to a questionnaire that focused on three salient factors in children sports, that is; interest in sports, success in sports and failure in sports. The questionnaire, with a three point Likert scale required pupils to tick either "Agree', "Not sure" or "Disagree". Data obtained from the research instrument were analyzed using frequencies, percentages and Chi-square. Findings of the study were as follows:

The reported interest of pupils in sport was high, 81.7% of the pupils' agreed to train for selection in the school team. Many of the pupils' (88.3%) agreed that by more training, they will do better in sports. Pupils' reported being attracted to sport for a variety of reasons where learning the sport skills (78.3%) was the core reason. Pupil's reported that they will participate in sport regardless of the results, where never

win as a setback to participation in sport had 34.4%. It was reported that participation of pupil's in sports was limited by physiological reasons like exhaustion (63.9%), hunger (47.7% and injuries (62.2%). Pupil's reported that they like playing in a free environment with less restriction like influence of teachers (35.0%) and sport captains (32.8%).

From the above findings, the following recommendations were made:

1. Teachers and all those concerned with children sports should maintain and increase children's interest in sports.
2. Teachers and those concerned with children sports should tap, nurture and develop the talent of children.
3. To increase children's participation and performance in sports, emphasis should be laid on the learning aspect of sport, and the other factor will be attained.
4. While offering sport activities to children, all factors which limit participation should be monitored and controlled to avoid withdrawal from sports.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Problem

The need for children to play cannot be downplayed. This is because play is very important to the physical, affective and cognitive development of children (Corbin, 1987; Hottinger, 1992; Piaget, 1954). Many educationists have singled out play as one of the key elements in the learning of children. The ideas of learning through discovery, learning by doing and learning through movement have been proclaimed throughout the ages by educators like Socrates, Locke, Rouseau and Dewey (Bucher & Wuest, 1995).

Importance of children play was documented by Piaget, the Swiss psychologist and perhaps the foremost authority on intellectual development in the last century. Piaget developed a theoretical framework of successive stages of intellectual growth that a child passes through on the way towards mature intelligence (Flavell, 1966). In this framework, play featured prominently as a medium for learning. Marie Montessori's work also had an impact on childhood education (Hottinger, 1992). She recognized a sensory motor period as the base to subsequent stages of intellectual development. Also,

she realized that the acquisition of motor skills is a crucial ingredient in the young child's understanding and adjustment to the world of persons, things and ideas.

Apart from the intellectual development, physiological growth and psychological development are equally important to children. Proponents of these domains suggest that there is a positive change physiologically and psychologically with participation in physical exercise (Bean, 1985; Howe, 1985). Several authors have in this regard demonstrated that active children showed higher levels of oxygen uptake (Corbin, 1987), improved physical performance measures (Bailey, 1973; Kinoti, 1997) and lower body fat (Lindsey, 1987). These studies have consistently been repeated by other scientists like Cooper (1991) and Corbin & Lindsey (1990) and the results have been similar.

The importance of physical activity to psychological development has also been extensively studied. The most repeated gains noted are in the area of self-esteem (Iso-Ahola, 1980; Bull, 1991), character development (Bucher, 1982; Weinberg, 1981), emotional stability (Birch & Veroff, 1966; Cooper, 1991), respect for others (Bucher, 1982; Cox, 1990) and reduction of aggression (Alderman & Wood, 1976; Howe, 1978, 1985). Having noted the benefits children derive from play, sport and physical exercise, it is equally important to identify factors that lead to their participation.

Different authors have stated various reasons why children engage in sport, play and physical exercise. Some of these reasons are; having fun (Birch & Veroff, 1966; Duda, 1992), improving on skills and learning new skills (Ewing, 1981; Goodway & Rudisill, 1997) and making new friends (Howe, 1985; Weinberg 1981). Additionally, Rink (1993), identified excitement of competition and success or winning, while Flavel (1966) noted exercising or becoming fit as the other factors.

Despite all these reasons, there are some children who drop out of these activities or do not at all participate for various reasons. Croce and Barry (1980) and Francois (1997) have cited conflict of interest as one of the main reasons that lead to drop out from sport participation. Lack of playing time (the child never played because of being a substitute) has been noted by Francois (1997); Orlick (1974) and Orlick and Botterill (1975) as a contributory factor. Little skill improvement, lack of fun, injuries sustained while playing and overemphasis on winning by teacher/parent are other factors (Francois, 1997; Martens, 1990; Screiber, 1990 and Weinberg, 1981). Goodway and Rudisill (1997) have also reported that dropping out could be due to lack of competence in motor skills. Obviously, understanding motivated behaviour is one of the key issues pursued by sport psychologists and educators for reasons related to both theoretical development and effective and successful programming. However, some researchers have tried to explain withdrawal from organised sports from a motivational point of view.

Within the sport psychology literature , motivation has been defined as "the direction and intensity of effort" (Gill, 1986). Questions such as; why do people participate or not participate? What intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence effort and persistent behaviours? And what achievement goals influence participation and performance? Such questions as cited above abound in the research literature. Similar sentiments have been expressed by practitioners who desire to structure sport and exercise settings in ways that will maximize motivation in populations ranging from children through older adults.

Within the socio-psychological viewpoint of sport behaviour, motivation has been studied from two major perspectives. First, motivation has been examined as an outcome variable, which is usually measured or operationalized in the form of choice, effort and persistence behaviours. It is also considered to be the product of the interaction between characteristic individual difference and physical and social environmental factors (Alderman, 1978; Carron, 1984; Gill, 1986). For example, Smith, Smoll and Cartis (1979), found that children who played under coaches exhibiting a "positive approach" in the form of frequent encouragement reported a greater desire to continue their participation than children who played under coaches who exhibited these behaviours less frequently.

An alternative approach to studying motivation in sport psychology has been viewed as an individual difference factor. From this stance, interest is focused on how individuals who vary in levels of motivational characteristics differ on self-perception and participation behaviours. For example, Klint and Weiss (1987) found that young gymnasts who assigned higher ratings to skill-related participation motives were also higher in perceived physical competence than those who rated skill-related reasons as less important. The relationship between participation motives and perceived competence, in turn, is predicted to result in continued effort and persistence in physical activity.

Several researchers have also carried out studies in the area of participation motivation. Research in this area can be classified as either sport general (Gill & Huddleston, 1983; Longhurst & Spink, 1987; Wankel & Kreisel, 1985) or sport specific (Brodkin & Weiss, 1990; Gould, Feltz & Weiss, 1985; Klint & Weiss, 1986) in nature. A review of these studies in young athletes reveals several common themes. First, data reduction technique conducted on multi-item questionnaires have identified a fairly consistent set of motivational factors. These include: competence (learn and improve skills, achieve most of the goals) (Weiss & Nigel, 1994; Harter, 1981), fitness (that is get in shape or get stronger) (Bucher, 1982; Weinberg, 1981), affiliation (which has to do with being with friends or making new ones) (Alderman & Wood, 1976; Weinberg & Jackson;

1979, Francois, 1997), team aspects (be part of a group or team), (Birch & Veroff, 1966; Bucher & Wuest, 1995; Weinberg, 1981) competition (win, be successful), (Weinberg, 1981) and fun (excitement, challenge, action) (Bucher 1982; Francois, 1997).

A second common finding is that children and adolescents typically indicate that several, rather than only a few of these motives are salient reasons for participation. Third, minimal differences have been found on responses according to age, gender, experience level, and sport type.

From the above studies it can clearly be observed that previous research mainly focuses on the role of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and cultural/social factors in enhancing participation of youngsters in sports. It is only recently that researchers have begun to look at the role of motor skills competence as a factor towards motivating youngsters to participate in organised sports. Most studies that addressed competence motivation in sports have been carried out in Europe, Canada, United States of America and the Middle East. Based on the findings of previous research, the present student documented motivational factors influencing youth participation in organized sports in Kenya.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Majority of participation motivation studies have been conducted on youth populations in the United States of America and other cultures in England (White & Coakley, 1986); Canada (Fry, McClements & Sefton, 1981; Wankel & Kreisel, 1985); Australia (Longhurst & Spink 1987; Robertson, 1981); and Israel (Weingarten, Furst, Tenenbaum & Schaefer, 1984). The social context surrounding these different cultures is likely to have an impact on participation motives. For example, in Israel, Weingarten et al, (1984) found that motives such as achievement, competitiveness, affiliation, competence, future success orientation and family/social expectations were rated as significantly more important by urban children than by rural children. The authors concluded that the Israeli youth are motivated to compete in sport based on the opportunities it provides for actualizing independence, taking on responsibility and making decisions. These results suggest that motives for participation may vary as a function of socio-cultural factors.

Although consistent findings pertaining to participation motives have been identified in the descriptive research cited above, few studies have been carried out in Africa and Kenya in particular on participation motives, hence prompting of this study. Also, there have been a general concern over children participation in organized sport, where dropout rate have always been increasing, thus need for the current study. The study investigated the motivational factors that impact participation in organised sports among

primary school pupils in Shinyalu Division – Kakamega District, Kenya.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The study was designed to establish competence motivational factors that affect children's participation in organised sport.

1.4 Research Questions

The major research question of the proposed study was; Does competence motivation affect children's participation in organised sports? The following questions were formulated for the study.

i) Does interest in sports affect children participation in organized sports?

ii) Does success in sports affect children participation in organized sports?

iii) Does failure in sports affect children participation in organized sports?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

Most of the research studies on children participation in sports were either boys or girls based. Therefore, from the above research questions, it was hypothesized as follows:

Ho There is no significant difference between responses of boys and girls on participation in organised sports.

From the above main hypothesis, the following three sub-hypotheses based on the research questions were derived;

1. There will be no significant difference between primary school boys and girls regarding the extent to which their interests affect participation in organised sports.
2. There will be no significant difference between primary school boys and girls concerning the extent to which their success affect participation in organised sport.
3. There will be no significant difference between primary school boys and girls concerning the extent to which their failure affect participation in organised sport.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study was designed to establish motivational factors that affect children participation in organised sport. The factors identified could be used by teachers to increase pupil's participation in organised sport. The findings of the study could also help in identifying ways in which motivational levels among pupils may be increased. Information obtained could later be used by curriculum developers in making suitable sport programmes for Kenyan pupils in primary schools. The findings could increase the understanding of teachers of physical education and sports in Kenyan schools of the underlying reasons of why youth do or do not participate in organized sports.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

The study was delimited to government maintained primary schools from Shinyalu Division of Kakamega District, Kenya. The study was also delimited to the use of questionnaire as an instrument for data collection. The questionnaire dwelt on three main issues arising in children sport from the literature as determinants for children participation in organised sport. These include interest in sports, success in sport and failure in sport.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The funds available were not sufficient to carry out a comparative study to allow comparison of children's views from different settings and come up with similar findings affecting a broader population. Due to this shortcoming, the study findings will apply appropriately to the sampled population. Also, there was lack of adequate local literature to support the study, thus most of the literature cited in the study was foreign based.

1.9 Assumption of the Study

The study was based on the following assumptions:

1. That pupils would give correct non-biased information pertaining to participation in organized sport.
2. That the sample being used for the study (pupils of Shinyalu Division of Kakamega District) represent a normal population.

1.10 Operational Definitions

1. **Games:** Physical activities that involve members of one team playing against another and are bound by rules and decided by number of goals/points scored (Muindi, 1998).

2. **Motivation:** The driving force or reasons that leads a person to engage in a particular activity.

3. **Organized Sport:** Games or play activities under a games teacher carried out after regular class lessons.

4. **Physical Education:** All educational activities learned during physical education lessons under a physical education teacher.

5. **Play:** Activity done for amusement or recreation especially by children.

6. **Sport:** Physical activity done indoors or outdoor for exercise and amusement usually performed in a special area and according to fixed rules.

7. **Sports & Games:** All motor activities done outside the scheduled teaching time in school which may:

- Be in form of ball games, athletics, gymnastics, swimming or any other physical activity.
- Enhance proficiency in motor skills learning during physical education lessons

- Be competitive or recreational
- Be done after the day's lessons, over the weekends or holidays (Not necessarily done in the school compound) (Muindi, 1998).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature pertaining to motivation and participation in organized sport. It is divided into four sections, namely, historical perspectives of motivation in sports, early approaches to studying motivation in sports, competence motivation in sports and the theoretical framework.

2.2 Historical Perspectives of Motivation in Sports

The area of participation motivation addresses general questions of how and why people become actively involved in sport. More importantly, beyond initial reasons for becoming socialized into sport, sport psychologists seek to understand why individuals continue and sustain their involvement and conversely, what factors cause permanent attrition from sport or temporary withdrawal from a particular sport or intensity level.

Research interest in participation and discontinuation motives first emerged in the 1970s with an exploratory study on participation motivation by Alderman and Wood (1976) and an attrition study by Orlick (1973, 1974). However, Sapp and Haubensticker (1978) were the first

researchers to study participation and discontinuation motives concurrently using the same homogeneous population of over a thousand athletes and non-athletes from Michigan.

A position paper by Gould (1982) summarized the status of research in youth sport and outlined future research directions. The paper also provided a strong impetus for the sudden interest and productivity in the area of participation in, and attrition from youth sport involvement. As Gould (1982) noted, the key psychological studies on youth sport phenomena contributed to the development or extension of psychological theory and asked questions of practical significance. Gould surveyed both youth sport practitioners and researchers. Surprisingly, consensus was found between the two groups in that the top-ranked psychological issue of importance was "why young athletes stop participating in youth sports". The question of "why young athletes participate in youth sports" was also ranked highly by both groups. Historically, motivation in children sports has evolved with new ideas being raised every time.

2.3 Early Approaches to Studying Motivation in Sports

Early approaches to studying motivation in sports were based on cognitive evaluation theory. This is where participation in sports was considered from an intrinsic/extrinsic motivation perspective (Alderman & Wood, 1976; Deci & Ryan 1985). Accordingly, it

was held that most individuals participate in sport and physical activity for the sheer joy, pleasure, fun and curiosity involved with the experiences. These can be classified as intrinsic or internal motives for participation. There may also be external reasons for participation behaviour, such as social approval from adults and peers, material rewards and social rewards.

The major basis of cognitive evaluation (Deci & Ryan, 1985) is that intrinsic motivation is maximized when individuals feel competent and self-determined in dealing with their environment. Sport and physical activity settings provide many opportunities for persons to compare their skills and competencies against a standard, thus enhancing the likelihood of meaningful feedback and positive changes in intrinsic motivation. Also, physical activity setting often allows for the creative expression of a variety of physical and social behaviour over which individuals feel internal control. This sense of control also increases the probability of enhanced intrinsic motivation.

2.4 Competence Motivation in Sports

Competence motivation was originally conceptualized by White (1959) and later refined by Harter (1978, 1981). White's thesis was that individuals are motivated to deal effectively or competently within their social and physical environment and achieve this by engaging in mastery attempts. If these mastery attempts result in efficacy or

competent performance outcomes, feelings of efficacy and inherent pleasure are experienced and these feelings in turn maintain or enhance one's competence motivation.

Harter (1978) adapted White's original formulation to include several components that influence an individual's motivational orientations. She viewed competence motivation as a multidimensional construct that influences both the initiation of mastery attempts in particular achievement domains and the development of characteristic achievement behaviours such as perceived competence and perceptions of control. These constructs, in turn, serve to maintain, increase or decrease incompetence motivation.

In general, Harter contended that a competency motivated individual is one who embraces opportunities to demonstrate ability by engaging in mastery attempts, uses internal criteria and mastery goals to evaluate success and guide judgements about level of competence. A competency motivated individual has high levels of perceived competence and an internal sense of personal control, and experiences positive affect as a result of successful mastery attempts under optimal challenges. An individual who lacks competency is one who avoids mastery attempts in order to minimize the probability of demonstrating low ability, depends upon external criteria standards or performance goals

(e.g. winning, parental reinforcement); possesses low perceived competence, an external perceived locus of control, and experiences anxiety in mastery situations.

Harter's theory has therefore been an attractive model for examining the causes and consequences of motivational orientations as defined in the pursuit of competency or mastery. For the last two decades, empirical testing of Harter's competence motivation theory in the physical achievement domain flourished. Strong support has been found for the hypothesized relationships among several of the components of the model, with particular importance found for the influence of perceived competence upon various achievement related characteristics and motivational orientations.

2.4.1 Perceived Competence and Achievement Related characteristics

The pathways in Harter's model suggest that intimate relationships should exist among actual success, perceptions of performance success, competence and control, affect, and motivational orientations. Weiss, Mc-Auley, Ebbeck and Wieser (1990) examined the relationship between children's perceptions of competence and their attributions for performance success in both physical and social domains within a seven week summer sports programme. Results revealed that children high in perceived competence made attributions for physical competence (and interpersonal success) that were more internal

and stable and higher in personal control than low-perceived competent peers. Thus, children with positive self-perceptions of ability adopted a more intrinsic orientation to explaining their performance ratings and these attritional patterns are likely to lead to positive effect and future success expectations.

In another study, Weiss and Horn (1990) were interested in how the accuracy of children's perceived competence was related to achievement characteristics such as perceived control, motivational orientation and anxiety. Children were divided into accuracy groups based on different scores between teachers' ratings of their actual physical competence and perceptions of their competence. Children whose perceived competence fell into the lower quartile of different scores were considered to be underestimators, children whose perceived competence fell into the upper quartile of difference scores were overestimators and children whose perceived competence fell into the middle (50%) of the frequency distribution of discrepancy scores were accurate estimators. A significant gender-by-accuracy interaction effect revealed that underestimating girls were lower in competency, higher in anxiety and more external in their control perceptions than accurately estimating or overestimating girls. Underestimating boys were higher in perceived unknown control than accurately estimating or overestimating boys. It was concluded that children who seriously

underestimate their perceived physical competence follow a low competency pattern, making them likely candidates for sport-withdrawal and/or low level of physical achievement.

The results of these two studies suggests that children with high levels of perceived competence follow a pattern of functional achievement behaviour, reflected in their success perceptions, causal attributions for performance, motivational orientation, and effective outcomes. Results revealed significant causal influences from perceived competence and perceived control to motivational orientation and actual motor performance scores. Specifically, children high in perceived competence and low in perceived unknown control evidenced higher achievement scores and a more internal motivational orientation than children low on these self-perception characteristics.

2.4.2 Sources of Information to Judge Physical Ability

An important component in Harter's model is the preference for sources of information to reinforce one's mastery attempts and successes, as well as to establish a set of goals or standards. The individual who is competently motivated comes to internalize a self-recorded system and a set of mastery goals as a result of positive socialization experiences (Bucher, 1982). Conversely, the individual who lacks mastery of skills comes to depend upon external approval and reinforcement to judge his/her ability. This judgement is based on a socialization history directed by lack of reinforcement or

disapproval for independent mastery attempts in combination with reinforcement for dependency on adults.

Horn and Hasbrook (1987) examined the relationship between self perceptions, as measured by perceived physical competence. They (Horn & Hasbrook, 1987) observed perceived performance control as sources of information used to judge personal abilities. They found a non-significant relationship between perceptions of competence and control with sources of competence information in 8-9 year old children, but significant relationship for 10-11 year old and 12-14 year old children. This implies that a certain level of cognitive-development is necessary for hypothesized relationships for motivational model to be accurate. The significant relationships found for children in the older age groups were generally in accordance with theoretical predictions. Specifically, children who were high in perceived competence and an internal sense of control identified internal criteria (like self-improvement in skills) and peer comparison as preferred sources of information. Children low in perceived competence and high in perceived external control preferred information that was more external in nature, such as feedback and evaluation from parents and teachers.

Additional age related findings pertaining to accuracy of perceived competence and preference for information sources of competence were reported by Horn and & Weiss

(1991). Correlation between perceptions of competence and actual competence, as measured by teachers' ratings of sport performance revealed that children become more accurate in their perceived competence with age; with children of 8-9 years less accurate than children of 10-13 years.

Thus, for the current study, it was necessary to choose on pupils of class 5 and 6 who are more accurate in their predictions. Moreover, these differences in accuracy could be linked at least in part, to the informational sources children used to judge their performance capabilities. Younger children indicated a dependence upon feedback and evaluation from parents and teachers more than older children, although the older children primarily relied upon peer comparison and evaluation for information about their competence. Thus, studies by Horn and her colleagues suggest a developmental pattern regarding sources of information used to judge physical ability. Taken together, these studies (Horn & Hasbrook 1987 and Horn & Weiss 1991) demonstrate strong support for the links among several central constructs in Harter's competence motivation model.

2.4.3 Perceived Competence and Participation Motives

Another important component in Harter's competence motivation model is participation and attrition from sports, sports persistence and satisfaction. A study by Robert, Kleiber

& Duda (1981) compared sports participants and non-participants (defined as children who do not participate in that particular program) on perceptions of competence, general self-worth and success expectations. Participants were found to score significantly higher on perceived cognitive and physical competence, general self-worth and expectations for future success than did non-participants. Feltz and Petlichkoff (1983) reported similar findings for participants versus dropouts in interscholastic sports.

Klint and Weiss (1987) conducted a follow-up study that investigated the relationship between perceptions of competence and particular motives for participation in competitive gymnastics. Results revealed that children high in perceived physical competence were more motivated by mastery aspect of sports. Thus, in accordance with Harter's theory, children were motivated to demonstrate competence in those areas for which they perceived themselves to have high abilities. However, the worrying issue is why skilled performers drop out of sports. This shows that apart from mastery of skills, other factors contribute towards withdrawal from sports. Therefore it can be stated that studies on participation and withdrawal from sports are not yet conclusive.

Studies have also indicated that achievement goal orientations are related to sport persistence in children and youth. Ewing (1981) developed the Achievement Orientation Questionnaire (AOQ) and administered it to 452, 14-15 year old adolescents who had

been identified as participants, non-participants and dropouts. Subjects were asked to list three experiences in which they felt they had been successful. For each experience, they rated 15 items on a 5-point scale to indicate how strongly each item completed the statement; "I felt successful because...". The 15 items from each of the three experiences were factor analyzed separately and in each case different factorial structures and number of factors emerged. Ewing found that current participants were more highly oriented toward social approval goals, while the dropouts were more highly oriented towards ability-related goals. Considering the age under study in Ewing's (1981) research, (14-15 year old children), peer pressure is much influential. This can explain the kind of results obtained in the above study (Ewing, 1981), where the participants were more oriented towards social approval goals.

Another study based on achievement goal orientations was conducted by Petlichkoff (1988) as part of an extensive study of 557 interscholastic athletes'. Achievement goal orientations were assessed from "starters" (the best athletes'), "non-starters" (second in rank), "survivors" (who had minimal playing time), "cuttees" (who were forced to withdraw), and "dropouts" (who voluntarily withdrew) at three times during the season, pre-season, pre-competition and post-season. Differences among the participant groups occurred only during the pre-competition and post-season measures. Specifically, "starters" were more ability and task-oriented than other four groups at pre-competition and more ability oriented during post-season. "Starters" and "non-starters" were

significantly higher than both "survivors" and "cuttees" on task orientation at the post-season assessment. More importantly, while achievement goal orientation was related to athletes' level of satisfaction with their sport experience, they were not found to be related to sport persistence.

It should be noted that "Starters" and "non-starters" who were considered to be the best athletes showed more ability and were more task-oriented than the low placed "survivors" and "cuttees". This was in line with the study's theoretical predictions. However, it was surprising that athletes who showed satisfaction with sport experience did not show persistence in the sport. This might be due to reduction in the success level leading to reduction in participation.

Petlichkoff (1988) included a cost-benefit analysis in an examination of predictors of sport persistence. She found that "starters" and "non-starters" had higher levels of satisfaction than did "survivors" "dropouts" or "cuttees" and that "survivors" had higher levels of satisfaction than did "dropouts". Perhaps, those who were motivated to "hang on" despite the minimal likelihood of being able to play in games were willing to put up with higher levels of satisfaction than those who dropped out. Being in a team may have been a major benefit which was not outweighed by the cost of low perception of ability based on lack of playing time. In children`s sports, participation regardless of being in

the school team or not is more critical to children. That was why "survivors" who had minimal playing time had higher levels of satisfaction in Petlichkoff's (1988) study.

The five categories of athletes, beginning with "starters" "non-starters", "survivors", "cuttees" and "dropouts" can be placed on a competency continuum, where mastery of sports skills reduces as one goes down the continuum. Thus, competency is directly related to mastery of skills and persistence in sports.

In another participation study, Orlick (1974) interviewed 60 former Canadian sport participants, ranging in age from 7 to 18 years. He found that majority of children who indicated that they would not continue their participation the following year cited negative experiences such as lack of playing time, the competitive emphasis of the programme, and dislike for the coach. Orlick also found age differences in discontinuation motives with children under 10 years of age reporting lack of playing time and lack of successful experiences. Children older than 10 years of age reported conflict of interests such as other extra-curricular activities or responsibilities with work as the main reason for withdrawal from sports. This indicated that mastery of sports skills is very vital to participation in sports as noted in the case of lack of successful experience. Also, other activities in the life of children's like studies, and other extra curricular activities have influence on participation in children sports.

The findings of Orlick (1974) were replicated in a large-scale study by the Michigan Youth Sports Institute (Sapp & Haubensticker, 1978). Youths between the ages of 11 and 18 years (N=1,183) and parents of children 6 to 10 years (N=418) were asked about their future participation patterns. The percentage of children who reported they would not continue with their sport the following year was high, with 37% of older children and 24% of younger children being identified as potential dropouts. However, the types of negative sport experiences identified by Orlick (1974) accounted for less than 15% of the reasons cited for sport withdrawal in the Michigan study. The most frequent reason given was "other interests" by the younger children, and "work" by the older children. The two studies, Orlick (1974) and Sapp & Haubensticker show how studies based in different cultural settings can have similar results, but differ on the emphasis laid on the intensity of a few items. Weingarden et al (1984) also noted cultural diversity between Israel urban and rural children while studying reasons for participation or withdrawal from sport. Therefore, results on participation of children in sports have not been conclusive hence prompting the current study.

2.4.4 Influence by Significant Others

Harter (1981) stated that the most critical addition to White's (1959) formulation involved the effects of the child's socialization history. More specifically, the influence of significant others in reinforcing an intrinsic versus extrinsic motivational orientation

via judgements of personal competence and performance control. This is especially critical during childhood and adolescent years. Parents, peers, coaches and teachers all appear to be important individuals who are used as sources of information by children and adolescents in the competitive sport environment for judging ability and making decisions about future participatory behaviours. However, according to Bustard (1992) despite the central role accorded by Harter in her model, sport psychologists have neglected the socialization history of the child in understanding motivational orientations.

In a study that is related to influence by significant others on self-perceptions of ability within Harter's theoretical framework, Horn (1985) investigated how coaches' reinforcement patterns influence female adolescent softball players' perceptions of competence and performance control in both practice and competitive settings. She found that certain coaching behaviours over the course of season contributed above and beyond skill improvement, to changes in perceived softball competence but not to perceptions of performance control. Specifically, players who received more frequent positive reinforcement in response to desirable performances scored lower in perceived physical and cognitive competence, while players who received higher frequencies of criticism in response to performance errors had higher perceptions of competence in relation to their counterparts. Although the results for positive reinforcement and

criticism may at first appear contradictory to expected relationship, Horn (1985) explained the results by arguing that contingent and appropriate feedback conveyed to those who received more criticism that their performances could improve in the future, while those who were merely positively reinforced for desirable performance may have inferred that their level of performance was the best the coach expected.

Black and Weiss (1991) recorded perceptions of coaches' behaviours and examined them in relation to perceptions of ability and motivation in competitive age group swimmers (age 10 to 18). The results supported those of Horn (1985) by suggesting that contingent praise and information following successful performances and contingent encouragement and corrective information following performance errors were associated with athletes who were higher in perceived success and competence, as well as higher in their enjoyment of the sport and preference for optimal challenges.

In another related study, Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman and Ryan (1981) found that classroom teachers who were more autonomy oriented in their teaching style produced students who were more intrinsically motivated and had higher self-esteem at the end of the school year than did students of teachers with a more controlling orientation. There is a long way to go in understanding the relationship between social support, psychological

development and motivational orientations in the sport domain, but competence motivation theory provides an attractive resource for initiating such investigations.

The use of competence or mastery orientation to study intrinsic motivation is a viable alternative to a cognitive evaluation theory orientation. However, the two theories have the same basis and complement each other. For example, perceptions of competence and the informational sources available to judge ability are central factors related to intrinsic motivation for both approaches. The concepts of self-determination and perceptions of performance control are quite similar with the important feature being in the individuals' perceived locus of causality for participation behaviour, internal or external. Both theories highlight the importance of success at optimal challenges as essential to maximizing perceived competence, internal locus of control and intrinsic motivation. Finally, both approaches highlight the importance of reinforcement from significant others or from reward inherent in competitive experiences in pursuing motivation orientation levels.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

The central focus of this study was to investigate reasons that lead children to participate or withdraw from organized sports. Several theories have tried to explain the phenomena and the ones, which seemed relevant to this study, are focused on intrinsic and extrinsic

motivational orientations. These include cognitive evaluation theory (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985) and competence motivation theory (Harter, 1978, 1981, & White 1959). Cognitive evaluation theory has been studied extensively in the sport domain (Ryan, Vallerand & Deci, 1984; Vallerand, Deci & Ryan, 1987) by researchers who employed primarily an experimental design to examine the effects of external rewards, positive and negative feedback or competition on intrinsic motivation. Extensive research (Duda, 1992; Klint, 1985; Klint & Weiss, 1986) has also been conducted in sport psychology using competence motivation approach, primarily with the study of children and adolescents in sports. Typically, non-experimental research design conducted within field settings have been employed in contrast to the experimentally oriented tests of cognitive evaluation theory. The other theories that attempt to explain children's participation in sports are achievement goals orientation (Maehr & Nicholls, 1984) and social exchange/cost-benefit analysis (Smith, 1986; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).

According to achievement goal orientation theory posited by Maehr and Nicholls (1980), individuals are primarily motivated by one of three orientations – ability, task and social approval orientations. Ability-oriented individuals strive to demonstrate skills in relation to others, so social comparison is a primary source of information for these individuals. Task oriented individuals adopt mastery-oriented goals and evaluate their sport ability in relation to their own past performance, rather than the performance of others. Finally, the

individual primarily oriented by social approval goals is directed toward obtaining positive feedback from significant others for the effort put forth during participation regardless of performance outcome.

It can therefore be stated that, for individuals who are motivated by achievement goals, there must be a reason for them to participate or perform well. That is, for ability-oriented individuals, there must be other people who are also participating so that a competitive environment exists. For task-oriented individuals, they use their past performance as a measure of participation. Where past performance is lacking or not sufficient, participation of the individual is limited. Lastly, for individuals oriented by social approval, the absence of significant others is a reason that could make them not to perform satisfactorily.

Social exchange theory (Smith, 1986; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) has also been used in studying motivation in youth sport. The basic premise of social exchange theory is that social behaviour is motivated by the desire to maximize positive experiences and minimize negative experiences. Individuals will remain in relationships or activities as long as the outcome is favourable. Furthermore, this favourability is a function of benefits and costs. The decision to remain involved in a current situation is not merely a function of benefits and costs, but rather includes two levels of satisfaction, that is,

satisfaction with current activity and satisfaction with alternative activities. Therefore, individuals who are motivated by social exchange theory need two competing situations for them to choose one and maximise performance on it; lack of such a situation will limit one's performance.

2.4.1 Cognitive Evaluation Theory

The major tenet of cognitive evaluation theory (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985) is that intrinsic motivation is maximized when individuals feel competent and self determining in dealing with their environment. Deci and Ryan (1985) believed that sport and physical activity settings provide many opportunities for persons to compare their skills and competencies against a standard, thus enhancing the likelihood of meaningful feedback and positive changes in intrinsic motivation. Similarly, physical achievement settings often allow for the creative expression of a variety of physical and social behaviour over which individuals feel internal control. This sense of control also increases the probability of enhanced intrinsic motivation. However, just as sport offers these opportunities for positive changes in perceived competence, self determination, and intrinsic motivation, it can also frequently be structured so as to provide negative feedback about one's competencies. This is where sports can exert pressure on individuals to conform to standardized rules and behaviours, resulting in decrements to intrinsic motivation and the internalization of a more extrinsic motivation.

According to cognitive evaluation theory, any event that affects individuals' perceptions of competence and feelings of self-determination will ultimately have an impact on their level of intrinsic motivation. Additionally, these events, which may include the distribution of rewards, the quantity and quality of feedback and reinforcement, and how situations are structured, consist of two functional components, a controlling aspect and an informational aspect.

The controlling aspect of an event relates to an individual's perceived locus of causality within the situation. If an event or situation is seen as controlling one's behaviour, then an external locus of causality and a low level of self-determination are developed. These negative self-perceptions, in turn, cause a decrease in intrinsic motivation. For example, in the United States of America, many stories pertaining to college football and basketball players seem to suggest that the pressure to win, compete for scholarships, conform to coaching demands and expectations and be chosen for the professional ranks have resulted in feelings of being controlled by powerful others, such as coaches, institutions and team owners and subsequently in decreased levels of interest, enjoyment and pleasure in the activity (Weiss & Negel, 1997). Conversely, if an event is seen as one that contributes to an internal locus of causality, intrinsic motivation will increase. In this case, people feel a high level of self-determination and perceive that their behaviour is determined by their own personal goals. For example, Gould, Thompson &

Wankel (1980) reported that sport and exercise programme that provide individuals with opportunities for input about choice of activities, personal performance goals, and team or class objectives and rules should result in higher intrinsic motivation on the part of its participants. Lack of such opportunities leads to decline in intrinsic motivation. In contrast to the controlling aspect of events, the informational aspect of an event relates to the perceived competence of the individual (Weiss & Nigel, 1997). If an event provides positive information about an individual's competence, then intrinsic motivation for an optimally challenging activity will be enhanced. For example, successful achievement of a goal that was determined based on individual competencies signifies positive information about personal competence and should result in the likelihood of continued goal setting effort and persistence at the task. Events that provide negative information about competence however, should result in lowered perceived competence and intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). For example, a coaching style that lays emphasis on criticism and put-downs may be internalized by some athletes as information about their value and worth as team members, and they may not look forward to practices, Competitions, learning and improving skills, and the enjoyment of the sport as much as they did previously. The practice of choosing up who to play with in games that still occurs in youth sports programme or physical education classes is a very visible and powerful means for conveying information about peer's evaluations of ability and effects, perceptions of competence and intrinsic motivation.

In addition to the controlling and informational aspects of events, a third major element to cognitive evaluation theory is what is termed the functional significance of the event (Deci & Ryan, 1985). More specifically, most events contain both controlling and informational elements and thus have the potential for affecting perceived locus of causality, perceived competence, and intrinsic motivation. However, the aspect of the situation perceived as more important by the individual will determine whether locus of causality will be perceived as high or low and (subsequently) whether intrinsic-extrinsic motivation is nurtured. It is the relative importance of these aspects that determines the functional significance of an event to a person. Deci and Ryan (1987) concluded that choice and positive feedback result in the development of the informational aspect; and rewards, time deadlines and surveillance result in the controlling aspect being more visible.

2.4.1 Competence Motivation Theory

As stated above, an alternative approach to the understanding of participation motivational orientations has been competence motivation theory, which was originally conceptualized by White (1959) and later refined, extended and operationalized by Harter (1978, 1981). White's thesis suggested that individuals are intrinsically motivated to deal effectively or competently within their social and physical environment and do so by engaging in mastery attempts. If these mastery attempts result in successful or

competent performance outcomes, feelings of efficacy and inherent pleasure are experienced, and these feelings in turn, maintain or enhance one's intrinsic or competence motivation. White (1959) viewed the urge toward mastery, challenge, curiosity and exploratory play as examples of behaviours that result in feelings of efficacy and intrinsic motivation.

A notable shortcoming of White's theoretical model was the lack of operational definitions for constructs such as competence motivation, feelings of efficacy, and intrinsic pleasure (Weiss & Nigel, 1997). Thus, despite the attractive and intrusive appeal of White's theory for explaining intrinsic motivation, it has laid dormant to empirical testing for 20 years. Harter (1978) provided a refinement and extension of White's original formulations by including several components that influence an individual's motivational orientations.

Harter (1978, 1981) viewed competence motivation as a multidimensional construct that influenced both the initiation of mastery attempts in particular achievement domains and the development of characteristic achievement behaviours such as perceived competence, perceptions of performance control and affect. These factors in turn serve to maintain increase or decrease competence motivation or as alternatively stated, influence the development of a primarily intrinsically or extrinsically oriented person.

In general, Harter contended that the intrinsically oriented individual is one who embraces opportunities to demonstrate ability by engaging in mastery attempts, uses internal criteria and mastery goals to evaluate success and guide judgement about level of competence. Also, he/she has high levels of perceived competence and an internal sense of personal control; and experiences positive affect as a result of successful mastery attempts under optimal challenges. The extrinsically oriented person, in contrast, is one who may avoid mastery attempts in order to minimize the probability of demonstrating low ability, depends upon external criteria to evaluate performance outcomes and adopts external standards or performance goals (like winning, parental reinforcement), possesses low perceived competence and an external perceived locus of control while experiencing anxiety in mastery situations (Harter, 1978, 1981). Each of these components is vital to physical achievement domain. Thus, Harter's theory has been an attractive model for examining the causes and consequences of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations as defined in the pursuit of competence or mastery.

Both the cognitive evaluation and competency motivational approaches have provided a great deal of empirical information and practical implications for sport psychologists and educators (Weiss & Nigel, 1997). Each approach has its unique theoretical components, research design preferences, operational definitions, measurement instruments, and practical implications. However, just as important are their commonalities, which include an emphasis on perceived competence, self-determination (perceived control),

mastery at optimal challenges and the role of the social environment (significant others, competitive structure, external rewards) in developing intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Thus, each of these theoretical approaches and the sport-related research were systematically presented, to consolidate common themes, results and applications. Considering that competency motivation theory is more recent and consolidates all factors under cognitive evaluation theory, it was chosen as a suitable guide for the study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the methods and procedures used in the study. It is organized under the following subheadings; research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, research instruments, validity and reliability of instruments, pilot study, administration of instrument and data collection procedure, and data analysis techniques.

3.2 The Research Design

The study sought to investigate motivational factors that affect pupil' participation in organized sport. A descriptive survey design was used. A survey attempts to describe what was or what is in a social system, such as a school and how its learners are affected (Borg & Gall, 1983; Hinton, 1995). A descriptive survey does not require variables under study to be manipulated. The researcher sought information pertaining to the above variables from pupils without manipulating the pupils.

3.3 The Target Population

Pupils from Shinyalu Division public primary schools formed the target population for this study. Shinyalu Division was purposively chosen because it is densely populated with

neighbouring schools one square kilometre from each other. Due to the proximity of schools situated to each other and their accessibility, the researcher could conveniently collect data.

3.4 The Sample and Sampling Procedure

There are 57 public primary schools in Shinyalu Division (Appendix B). Out of these, 3 were girls' schools and the remaining 54 are mixed schools. These schools are divided into three zones namely, West Shinyalu, 18 schools (1 girls` school and 17 mixed schools), Central Shinyalu, 21 schools (2 girls` schools and 19 mixed schools) and lastly, South Shinyalu with 18 schools (all mixed schools). In order to have equal number of boys and girls forming the sample, and for ease of data collection from both genders, only mixed schools were used in the study.

Stratified simple random sampling was used to select the schools for the study. According to Gay (1976) and Hinton (1995), a sample of 10% of the population is considered minimum while 20% of the total population is required for smaller populations. Considering a total population of 54 schools, 10% would be 5.4 schools while 20% would be 10.8 schools. Therefore, a suitable number of schools for ease of data collection were 9, which is 18.5% of the total population. All the zones produced equal number of schools because each zone had almost the same number of mixed schools (West 17, Central 19, South, 18). This meant 3 schools were selected from each zone, which added up to a total of 9 schools.

The sampling of schools from each zone was done randomly. Twenty (20) pupils were sampled from each of the 9 schools, of which 5 boys and 5 girls were from standard 5 and also 5 boys and 5 girls from standard 6. A total of 180 pupils formed the sample. Standards 5 and 6 pupils were used in this study because they can easily communicate by completing the questionnaire. Also, children at this age have mastered fundamental movement skills and are very playful, therefore, they often have a considerable interest in games and sport.

3.5 Research Instruments

Direct contact questionnaire was the only tool used for data collection. Direct contact questionnaire was found necessary as it would facilitate rapport with the respondents, clarify points and encourage the respondents to answer all the items (Clark & Clark 1984). This also avoided wastage of time, as would be the case with mailed questionnaires. Direct contact questionnaires also have a high rate of return (Hinton, 1995; Kerlinger 1973). The questionnaire (Appendix A) with a three point Likert scale was administered to standard five and six pupils. The questionnaire covered pupils' views on participation in sport under interest in sports, success in sports and failure in sports.

The questionnaire was divided into four broad sections, namely, general and personal information, interest in sports, success in sports and failure in sports. Each section had various sub-sections with particular items dealing with children`s sports (Appendix A). In

Section I the pupils were asked about their gender, name of school, age and class. In Section II A, they were asked about their interest in sports. This section had six questions concerned with participation in sports, improvement in sports, being in school team, dropping from the school team and joining the school team at secondary school level.

Section B of the questionnaire had three sub-sections, sub-section (i) the pupils' were asked about their performance in school sports, sub-section (ii) they were asked about watching sports competitions and lastly, sub-section (iii) the pupils were asked about participation in school sports. The last section of the questionnaire dealt with failure in sports. This section had five sub-sections dealing with questions under the following issues, extra curricular activities, use of break time while at school, representing the school in sports competitions, setting up time for sports practice and lastly, setbacks to participating in school sports. Responses on each item were compared between boys and girls by use of chi-square test of independence to test any significance difference (Hinton, 1995). Also, the means and percentages of pupil's responses were calculated to find out the strength of those who agreed, were not sure or disagreed with the questionnaire items.

3.6 Validity and Reliability of Instrument

To ensure content validity, the researcher liased with the supervisors who are specialists in the area of study while framing the questionnaire. This was expert judgement

as advocated for by Nachmias & Nachmias (1976) who stated that validity of items in research can be determined by expert judgement. The questionnaire was also presented to two lecturers in the Physical Education Department for further scrutiny. It was also administered to 20 Kenyatta University primary school pupils (five boys and five girls in class five and also 5 boys and 5 girls in class 6) and their responses were noted in terms of clarity and ease of answering questions.

The reliability test was carried out by use of Spearman`s Brown Prophecy formula (Scott & French, 1959) where a coefficient correlation of .80 was found, which is satisfactory. This reliability test was carried out during the pilot study.

3.7 Pilot Study

Three schools picked randomly from the target population were used for the pilot study. The researcher administered the questionnaire to pupils in those schools. He found that the language used in the questionnaire was satisfactory and well understood by the pupils. Also, the duration of completing the questionnaire to each group of pupils was adequate. Pupils took between half an hour and forty-five minutes to complete the questionnaire. By so doing, the researcher assessed the suitability of the tool.

3.8 Administration of Instrument and Data Collection Procedure

Clearance was sought from the office of the President before data collection for issuance of the research permit. The researcher then visited sampled schools to administer questionnaires after an appointment. Trained research assistants were used to help in administration of the questionnaires. The researcher trained the research assistants on the procedures required so as to help pupils during data collection. The researcher waited as the respondents filled in the questionnaire and then collected them on the spot. All the 180 pupils sampled responded to the questionnaire reporting survey research (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1976)

3.9. Data Analysis Technique

Frequency distribution is a commonly used method for This study was a survey and the first level of analysis was done using frequencies and percentages. On the second level of analysis, responses given by pupils were tallied showing who either agreed, was not sure or disagreed. Their means (averages) were calculated to show the strength of agreement. During the coding process, a score of two (2) represented not sure, greater than two (2) showed the strength of agreement while less than two (2) showed the strength of disagreement. The third level of data analysis involved use of Chi-square (χ^2)

test of independence to test the hypothesis. The Chi-square (χ^2) test involves testing for the differences between the frequencies obtained. Responses of girls were compared to those of boys for any significant difference. The Chi-square formula that was used is:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

O = observed frequencies, E = expected frequencies.

(Hinton, 1995).

Analysis was done manually, with the level of significance as 0.05, degree of freedom as 2, and critical value of 5.99.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data analysis and discussion. The analysis is presented in the form of tables showing frequencies, Likert scale means, Chi-squares and percentages followed by a discussion. This chapter is organized in four major sections from the questions that guided the study. The sections are as follows; general and personal information, interest in sports, success in sports and failure in sports.

4.2 General and Personal Information

Table 1 below shows details of the information given by pupils concerning their age, gender and class.

Table 1: The Distribution of Pupils by Gender, Class and Age

	Boys		Girls	
Age (years)	Std 5	Std 6	Std 5	Std 6
10	7	3	4	—
11	10	1	8	1
12	6	5	12	6
13	11	11	8	17
14	5	12	9	13
15	4	11	4	5
16	2	2	—	3
Mean	12.3	13.5	12.4	13.5
Mean	12.9		13.0	
Mean	12.9			

Results obtained showed that the mean age for class 5 girls was 12.4 years, which was less than that of class 6 girls of 13.5 years. The same results were observed with boys, where class 5 had a mean of 12.3 years, while class 6 had a mean of 13.5 years. This is because class 6 pupils have been in school one year longer than class 5 pupils, thus the difference evidenced. For boys, their mean age was 12.9 years, which is slightly lower than the mean for girls of 13.0 years. The mean ages for boys and girls per class were almost similar in class 5, where boys had a mean of 12.3 years and girls, 12.4 years. In class 6, the mean for both boys and girls was similar, that is, 13.5 years.

From the above information, it can be observed that on average, pupils under study are in the pre-adolescent age. It was also observed that pupils in classes 5 and 6 were almost of a similar age. Studies in motor learning have shown that at this age, children have mastered fundamental motor skills, which are mainly developed between ages 2-6 (Hottinger, 1992) and are trying to learn refined motor skills. Therefore, at this age, children are capable of internalizing most of the skills being learned (Goodway & Rudisill, 1997) and it is the best period to introduce children to sports.

4.3 Interest in Sports

Section A asked pupils' about their interest in sports by responding to questions on reasons that lead to participation in school sports. Table 2 shows details of pupils' responses to these questions.

Table 2: Improvement of Sports Skills and Making up the School Team

Factor	Response									Mean	Chi-square	Level of Sig.
	Agree		Total	Not sure		Total	Disagree		Total			
	Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls				
I participate in sports at school	63 (70%)	57 (63.3%)	120 66.7%	12 (13.3%)	17 (18.9%)	29 (16.1%)	15 (16.9%)	16 17.8%	31 17.2%	2.5	2.40	Not sig.
I try to improve my sport skills	68 (75.6%)	59 (65.6%)	127 (70.6%)	14 (15.6%)	15 (16.7%)	29 (16%)	8 (8.9%)	16 (17.8%)	24 (13.3%)	2.57	3..338	Not sig.
I like being part of the school team	69 (76.7%)	66 (73.3%)	135 (75%)	14 (15.6%)	18 (20.0%)	32 (17.8%)	7 (7.8%)	6 (6.7%)	13 (7.2%)	2.67	0.648	Not sig.
I train for selection in the school team	77 (85.6%)	70 (77.8%)	147 (81.7%)	15 (16.7%)	22 (24.4%)	21 (11.7%)	12 (13.3%)	16 (17,8%)	12 6.6%	2.48	1.948	Not sig.
If I am left out of the school team, I will drop from school sports	31 (34.4%)	40 (44.4%)	71 (39.5%)	32 (35.5%)	30 (33.3%)	62 (34.4%)	27 (30.0%)	20 (22.2%)	47 26.2%	2.13	2.246	Not sig.
I aim to be selected in the school team when I join secondary school	79 (87.8%)	66 (73.3%)	145 (80.6%)	10 (11.1%)	12 (13.3%)	37 (17.2%)	1 (1.1%)	3 (3.3%)	4 (2.2%)	2.78	6.070*	Sig.

N= 180, df = 2, p=0.05, c.v.=5.99

- Significant

Out of six items on interest in sport, only one item that asked if pupils' aim to be selected in the school team when they join secondary school was significant (Chi-square value of 6.090). This is partly because of the higher percentage of boys who agreed to this item (87.8%) than the girls (73.3%). Boys at this age are greatly influenced by their peers and will want to show off by engaging in sport, while seeking for identification (Bucher, 1982). From this finding, considering that one out of six items showed a significant difference in the responses of boys and girls, the hypothesis was accepted, thus there was no significance between primary school boys and girls regarding the extent to which their interest affect participation in organized sports.

It was observed that many pupils participate in sports at school (66.7%). The percentage of pupils who aspired to make up the school team was very high (75.0%). However, responses suggested that more than a third of the pupils (39.5%) indicated that they might withdraw from school sports when dropped from school team. It can be assumed that the primary purpose in children`s sports is not making up the school team, but participating in sporting activities. These findings support earlier studies by Bucher (1982) and Hottinger (1992). In their studies, they found out that children participate in sports, despite winning or losing. Also, Ewing (1981) in his Achievement Orientation Questionnaire identified participation as a primary objective in children`s sports. Making up the school team may be a good reason for children to participate in school sports, not

with the idea of winning, but to be involved in the activities being offered. Petlichkoff (1988) in her study on persistence in sports activities found that "survivors" who had minimal playing time had higher levels of satisfaction than "dropouts". It may be assumed that "survivors", because they had minimal playing time, felt more satisfied than did "dropouts". Getting an opportunity to play is very important in children`s sports even if the time allocated is minimal.

4.4 Success in Sports

Section B asked pupils' if they experience success in sports at school. Three broad questions under success in sports were given to pupils for their response. They related to performance in sports, perception of sports, and reasons for participation in school sports. Each of these questions has been analyzed in the following sub-sections.

4.4.1 Performance in Sports

Table 3 below shows pupils' response on questions related to performance in sports.

Table 3: Pupils' Responses on Performance in School Sports.

Factor	Response											
	Agree		Total	Not sure		Total	Disagree		Total	Mean	Chi-square	Comment
	Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls				
I aim to be the best in school sports	72 (80%)	83 (92.2%)	155 86.1%	13 (14.4%)	6 (6.7%)	19 10.6%	5 (5.6%)	1 (1.1%)	6 3.3%	2.82	6.024*	Sig.
I aim to be on the first line up of the school team always.	53 (58.9%)	65 (72.2%)	118 65.6%	28 (31.1%)	13 (14.4%)	41 22.8%	9 (10.0%)	12 (13.3%)	21 11.6%	2.53	7.134*	Sig.
I feel let down when we lose in sports competitions.	38 (42.2%)	39 (43.3%)	135 (75%)	18 (20%)	24 (26.7%)	32 17.8%	34 (37.8%)	27 (30.0%)	13 7.2%	2.08	1.672	Not sig.
By more training, I will do better in sports	78 (86.7%)	81 (90.0%)	159 (88.3%)	10 (11.1%)	4 (4.4%)	14 7.8%	2 (2.2%)	5 (5.6%)	7 (3.9%)	2.84	3.914	Not sig.

N=180, df=2, p=0.05, c.v.=5.99

* Significant

The chi-square values obtained were significantly different on two questions, these are, aiming to be the best in school sports (6.024) and being on the first line-up of the school team (7.134). The percentage of girls who responded positively on these two questions was high (92.2% & 72.2%) compared to boys (80% & 58.9%) respectively. In class 5 and

class 6, girls are already capable of making up the school team, but at adolescence age (class 7 and 8) they "shy off" from the public because of the physiological changes they are experiencing (Bucher, 1982; Hottinger, 1992). On the other hand, boys at pre-adolescent age are still 'shy' and have no courage to engage in competitive sports, unlike at adolescent stage when they want to "show off" by being in the school team.

The Chi-square values on the other two factors were not significant. The hypothesis on this item may be split into two, whereby there was a significant difference between primary school boys and girls regarding the extent to which their success affects participation in organized sport on being the best in school sports and being on the first line-up of the school team always. However, responses on feeling let down when the school teams lose, or training to do better in sports had no significance difference.

The percentage of pupils who reported that they aimed to excel in sports was very high (86.1%) and also those who train so as to perform better in sports (88.3%). However, the percentage of pupils who indicated that they would like to be on the first line up of the school team was moderate (65.6%) while those who aimed at winning were many (75%). It may be assumed that the main reason leading children to participate in school sports is to master and excel in sports skills. However, some pupils indicated that they liked to engage in competitions, while a minimal percentage (42.2%) reported that they look forward to winning. Klint and Weiss (1987) conducted a study on perceived competence

and participation motives for participants in competitive gymnastics. Results revealed that children high in perceived physical competence were more motivated by mastery aspect of sports. Thus, children were motivated to participate in areas for which they perceived themselves to have high abilities.

In the current study, children show an inclination towards mastery of skills and have a minimal emphasis on the results. This is well-evidenced by the number of pupils who look forward towards winning (75%) and making up the school team (65.6%) compared to those who aim to excel in sports (86.1%) and want to have more training in sports (88.3%). The study by Orlick (1974) came up with different findings where children cited the competitive nature of the sports programme as one reason for withdrawing from sports. In that study, Orlick (1974) found out that children would like to participate in sports, but they do not like emphasis laid on sports competitions. This is because it denies them a chance to be creative in their course to mastering sports skills. Bucher (1982) showed this clearly in her study that revealed children's wish to be on a losing team than be part of a winning team as substitutes. Compared to the current study, these two studies (Bucher, 1982; Orlick, 1974) show how cultural diversity affects research findings, therefore need for more researches in this area of specialization.

4.4.2 Perceptions Towards Watching Sports Competitions

Section B(ii) asked pupils' about their personal perception of sports. Table 4 below shows details of pupils' responses on this question.

Table 4: Pupils' Response on Perceptions Towards Watching Sports Competitions

Factor	Response											
	Agree		Total	Not sure		Total	Disagree		Total	Mean	Chi-square	Comment
	Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls				
I like our school hosting sports competitions	83 (92.2%)	83 (92.2%)	166 (92.2%)	2 (2.2%)	3 (3.3%)	5 (2.8%)	5 (5.6%)	4 (4.4%)	9 (5%)	2.87	0.312	Not sig.
I enjoy watching sports competitions	76 (84.4%)	80 (88.9%)	156 (86.7%)	11 (12.2%)	7 (7.8%)	18 (10%)	3 (3.3%)	3 (3.3%)	6 (3.3%)	2.83	0.990	Not sig.

N= 180, df=2, p=0.05, c.v.=5.99

The chi-square values obtained showed that pupils' responses did not vary according to gender. A higher percentage (86.7%) of pupils indicated that they had positive perception towards watching sports competitions. Watching sports competitions is a way that can easily predict one's interest in sports and inspire them to participate more in sports. Those pupils who regularly watch sports competitions gain knowledge in tactics, drills and techniques used by others and therefore learn from such situations. That is why many coaches and trainers use videotapes of the best teams and players to train their own. Also, learning by observation increases the retention rate (Ayot & Patel, 1992) unlike learning by hearing. It may be assumed that the higher percentages of children who have positive perception towards sports are inspired by interest in sports. Also, it may be assumed that these children would like to be successful in sports like their peers

they watch during sports competitions. These two factors may lead to increased participation and mastery of skills in children sports.

4.4.3 Reasons for Participating in School Sports

Table 5 shows pupils response in details on reasons for participating in school sports.

Table 5: Pupils' Responses on Reasons for Participating in School Sports

Factor	Response									Mean	Chi-square	Comment
	Agree		Total	Not sure		Total	Disagree		Total			
	Boys	Girls		Girls	Boys		Boys	Girls				
Play with friends	68 (75.6%)	68 (75.6%)	136 (75.6%)	13 (14.4%)	11 (22.2%)	24 (13.%)	9 (10.0%)	11 (22.2%)	20 (11.1%)	2.64	0.360	Not sig.
Benefit from teachers' instructions	70 (77.8%)	66 (73.3%)	136 (75.6%)	11 (22.2%)	19 (21.1%)	30 (16.7%	9 (10.0%)	5 (5.6%)	14 (7.7%)	2.68	3.394	Not sig.
Competition	67 (74.4%)	66 (73.3%)	133 (73.9%)	12 (13.3%)	18 (20%)	39 (16.7%)	11 (22.2%)	5 (5.6%)	14 (7.7%)	2.64	4.090	Not sig.
Improve on talent	71 (78.9%)	70 (77.8%)	141 (78.3%)	15 (16.7%)	18 (20%)	33 (18.4%)	4 (4.4%)	2 (2.2%)	6 (3.3%)	2,74	0.753	Not sig.
Career in sports	57 (63.3%)	54 (60%)	111 (61.7%)	15 (16.7%)	30 (33.3%)	56 (31.4%)	13 (6.2%)	7 (7.8%)	6 (6.7%)	2.54	0.440	Not sig.
Enjoy and have fun	66 (73.3%)	68 (75.6%)	134 (74.5%)	12 (13.3%)	12 (13.3%)	24 (13.3%)	12 (13.3%)	10 (11.1%)	22 (12.2%)	2.62	0.104	Not sig.

N= 180, df=2, p=0.05, c.v.= 5.99

The chi-square values obtained showed that pupils' responses did not differ according to gender. Study findings showed that 78.3% of pupils suggested that improvement on talent is a major reason for participating in sports. The high percentage (78.3%) might be because mastery of skill is a major component of children to participation in sports. The

need to improve on sport skills is supported by pupils' response on the other factors that contribute to mastery of skills and they include; benefit from teachers' instruction, play with friends and enjoy and have fun. Making a career in sports was not a primary factor in children sports and pupils' response on this question was low (61.7%) compared to the other factors.

The role played by significant others was very critical in this study, considering the responses on benefit from teachers' instruction (75.6%) and responses on influence from friends and peers during competitions and play time (75.6%). In an earlier study, Horn (1985) found that athletes who received higher frequencies of criticism in responses to performance errors had higher perception of competence in relation to their counterparts. In the current study, a high percentage (75.6%) of pupils agreed that they benefit from teachers' instructions. This may be because they accept criticism from their teachers about their performance in the process of instruction. As in Horn's (1985) study, the current study assumes that corrections and positive criticisms from teachers enhance performance in the activities being offered.

In an earlier study, White (1959) stated that if mastery attempts result in efficacy, feelings of inherent pleasure are experienced and in turn maintain or enhance one's mastery of skills. In the current study, children accepted that they participate in sports to play with friends, enjoy and have fun. The concept of pleasure that leads to mastery of skills is attained. Therefore, according to theoretical predictions, children's desire to

improve on talent and master sports skills may be achieved, and will serve to increase participation.

4.5 Failure in Sports

Section C asked pupil's if failure in sports affects participation in organized sports. They were given five situations to which to respond. These situations included co-curricular activities, spending break time at school, representing the school in sports, and setting up time for sports practice and lastly, setbacks to participating in sports at school.

4.5.1 Preference of Co-Curricular Activities

Part (i) of this section had three co-curricular activities that asked pupils if they participate in these activities. Table 6 shows pupils' response in details.

Table 6: Pupils' Responses on Preference of Co-Curricular Activities

Factor	Response											
	Agree		Total	Not sure		Total	Disagree		Total	Mean	Chi-square	Comment
	Boys	Girls		Girls	Boys		Boys	Girls				
Clubs	58 (64.4%)	53 (58.9%)	111 (61.7%)	20 (22.2%)	19 (21.1%)	39 (21.6%)	12 (13.3%)	18 (20.0%)	30 (16.7%)	2.45	0.726	Not sig.
Sports	80 (88.9%)	74 (82.2%)	154 (85.6%)	5 (5.6%)	11 (12.2%)	16 (8.9%)	5 (5.6%)	5 (5.6%)	10 (5.5%)	2.80	2.484	Not sig.
Community work	54 (60.0%)	54 (60%)	133 (73.9%)	15 (16.7%)	15 (16.7%)	30 (16.7%)	21 (23.3%)	21 (23.3%)	14 (7.7%)	2.36	2.284	Not sig.

N=180, df=2, p=0.05, c.v.=5.99

The chi-square values obtained showed that pupil's responses did not vary because of gender. It can also be observed that a high percentage of pupils indicated that they would prefer to participate in sports (85.6%) than clubs (61.7%) and community work (73.3%). This means that sports was reported to be the most preferred co-curricular activity. Sapp and Haubensticker (1978) carried out a large-scale study on the youth at Michigan Youth Sports Institute where over 25% of the children were identified as potential dropouts. One of the reasons cited for this attributes was "other interest", which included engagement in other extra-curricular activities. A related study had been carried on the former Canadian Sports participants by Orlick (1974) and the factors identified for withdrawal included conflict of interests such as other co-curricular activities or responsibility with work. This indicates that other co-curricular activities can lead to withdrawal from sports. Pupils' responses suggested sports as a better social activity than either clubs or community work. This might be due to "the need to improve on their sports talents" apart from other social reasons like making friends, passing time, relaxing, having fun, and enjoyment, which can be achieved through the other extra curricular activities.

4.5.2 Spending Break Time While in School

Part (ii) of this section asked pupils' how they spent their break time while in school. Three options were given to them. Table 7 shows their response in details.

Table 7: Pupil's Responses on Spending Break Time while in School

Factor	Response											
	Agree		Total	Not sure		Total	Disagree		Total	Mean	Chi-square	Comment
	Boys	Girls		Girls	Boys		Boys	Girls				
Be with friends	66 (73.3%)	65 (72.2%)	131 (72.8%)	12 (13.3%)	11 (12.2%)	23 (12.8%)	12 (13.3%)	13 (14.4%)	26 (14.4%)	2.58	0.206	Not sig.
Go for games	75 (83.3%)	79 (87.8%)	154 (85.6%)	9 (10.0%)	5 (5.6%)	6 (6.7%)	14 (7.7%)	6 (6.7%)	6 (6.7%)	2.79	5.146	Not sig.
Have private studies	60 (66.7%)	63 (70.0%)	123 (68.3%)	22 (24.4%)	12 (13.3%)	34 (18.9%)	8 (8.9%)	155 (16.7%)	23 (12.9%)	2.79	5.146	Not sig.

N=180, df=2, p=0.05, c.v. = 5.99

The chi-square values obtained showed that pupils' responses did not vary because of gender. The findings showed 85.6% of pupils prefer to spend their break time for games rather than be with friends (72.8%) or have private studies (68.3%). One factor that comes here clearly is being involved in sports rather than merely being with friends. In the process of being involved in sports activities, increased performance on sports skills is achieved. Although children like being with friends at break time, they would rather engage in sports than merely be with friends in an idle circumstance. This showed that sports is more preferred, probably because it makes children achieve two aspects, namely being with friends and participating in an entertaining activity.

4.5.3 Representing the School in Sports Competitions

Part (iii) of this section asked about representing the school in sports competitions.

Pupils were given three options concerning representing their school in sports competitions. Table 8 shows pupils' responses in details.

Table 8: Pupils' Responses on Where to Represent the School in Sports Competitions

Factor	Response											
	Agree		Total	Not sure		Total	Disagree		Total	Mean	Chi-square	Comment
	Boys	Girls		Girls	Boys		Boys	Girls				
When held in the school so as not to miss studies	52 (59.8%)	53 (58.9%)	105 (58.3%)	20 (22.2%)	17 (18.9%)	37 (20.6%)	18 (20.0%)	20 (22.2%)	38 (21.1%)	2.37	0.360	Not sig.
Anywhere but not to miss studies	56 (62.2%)	54 (60.0%)	110 (61.1%)	22 (24.4%)	21 (23.3%)	43 (23.9%)	12 (13.3%)	15 (16.7%)	27 (15.0%)	2.31	0.394)	Not sig.
Anywhere even if I miss studies	26 (28.9%)	37 (41.1%)	63 (35.0%)	22 (24.4%)	15 (16.7%)	37 (20.6%)	42 (46.7%)	38 (42.2%)	80 (44.4%)	1.90	3.444	Not sig.

N=180, df=2, p-0.05, c.v.=5.99

The chi-square values obtained in table 8 showed that pupil's responses were not affected by gender. The most preferred condition was to represent the school anywhere but not to miss studies. There might appear to be conflict of interest between studies and sports. However, in the school set-up, both sports and studies are timetabled and pupils participate in both without having any negative results on either sports or studies.

4.5.4 Setting up Time for Sports Practice

Part (iv) of this section gave pupils two options concerning sports practice and asked for their preference. Table 9 shows details of pupils' response.

Table 9:Response on Setting up time for Sports Practice

	Response											
	Agree		Total	Not sure		Total	Disagree		Total	Mean	Chi- square	Comment
	Boys	Girls		Girls	Boys		Boys	Girls				
Coming to school early for sports practice (morning practice)	55 (61.1%)	52 (57.8%)	107 (59.4%)	14 (15.6%)	21 (23.3%)	35 (19.5%)	21 (23.3%)	27 (30.0%)	38 (21.1%)	2.38	1.904	Not sig.
Remaining behind in school for sports practice (evening practice)	67 (74.4%)	78 (86.7%	145 (80.6%)	16 (17.8%)	8 (8.9%)	24 (13.3%)	7 (7.8%)	4 (4.4%)	11 (6.1%)	2.74	4.318	Not sig.

N=180, df=2, p-0.05, c.v.=5.99

From the table, it can be observed that pupils' responses did not differ because of gender. Also, they preferred to remain behind in school for sports practice (evening practice – 80.6%) than come to school early in the morning for sports practice (morning practice – 59.4%). This can be well understood because the schools under study are day schools.

Pupils therefore, come to school ready to start classes in the morning. Any other activity may distract their daily schedule and make them perform poorly in class. Also, these schools lack essential facilities like changing rooms; therefore children did not have the opportunity to shower and change before they start their classes. However, in the evening, there is sufficient time to practice after classes and go home relaxed. After a day's work, evening practice is like a refresher to make one relax. Muindi (1998) looked at timetabling as a critical issue in school sports. Evening practice and physical education lessons as the last to break time were more preferred by the teachers and

students in the above study. Pupils' views on this question were well incorporated because they might help in the school timetabling. Time is very critical to children participation in sports. Lack of playing time, engagement in other co-curricular activities, involvement with work/studies featured prominently in studies by Orlick (1974) and Sapp & Haupensticker (1978) as the main factors leading to attrition from sports. The same reasons as hindrance to participation have been noted in the current study, where many pupils reported that they prefer evening practice (80.6%) than morning practice (59.4%).

4.5.5 Setbacks to Participation in School Sports

Part (v) of this section gave pupils eleven factors and asked how they hinder their participation in sports. The statement read, "Although I like participating in school sports---."Table 10 shows pupils` response in details.

Table 10: Pupils' Responses on Setbacks to Participating in School Sports

Factor	Response											
	Agree		Total	Not sure		Total	Disagree		Total	Mean	Chi-square	comment
	Boys	Girls		Girls	Boys		Boys	Girls				
Never win	31 (34.4%)	31 (34.4%)	62 (34.4%)	32 (35.6%)	17 (18.9%)	49 (27.2%)	27 (30.0%)	42 (46.7%)	69 (38.4%)	1.96	7.852*	Sig.
Have no partner	15 (16.7%)	25 (27.8%)	40 (22.2%)	33 (36.7%)	23 (25.6%)	56 (31.1%)	42 (46.7%)	42 (46.7%)	84 (46.7%)	1.76	4.284	Not sig.
Teacher gives much practice	24 (26.7%)	32 (35.6%)	56 (31.1%)	21 (23.3%)	17 (18.9%)	38 (21.1%)	45 (50.0)	41 (45.6)	86 (47.8%)	1.83	1.748	Not sig.
Feel shy	32 (35.6%)	38 (42.2%)	70 (38.9%)	21 (23.3%)	14 (15.6%)	35 (19.4%)	37 (41.1%)	38 (42.2%)	75 41.7%	1.97	0.964	Not sig.
Get tired	55 (61.1%)	60 (66.7%)	115 (63.9%)	19 (21.1%)	7 (7.8%)	26 (14.4%)	10 (25.6%)	23 (25.6%)	39 (21.7%)	2.42	7.012*	Sig.
Time wasting	40 (44.4%)	41 (45.6%)	81 (45.0%)	22 (24.4%)	13 (14.4%)	35 (19.4%)	28 (31.1%)	36 (40.0%)	64 35.6%	2.09	2.326	Not sig.
Injuries	62 (68.9%)	50 (55.6%)	112 (62.2%)	13 (14.4%)	12 (13.3%)	27 (15.0%)	15 (16.7%)	26 (28.9%)	41 22.8%	2.39	4.276	Not sig.
Feel hungry	36 (40.0%)	50 (55.6%)	86 (47.7%)	20% (22.2%)	13% (14.4%)	33 (18.3%)	34 (37.8%)	27 (30.0%)	61 (34.0%)	2.14	4.566	Not sig.
Fighting	25 (27.8%)	29 (32.2%)	54 (30.0%)	20 (22.2%)	19 (21.1%)	39 (21.7%)	45 (50.0%)	42 (46.7%)	87 (48.3%)	1.82	0.452	Not sig.
The captain is so harsh	28 (31.1%)	31 (34.4%)	59 (32.8%)	31 (34.4%)	26 (28.9%)	57 (31.7%)	31 34.4%)	33 (36.7%)	64 (35.6%)	1.97	0.652	Not sig.
The teacher is very strict	31 (34.4%)	32 (35.6%)	63 (35.0%)	23 (25.6%)	21 (23.3%)	43 (23.9%)	36 (40.0%)	37 (41.1%)	73 (40.6)	1.94	0.120	Not sig.

N=180, df= 2, p=0.05, c.v.=5.99

* Significant

The chi-square values obtained show that pupils' responses were varied by gender on two items, that is, "never win" and "get tired". However, the percentage of pupils who agreed on the two items were almost similar, (34.4%) for both boys and girls on "Never

win" and 61.1% for boys and 66.7% for girls on "Get tired". Responses on both items were more varied on those who tallied "Not sure" and "Disagree". Many girls than boys indicated that they were either not sure or disagreed on these two items. Many studies have shown that girls usually participate in sports for other reasons but not mainly winning (Bucher, 1982). Also, studies have shown that getting tired while participating in sports is a reason raised mainly by boys than girls for attrition from sports (Bucher, 1982; Orlick, 1974). Therefore, it can be stated that there was a significant difference between primary school boys and girls regarding the extent to which their failure affect participation in organized sports on two items, namely, "never win" and "get tired".

Factors that hinder pupils` participation in sports had mixed responses. The study by Orlick (1974) provides a guide to understand this, where he noted that; majority of children who indicated that they would not continue their participation the following year cited negative experiences such as lack of playing time, the competitive emphasis of the programme, and dislike for the coach. Also, children reported lack of playing time and lack of successful experiences or conflict of interest such as other extra-curricular activities or responsibility with work as other factors that lead to withdrawal from sports. In the current study, factors that clearly affect participation in sports include injuries sustained during play (62.2%) and getting tired after play (63.9%). Another factor on

which many pupils agreed to was feeling hungry (47.7%). Physiological reasons seem to be key factors as hindrance to pupils' participation in sports.

Two factors which had a low percentage were "Never win" (34.4%) and "having no partner" (22.2%). However, sports being viewed as a time-wasting activity slightly showed significance a high percentage (45.0%). "The teacher giving much practice" was also not rated highly (31.1%), same to feeling shy (38.9%), fighting (30.0%), captain being harsh (32.8%) and the teacher being very strict (35.0%). Factors that do not directly affect children's improvement on sports skills did not feature as prominent, while those directly linked to performance (injuries and get tired) had higher percentage of pupils agreeing that they affect their participation in sports. Results suggest that children are interested on factors that affect their performance in sports skills. Other factors that are secondary to performance are viewed as less important. It may be assumed that children perceived competence is based on factors that will make them perform better in sports through participation.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECCOMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations on matters related to policy implementations and areas for further research, with regard to pupils' participation in organized sport. The chapter is divided into summary, conclusions and recommendations for policy implementation and recommendation for further studies.

5.2 Summary and Conclusions

Several major conclusions about factors that affect pupil participation in organized sport may be drawn from the findings of the study. The first important factor identified in the current study was that interest of pupils in sports is high. Many pupils noted that they like sports and sporting activities either as spectators or participants. Due to the higher interest noted, it is expected that many pupils might participate in organized sports. This is because interest is the foundation for participation, not only in sports but also in all activities especially for children. Bucher (1982) and Rink (1993), in their studies with children sports noted that to attract children and adolescents in sports and physical education, teachers and parents need to arouse their interest even with activities not

directly related to sports. This will include giving them a chance to include activities they like most in the physical education lessons.

Responses of pupils concerning success levels in sports were also positive. As a result of increased success level, participation in sports could be expected to rise. Petlichkoff (1988) in her study about involvement and sustenance in sports, found that children who are more successful in sport participate more than those who experience low success level. The high percentage of children who are involved in sports are likely to participate more because of the higher success levels experienced.

The study also noted that children are attracted to sports for a variety of reasons, which may be social, or activity-oriented. Many studies concerning youth sports have identified various factors that attract children to sports. These include fun, enjoyment, making friends and improvement of sports skills (Alderman & Wood, 1976; Bucher, 1982; Cooper, 1990, Francois, 1990; Gould, 1982; Hottinger, 1992). Among all these factors identified by researchers in children sports, the most salient factor was improvement in sports skills.

Children like participating in sports, despite the pressure of studies and other social factors. The greatest attraction in youth sports is participation and improvement in sports

skills. Teachers should aim at improving on these two factors in youth sports. Encouragement of mass sports in schools and allowing children to be creative without being tied to established sports rules is one way of encouraging children to fully engage in sports.

While offering sports activities to children, all factors that limit participation should be controlled. The data obtained from the current study suggest that these factors were mainly physiological and included injuries, hunger and exhaustion. These factors could directly affect improvement in sports skills because they lead to decline participation and withdrawal/failure in sports.

The current study dealt with factors that affect children`s participation in sports. These factors included interest in sports, success in sports and failure in sports. It was found that participation in sports is related to improvement in sport skills. With increased participation, improved skill performance is attained. Interest in sports and success in sports skills leads to increased participation and improved performance. However, experiencing failure in sports leads to decreased participation.

5.3 Recommendations for Policy Implementation

It is recommended that children be involved in determining sporting activities they like participating in so that they are included in the programme. Also, teachers and all those concerned with sports should try to identify activities that will attract children to sports. The interest already existing in children sports, should be maintained and/or increased to sustain children`s participation in sports. Teacher training colleges and universities should introduce this idea to the teacher trainees so that it is applied once they start teaching.

It is recommended that teachers and all those involved in children`s sports identify and tap the talent of children at an early age so that their potential to improve on sports skills is maximized. Establishing youth sports centres countrywide for various sports to nurture children's talent early in life is one way of improving youth talent and skills. Schools may be used as venues for youth sports so that teachers monitor children's progress. The ministry concerned with sports in conjunction with the Ministry of Education can work together to achieve this goal.

The learning environment is very critical to children because it directly affects participation. Where a lot of negative criticism and harassment are prominent, learning declines (Ayot & Patel, 1992). Therefore, teachers and all those concerned with sports

should provide ample learning environment for children without any form of harassment. Teacher training colleges and universities should organize for short courses and seminars for sports teachers on the relationship between the teacher and learners and setting up ample learning environment.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Studies

- An important factor in youth sports is to establish standards for the youth. Physical education specialists should carry out countrywide studies to help them set up national norms for the purpose of monitoring youth performance on sports skills.

- More studies should be carried out to identify ways through which improved sports skills may be achieved.

- Further studies dealing with attrition from sports should be carried out so that the hindering factors are identified and corrected before they limit youth participation in sports.

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APPENDIX A

PUPILS' QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS (CLASS 5 AND 6)

Instructions:

We are interested in what you think and feel about sports. Answer all questions as honestly as possible.

SECTION I

The first section requires you to give some personal and general information. Tick in the appropriate box or fill in the spaces.

Section I (personal and General Information)

1. Gender: Boy ( ) Girl ( )
2. Name of your school _____
3. Your age _____ years
4. Your class: Class 5 ( ) class 6 ( )

Section II

This section contains a number of statements. Study each of the statements and indicate with a tick (✓) whether you:

(a) Agree (A)

(b) Not sure (NS)

(c) Disagree (D)

Part A: Interest in Sports

		Response		
	Factor	A	NS	D
1	I participate in sports at school			
2	I try to improve in my sports skills			
3	I like being part of the school team			
4	I train for selection in the school team			
5	If I am left out of the school team, I will drop from school sports			
6	I aim to be selected in the school team when I join secondary school			

PART B: Success in Sports

(i) Performance in School Sports

		Response		
	Factor	A	NS	D
1	I aim to be the best in school sports			
2	I aim to be on the first line -up of the school team always.			
3	I feel let down when we lose in sports competitions			
4	By more training, I will do better in sports.			

(ii) **Perceptions Towards Watching Sports Competitions**

		Response		
	Factor	A	NS	D
1	I like our school hosting sports competitions.			
2	I enjoy watching sports competitions			

(iii) Reasons for participating in School Sports

		Response		
	Factor	A	NS	D
1	Play with friends			
2	Benefit from teachers' instructions			
3	Competition			
4	Improve on talent			
5	Career in sports			
6	Enjoy and have fun			

PART C: Failure in Sports

(i) Preference of Extra Curricular Activities

		Response		
	Factor	A	NS	D
1	Sports			
2	Clubs			
3	Community work			

ii) Spending Break Time while at School

		Response		
	Factor	A	NS	D
1	Be with friends			
2	Go for games			
3	Have private studies			

(ii) **Where to Represent the School in Sports Competitions**

		Response		
	Factor	A	NS	d
1	When held in the school so as not to miss studies.			
2	Anywhere, but not miss studies			
3	Anywhere even if I miss studies			

(iii) **Setting up time for sports practice**

		Response		
	Factor	A	NS	d
1	Coming to school early for sports practice (morning practice)			
2	Remain behind in school for sports practice (evening practice			

(iv) **Setbacks to participating in School Sports**

		Response		
	Factor	A	NS	D
1	Never win			
2	Have no partner			
3	Teacher gives much practice			
4	Feel shy			
5	Get tired			
6	Time wasting			
7	Injuries			
8	Feel hungry			
9	Fighting			
10	Captain is so harsh			
11	Teacher is very strict.			

APPENDIX B

LIST OF PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN SHINYALU DIVISION OF KAKAMEGA DISTRICT:

A . SHINYALU SOUTH ZONE

1. Bukusi Primary School
2. Busilwa Primary School
3. Iyenga Primary School
4. Khayega Primary School
5. Mukhonje Primary School
6. Mugomari Primary School
7. Mukumu Girls School
8. Mukumu Mixed Primary
9. Munasio Primary School
10. Muraka Primary School
11. Musingu Primary School
12. Shina Primary School
13. Shitochi Primary School
14. shipalo Primary School
15. Shikalakala Primary School
16. Shilalyo Primary School
17. Mundulu Primary School
18. Shidodo Primary School

B. SHINYALU CENTRAL ZONE

1. Wanzalala Primary School
2. Shihuli Primary School
3. Lukango Primary School
4. Lugose Primary School
5. Kwirenyi Primary School
6. Likhovero Primary School
7. Mwilitsa Primary School
8. shanjero Primary School
9. Shibuye Mixed Primary
10. Shibuye Girls Primary
11. Museno Primary School
12. Irobo Primary School
13. Shanyinya Primary School
14. Isolyo Primary School
15. Shagungu Primary School
16. Shikulu Primary School
17. Ivuyi Primary School
18. Iloro Primary School
19. Isecheno Primary School
20. Kisaina Primary School
21. Shirulu Primary School

C. SHINYALU WEST ZONE

1. Lugala Primary School
2. Shabwali Primary School
3. Madala Primary School
4. Muleche Primary School
5. Itenyi Primary School
6. Injira Primary School
7. Lwanda Primary School
8. Madioli Primary School
9. Mukulusu Primary School
10. Munyanda Primary School
11. Muranda Primary School
12. Senyende Primary School
13. Shamiloli Primary School
14. Shavirotsi Primary School
15. Shivakala Primary School
16. Lirhanda Mixed Primary School
17. Lirhanda Girl Primary
18. Shiswa Primary School