

KSh 4,000/-

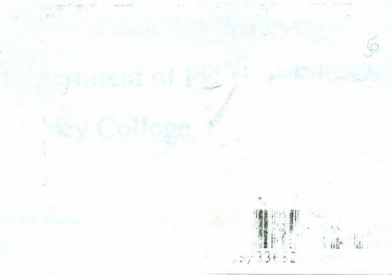
**ANALYSIS OF DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS
AFFECTING ACHIEVEMENT GOAL ORIENTATION
AND SATISFACTION AMONG KENYA VOLLEYBALL
LEAGUE PLAYERS**

**BY
MUGALLA HANNINGTON BULINDA (M.ED)**

REG NO. 184/0033/2003

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT FOR THE
AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY IN THE SCHOOL OF APPLIED
HUMAN SCIENCES OF KENYATTA UNIVERSITY**

NOVEMBER 2008



KENYATTA UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

DECLARATION

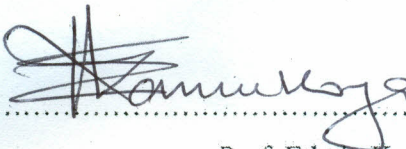
"This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university"

.....Date 24/11/2008


Hannington Mugalla Bulinda
Reg No. I84/0033/2003

SUPERVISORS' APPROVAL

This thesis has been submitted with our approval as University supervisors:

.....Date 24TH NOV 2008

Prof. Edwin K. Wamukoya
Associate Professor
Department of Exercise, Recreation and Sports Science
Kenyatta University

.....Date 24.11.2008

Dr. Njororai W.W. Simiyu
Associate Professor
Department of Physical Education
Wiley College, Marshall, Texas

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I acknowledge all those who helped me attain my goal in coming up with this thesis, notably, my University Supervisors Prof. E. K. Wamukoya and Dr. W. W. Simiyu Njororai, Lecturers in the Department of Sports and Exercise Science (Prof. Mike Boit, Dr. Mwangi Wanderi, Dr. Andanje Mwisukha, Dr. Vincent Onywera, Mr. Robert Muniu, Mr. E. Wahome, Mr. Simon Gathua, Mr. Peter Bukhala, Mr. George Kiganjo, Mrs. Y. Goodwin, Mrs. Hellen Muthomi, Mr. David Muigai, Ms Jane Kamau, graduate students in the department namely Mary Mwihaki, Issa Kweyu and Vincent Muasya for their assistance in coming up with this work. Additionally, I greatly thank Mr. P. K. Muchemi of graduate school for the assistance he offered during the presentations to the graduate school.

I also acknowledge the assistance I got from Dr. Elijah Gitonga while working on my thesis. I equally acknowledge the Kenya Volleyball Federation fraternity especially for the assistance they offered me during data collection especially Mr. Isalamba Miendo, Mr. Evans Wasike, Mr. Odudo, Mr. Chenje, Peter Likuyani coaches, trainers and players of various teams in the national leagues. Lastly but equally significant I thank my family particularly my wife Leonora and my children Belinda, Dina, Abigail, Elsie and Cyrus for their unending hope they had during my studies. May God bless you all abundantly.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE.....	i
DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.....	xii
ABSTRACT.....	xiii
CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background to the Problem	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	6
1.3 Purpose of the Study	7
1.4 Objectives of the Study.....	7
1.5 Research Hypotheses	8
1.6 Significance of the Study.....	9
1.7 Delimitations of the Study	11
1.8 Limitations of the Study.....	11
1.9 Assumptions of the Study	12
1.10 Theoretical Framework.....	12
1.10.1 Achievement Goals.....	15
1.11 Operational Definition of Terms.....	21

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	24
2.1 Introduction.....	24
2.2 Achievement Goal Orientation in Sports.....	24
2.3 Satisfaction in Sports	25
2.4 Research on Achievement Goal Orientation in Sports	26
2.4.1 Goal Orientation and Gender Differences in Sports	27
2.4.2 Goal Orientation, Ability and Age in Sports	32
2.4.3 Goal Orientation, Status and Level of Participation	37
2.5 Research on Satisfaction in Sports.....	41
2.5.1 Research on Satisfaction and Motivation among Athletes	42
2.5.2 Research on Satisfaction and Motivation among Elite Athletes.....	44
2.5.3 Research on Satisfaction and Motivation among Athletic Trainers and Coaches.....	50
2.5.4 Research on Satisfaction and Leadership in Sports	58
2.6 Measuring Goal Orientation and Satisfaction in Sports	63
2.6.1 Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ).....	64
2.6.2.The Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ)	67
2.7 Research on Goal Orientation and Satisfaction in Sports.....	70
2.8 Summary of Literature Reviewed.....	75
CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY:.....	78
3.1 Introduction.....	78
3.2 The Research Design	78

3.3 Target Population.....	79
3.4 The Sample and Sampling Procedures	80
3.5 Instruments for Data Collection.....	81
3.6 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments.....	84
3.7 Pilot Study.....	86
3.8 Procedures for Data Collection.....	88
3.9 Data Analysis	88
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION.....	90
4.1 Introduction.....	90
4.2 Demographic Factors among Kenya Volleyball League Players	90
4.3 Demographic characteristics and Goal Orientation among Kenya Volleyball League Players	95
4.4 Goal Orientations and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players	106
4.5 Age and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players	112
4.6 Gender and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players	118
4.7 Ability and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players.....	124
4.8 Status and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players	130
4.9 Experience and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players	135
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND	
RECOMMENDATIONS.....	140
5.1 Introduction.....	140
5.2 Hypotheses and Summary of the Findings	140

5.2.1 Demographic Information of Kenya Volleyball League Players	142
5.2.2 Goal Orientation of Kenya Volleyball League Players	142
5.2.3 Satisfaction of Kenya Volleyball League Players	143
5.3 Conclusions.....	144
5.3.1 Demographic Information among Kenya Volleyball League Players	144
5.3.2 Goal Orientation among Kenya Volleyball League Players.....	145
5.3.3 Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players.....	146
5.4.0 Recommendations.....	148
5.4.1 Recommendations for Implementation.....	149
5.4.2 Recommendations for Policy Formulation	150
5.4.3 Recommendations for Further Studies.....	151
REFERENCES.....	152
APPENDIX A.....	162
APPENDIX B	163
APPENDIX C.....	164
APPENDIX D.....	165

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Demographic Distribution of Kenya Volleyball League Players.....	91
Table 4.2: Chi-square test of independence between goal orientation variables (ego and task) and demographic factors.....	96
Table 4.3: Players independent group t-ratios for both ego and task oriented players on satisfaction components.....	107
Table 4.4: Age mean differences and independent group t-ratios for both younger and older players on satisfaction components	113
Table 4.5: Gender means and independent group t-ratios for both male and female Players on satisfaction components.....	119
Table 4.6: Team level means and independent group t-ratios for both division one and two players on satisfaction components and goal orientation.....	125
Table 4.7: Player status means and independent group t-ratios for both starters and non-starter players on satisfaction components	131
Table 4.8: Players experience means and independent group t-ratios for both experienced and less experienced players on satisfaction components	136

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Showing Psychological factors of success in sports.....14

Figure 2: Showing relationship between Goal Orientation and demographic factors.....16

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

- ATP-Attitude Towards Physical Activity
- AOI-Achievement Orientation Inventory.
- ASQ-Achievement Satisfaction Questionnaire.
- BACSSQ-Belief About the Causes of Sport Success Questionnaire.
- CFA-Confirmatory Factor Analysis.
- CL-Comparison Level.
- CL-alt-Comparison Level of alternatives.
- ECAC-Eastern Collegiate Athletic Conference.
- FIRO-Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation Scale.
- FIVB-Federation Internationale de Volleyball (International Volleyball Federation).
- IOR-Industrial Organization Recreation Scale.
- KVF-Kenya Volleyball Federation
- LSS-Leadership Scale for Sports.
- MANOVA-Multiple Analyses of Variance.
- MOS-Motivation Orientation Scale.
- NCAA-National Collegiate Athletic Association
- PCSC-Perceived Competence Scale for Children.
- PMQ-Participation Motivation Questionnaire.
- PPSQ-Perceived Purpose of Sports Questionnaire.
- SAS-Sports Anxiety Scale.
- SEM-Structural Equation Modelling.
- SMS-Sports Motivation Scale.
- SPSS-Statistical Package for Social Sciences.
- TEOSQ-Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire.
- TLBI-Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory

ABSTRACT

This study sought to investigate relationship between demographic factors, goal orientation and satisfaction of Kenya's volleyball league players. It was guided by the hypothesis that demographic factors of Kenya volleyball league players have no significant difference on goal orientation and satisfaction. Demographic factors under study-included age, gender, participation status, level, and experience. Demographic questionnaire, the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) and the Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) were the instruments for data collection. A total of 134 volleyball players from twelve National Volleyball League division one and two teams participated in the study. The players were selected by stratified random sampling. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, t-ratios and Chi square test of independence (χ^2) (p,.05). Findings of the study showed that 72(53.7%) of Kenya volleyball league players were below 25 years of age. It was also found that task oriented players were more satisfied than ego oriented players. Additionally, the study found that younger players were more satisfied than older players despite both categories being task oriented ($\chi^2=1.925>.165$), while female players were found to be more task oriented ($\chi^2=1.925>.165$) and satisfied than their male counterparts. Division 1 and 2 players were found to be task oriented ($\chi^2=1.424>.233$) with division 2 players being more satisfied. Starters and non-starters were both found to be task oriented ($\chi^2= 0.508>.476$) with non-starters being more satisfied on all satisfaction components on the ASQ. Lastly, experienced and non-experienced players were both found to be task oriented ($\chi^2=0.560>.454$), with inexperienced players being more satisfied. The study showed that task oriented players were more satisfied than ego oriented players with majority of the players being task oriented. Also, it was found that apart from gender, other demographic factors under study do not influence players' goal orientation. However, it was found that goal orientation and demographic factors influence players' satisfaction. The study recommended goal orientation assessment on players to help determine satisfaction components to be enhanced, separate training tactics and techniques for men and women, emphasis on non-starters' role on the team, increase of provisions to division one teams and recruitment of players to the teams to include both younger and older players. Talent spotting of players was also recommended to commence at a youthful age. Also, more attention needs to be laid on experienced players to help them raise their low satisfaction levels. It was further recommended that studies on goal orientation and satisfaction using different levels of players participation from those used in this study be carried out. Also, a study on goal orientation and cultural differences was recommended.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Problem

For many years, interest in physical activity has focused on beneficial health related outcomes, such as reduced risk of cardiovascular diseases, osteoporosis and obesity (Kahan, 2007; Kinoti, 1998; Weiss, 2000). From a social psychological view, the focus on consequences of physical activity emphasizes on understanding of the determinants of physical activity behaviour (Gitonga, 1998; Goodway & Rudisill, 1997; Harter, 1982; Ogundele & Akintekun, 2007). That is, what motivates athletes to continue and sustain physical activity levels? Why is there such a dramatic decline in physical activity during adolescence and how can we control declining physical activity levels? Such a motivational perspective leads to possible intervention strategies that can be implemented by parents, teachers, coaches and peer groups who play an active role in the lives of youths in homes, neighbourhood, schools and sport contexts (Gitonga, 1998; Kinoti, 1998; Kahan; 2007; Muindi, 1998).

Sport psychologists have come up with several theories on participation motivation and achievement. One of these theories is achievement motivation (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980; Nicholls, 1984) that considers goal orientation as a construct under the broad conceptual framework of achievement. According to Nicholls (1984), achievement goal displayed by task or ego orientation influences the attainment of achievement motivation. Research findings suggest that interventions designed to

enhance perceptions of competence, social support and enjoyment will result in children and youth maintaining and increasing physical activity participation levels (Weiss, 1993; Zahariadis *et-al*; 2000). Achievement goal has been associated with performance and satisfaction with sports (Hom *et-al*, 1998; Maday, 2000; Petlichkoff, 1993). This study aimed to understand achievement goal and satisfaction because the two dimensions in sports can be understood well while studied concurrently (Maday, 2000). Riemer & Chelladurai (1998) and Setter & Asli (2005) stated that satisfaction is a key factor among athletes in determining performance, hence need for the two aspects to be studied concurrently in this study. Many questions usually arise while studying satisfaction in sports such as: what is the athletes' goal orientation? (Duda & Nicholls, 1992; Ipinmoroti, 2005) and what is the athletes' demographic information? (Riemer & Toon, 2001; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990). In trying to answer some of these questions, an earlier study by Petlichkoff (1993) revealed that athletes who make the team but did not play games on a consistent basis have significant decrease from the beginning of the season in goal orientation, perceived competence and level of satisfaction compared to athletes who played frequently.

Petlichkoff (1993) found a positive relationship between participation and performance in sports, which is a basis for this study. This study sought to investigate goal orientation and satisfaction and its relationship to players' demographic factors of gender, age, participation status (starters or non starters), years of competitive play (experience) and the performance level (division one or two) among Kenya Volleyball League Players.

Understanding players satisfaction, goal orientation and its relationship to varying demographic factors is vital in analyzing players' and teams' performances.

In studying satisfaction among college runners, Maday (2000) used the Task and Ego Orientation in Sports Questionnaire (TEOSQ) developed by Duda & Nicholls (1992) together with The Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) developed by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998). Earlier, while Petlichkoff (1993) had used the Achievement Orientation Inventory (AOI) together with a researcher designed satisfaction questionnaire to understand players participation and satisfaction. Consequently, studies on goal orientations (Duda, 1989; Duda & Hom, 1993; White, Duda & Keller, 1998; White & Zellner, 1996; and Williams, 1994) have utilized diverse variables for them to be understood. Demographic information alone is very basic and usually requires other salient variables to make further explanations. Triangulation has been a common factor in satisfaction studies to help explain relationships between satisfaction and other underlying factors (Settar & Asli, 2005).

Therefore, this study aimed at getting necessary information to help in the reviewing of sport environment based on goal orientation and satisfaction. Goal orientation was studied in this study by examining task and ego orientation in Kenya volleyball league players, while satisfaction observed the 15 components on the Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) developed by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998). These satisfaction components include individual performance, team performance, ability

utilization, strategy, personal treatment, training and instruction, team social contribution, team task contribution, ethics, team integration, personal dedication, budget, medical personnel, academic support services, and external agents.

In Kenya, volleyball is run by Kenya Volleyball Federation (KVF), which is an affiliate of International Volleyball Federation (FIVB) Kenya Volleyball Federation, 2004). The Kenya volleyball league has two categories; division one and two for both men and women. Each division involves a maximum of twelve teams for men and a similar number for women. Due to financial constraints, most teams drop out of the league midway. This has greatly affected the women division two league, which has not been running since the year 2003. However, KVF organizes tournaments in various zones of the country where many schools, colleges and university teams participate. The institutional teams provide a second cadre of teams that act as a division two level. Some of the players in these institutional teams are invited for national team trials and perform well hence they are selected to the national team. Winners and runner up of national division two league get promoted to national division one league, while winners of national division one league represent the country at the East and Central Africa Championships and the African Club Championships. The national volleyball team is mainly made up of players from teams playing in national leagues and Kenyan players in clubs outside the country.

According to the Kenya Volleyball League Newsletter (2005) the performance of Kenya's male volleyball club General Service Unit in the 2005 African Club Championships in which it won a bronze medal was very impressive and the best in the history of men Volleyball in Kenya. Additionally, Kenya women clubs performed well in the 2005 African Club Championships in which they finished first (Kenya Pipeline), third (Kenya Commercial Bank) and Fourth (Telkom Kenya). The second team in this championship was Ah Ahly of Egypt, the only non Kenyan Team among the top four. The women's national team also qualified to represent Africa in the 2006 World Cup Championships together with Egypt and Cameroun after winning the women African championships in Nigeria in 2005.

These results show that Kenya's women volleyball players perform better than their male counterparts in continental tournaments. Therefore, the relationship between gender and performance has raised critical issues that this study sought to analyse. The question often raised is why female Kenya volleyball players perform better than male players. This has also led to more questions whether other demographic factors, notably age, status, experience and ability might be responsible for this disparity in performance. Also, studies on goal orientation (Duda, 1992, 1998; Duda and Nicholls, 1998; Petlichkof, 1993) have linked goal orientation and satisfaction to performance. This study sought to establish whether task and ego orientation affect performance and what effect satisfaction has on performance. Also, the study sought to establish if satisfaction, and hence performance of athletes is determined by demographic variables of age,

team level, player participation status and experience level. Sport psychologists have explained players' performance through goal orientation and satisfaction. Therefore, this study sought to analyse demographic factors affecting achievement goal orientation and satisfaction of Kenya volleyball league players.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Volleyball is the most successful team sport in Kenya particularly among women teams (FIVB, 2004). Kenya women clubs have won several regional and continental trophies including the African Club Championships in the year 2004 and 2005, and the East and Central African Club championships for the years 2002, 2003, 2004 and 2005 (KVF, 2005) making the sport very popular in schools, urban centres, colleges and the nation at large. Although performances in global competitions have not been outstanding, regular appearances of Kenya's women's national team in these competitions have propelled the team and country to international recognition. However, the men's team has failed to match the achievements of their women counterparts leading to several questions about this gender disparity. Other salient demographic factors highlighted in this study and often raise questions among sport psychologists include age, experience, participation status and ability.

Sport psychologists have tried to explain such phenomena through achievement goal orientation (Nicholls, 1984). Research has shown that task oriented individuals' aim at skill mastery, whereas ego oriented persons are inclined towards public display (Duda, 1989; Duda &

Nicholls, 1992; Nichols, 1984). To emphasize understanding of athlete performance, psychologists have also tried to explain it through satisfaction in sport. This study has examined several components that comprise team and individual satisfaction in sport and analysed their relationship with goal orientation. The present study sought to examine all these underlying factors by contextualizing demographic factors, goal orientation and satisfaction under one study.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The study was designed to analyze gender, age, ability, status, experience and level of satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players. Also, the relationship between the players' goal orientation and demographic information was examined.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

This study sought to analyze effects of demographic factors on achievement goal and satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players. Specifically, the study sought to meet the following objectives;

1. To establish the demographic characteristics of Kenya volleyball league players.
2. To determine the relationship between goal orientation and demographic characteristics of Kenya volleyball league players.
3. To establish the relationship between goal orientation and satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players.

4. To determine the relationship between demographic characteristics of age, gender, participation status, players' ability and experience towards satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The study hypothesis was that demographic factors would not affect goal orientation and satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players. For purposes of testing, it was further hypothesized that;

Ho₁. There is no significant difference between task and ego orientations on the basis of Kenya volleyball league players' characteristics that include:

- a) Age
- b) Gender
- c) Status
- d) Ability
- e) Experience

Ho₂. There is no significant difference between task and ego orientations on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players.

Ho₃. There is no significant difference among Kenya volleyball league players of different age categories on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction.

- Ho₄. There is no significant difference between male and female players on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players.
- Ho₅. There is no significant difference among Kenya volleyball league players of different status on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction.
- Ho₆. There is no significant difference among Kenya volleyball league players of different abilities on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction.
- Ho₇. There is no significant difference among Kenya volleyball league players of varying experience level on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction.

1.6 Significance of the Study

There is scanty information concerning analysis of goal orientation and satisfaction in sport among Kenya Volleyball League Players. Earlier studies carried out on Kenya volleyball players include Bailasha (2002) on effectiveness of serves used during the 12th women's African volleyball clubs championship and Wekesa (1993) on the injuries and illnesses during the 8th African women's volleyball championship. These studies serve as bases for studying volleyball in Kenya but do not address on the issues of sports psychology, the domain of this study, or goal orientation and satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players, hence need for this study.

Sport is a social activity as well as full time occupation for professional athletes. The methods of understanding goal orientation and satisfaction of athletes can be extended to other employment domains /professions so that

employers can analyse the productivity of their employees against their achievement goals and satisfaction.

Sports trainers and coaches need to understand athletes' goal orientation because of its relationship towards motivation and performance. This study avails correct information on how coaches can instruct their athletes based on goal orientations. Also, findings of this study are useful to coaches and trainers during selection of players to help on deciding what attention to give to each athlete according to his/her orientation and satisfaction in sport.

Satisfaction components contribute to the success of the team. Team managers should be able to attain the listed components of satisfaction towards their players so that performance is optimal. This study provides a comprehensive list of satisfaction components in any physical activity domain.

Sport has become a big industry through professionalism. The methods of selecting players by clubs have become complicated. Understanding a player's psychological background may be very necessary as a predetermination of future performance potential. Goal orientation and satisfaction may be a good way of obtaining the necessary information for further analysis by coaches and trainers. Based on the results of this study, teams will need to employ experts in sports psychology to advice players accordingly on issues of psychological training during team preparations and competitions.

Studies on goal orientation and satisfaction are still being undertaken, thus this study helps in understanding theories in the domain of physical activity. Theories of goal orientation and satisfaction are enhanced through the findings of this study. Findings of this study are a guide for research and instructional purpose in the area of physical education, sports science and physical activity.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

This study was delimited to the following factors,

1. Goal orientation was measured according to the results of the Task and Ego Orientation in Sports Questionnaire (TEOSQ) (Duda and Nicholls, 1992).
2. Level of satisfaction was measured according to the results of the Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) (Riemer and Chelladurai, 1998).
3. Demographic information was delimited to gender, age, ability, participation status and experience.
4. The sample of this study was delimited to the year 2004 Kenya Volleyball League Players in Divisions one and two.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Lack of local related literature led the researcher to utilize foreign-based material adapted to the Kenya situation. The difference in social and cultural environments in United States of America, Canada, Australia, Asia and Europe where most of the cited studies were carried out are not

similar to those in Africa hence the instruments had to be adapted to the local population. This might have led to the discrepancy on the reliability and validity of the tools used in the study, hence accepting the attained internal consistency of the instruments. The interpretations drawn in this study therefore lacked a local comparison on the various issues discussed and conclusions drawn.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

This study was based on the assumption that the primary psychosocial demographic factors among Kenya volleyball league players are age, gender, ability, status and experience.

1.10 Theoretical Framework

One of the prominent features of sports is the variation in individuals' achievement behaviour (Nicholls, 1984; Petlichkoff, 1993). Some participants choose challenging tasks, exert appropriate effort while striving for success and persist through the adversity of learning new sport skills (Duda & Nicholas, 1992). In contrast, others select less optimally challenging goals, exhibit minimal effort and lack the persistence that would result in reaching maximal performance potential (Ames, 1984; Duda, 1993; Maehr & Nicholls, 1980). These psychological facets have a complicated combination and need thorough investigation as highlighted in the following scenarios.

Several studies (Duda, 1992; Duda & Nicholls, 1992; Ipinmoroti, 2005; Maday, 2000, Li, Harmer & Acock, 1996; Lochbaum & Roberts, 1993; Petlichkoff, 1993; White & Zellner, 1996; Zahariadis *et-al.*, 2000) have

been carried out on achievement goal orientation related to task and ego oriented individuals. Those athletes who have been found to be task oriented are mainly intrinsically motivated (Zahariadis, *et-al.*, 2000) encouraging team spirit and skill development. However, the ego-oriented individuals are mainly extrinsically motivated, where recognition and status are enhanced. Research has also found that goal orientation is tied to the duration an individual is allowed to play in a team (Petlichkoff, 1993). The study by Petlichkoff (1993) found that players who participated more frequently were found to be more satisfied and maintained high goal orientation and perceived competence compared to those who played less frequently. Petlichkoff (1993) concluded that increased satisfaction, perceived competencies with high rating on the achievement competence are related to task orientation, while low rating on the achievement construct are related to ego orientation.

According to Lochbaum & Roberts (1993) the task-oriented individuals are easily involved in skill practice because they appreciate this factor in sport development and persist to achieve success. However, the ego-oriented athletes find social approval and chance as reasons for success in sport. Researchers have also found that athletes who are ego oriented experience worry prior to or during competition, would use illegal forms of drugs to increase performance and attainment of success in athletics unlike the task oriented individuals (White & Zellner, 1996).

Gender differences have also been noted; several studies show female athletes to be more task oriented than their male counterparts (Maday,

2000; White & Zellner, 1996). However, other researchers have found no significant difference between male and female athletes towards achievement goal orientation (Li, Harmer & Acock, 1996). In trying to answer some of the arising questions, researchers continue to carry out studies on achievement, character, satisfaction and motives on task or ego orientation. These questions led this study on achievement goal orientation and satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players. Goal orientation and satisfaction are facets of motivation that give indicators of how athletes' behaviour transforms (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980). However, the right combination of goal orientation and satisfaction is a challenge to sport psychologists (Figure 1) and is what the present study sought to resolve. Achievement goal orientation explained in the next subsection is one of the theoretical models that worked towards resolving this controversy.



Figure 1: Psychological factors of success in sports (Adapted from Maehr & Nicholls 1980 and Petlichkoff, 1993).

1.10.1 Achievement Goals

The creation of task and ego motivation has laid the groundwork for the theory of achievement goal to be adapted to an athletic context. These goal orientations (task or ego) are affected by athletes' personality that is highly influenced by the demographic factors of individuals. These may include gender, age, experience, status and ability as portrayed in this study. However, goal orientation and demographic factors are not conclusive. Motivation, another psychological concept has been found to play a significant factor in players' performance. Initial studies carried out by Ames (1992), Maehr & Nicholls (1980) and Nicholls (1989) show a link between goal orientation and motivation. According to these studies, goal orientation portrays athletes in two broad categories, ego and task orientation. Task oriented athletes encounter intrinsic motivation, while ego oriented athletes are attracted by extrinsic motivation. On either side of goal orientation, both categories lead to success in performance of the activity at hand. However, where there is no motivation, both ego and task oriented players do not experience success in their activities. Therefore, goal orientation is influenced by either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation as indicated in Figure 2.

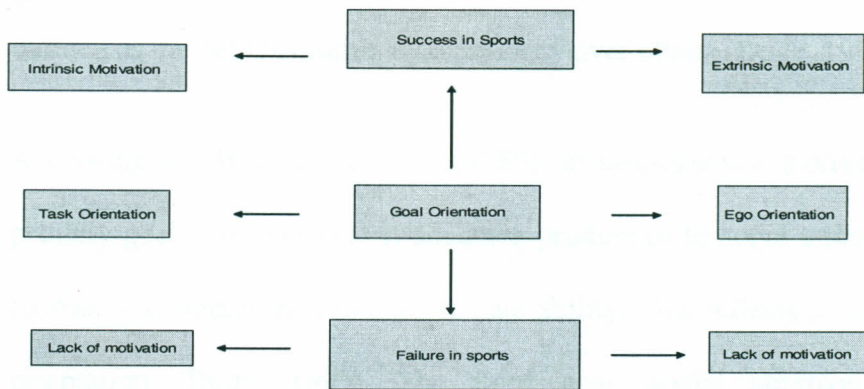


Figure 2: Relationship between goal orientation and demographic factors (adapted from Maehr & Nicholls, 1980).

Historically, the study of motivation has been a key area of interest to sport psychologists since the early 1990s. Much of the enthusiasm stems from the work of educational psychologists in the late 1970s and early 1980s who proposed that motivation should be viewed more in terms of personal thoughts and perceptions rather than some innate quality (Ames, 1994, Bandura, 1977; Bull, 1991; Dongfang, *et-al*, 2003; Duda & White, 1992). Specifically, Maehr & Nicholls (1980) argued that success and failure are not concrete events. They are psychological states consequent on perceptions of reaching or not reaching goals.

Based on the foregoing, Maehr & Nicholls (1980) defined three types of achievement motivation: ability oriented motivation, task oriented motivation, and social approval –oriented motivation. Ability – oriented motivation is when the goal of the behaviour is to maximize the subjective probability of attributing high ability to oneself. This has been modified in

sport psychology to refer to an “ego” goal orientation where success is defined as the demonstration of superiority over others (Duda, 1993).

According to Maehr & Nicholls (1980), in task-oriented motivation, the primary goal is to produce an adequate product or to solve a problem for its own sake rather than to demonstrate ability. This reflects a “task” goal orientation (Duda, 1993). The third goal, social approval-oriented motivation, has been investigated less in sport than task and ego orientations. Social approval-oriented motivation emphasizes performance to be accepted by others. The three goals; ego, task and social approval result into achievement motivation.

Achievement motivation is “conformity to norms or virtuous intent rather than superior talent” (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980). These sentiments are similar to those of Williams (1994) who suggested that achievement situations are those in which the participants’ main objective or goal is to display high ability. Additionally, Nicholls (1992) in support of Maehr & Nicholls (1980) on having two main achievement goal orientations came out with two goal perspectives for achievement settings, “task-involvement” and “ego- involvement”. Each of these achievement goal motivations is what drives the athlete to strive for success or continued participation in an activity.

Nicholls (1989) earlier argued that the two main goals, task and ego, are based on how people think or define competence. Those who are ego – involved perceive ability as limiting the effects of effort on performance. They are keen to show their high capacity of ability often at the expense of

effort. In the thinking of an ego- involved individual, trying hard and exerting effort to achieve a certain standard of performance indicate low ability.

According to Nicholls (1989), those who are ego oriented hold a “more differentiated” view of ability, in that ability and effort are clearly separate from each other. Ego oriented individuals judge their ability relative to others and have to demonstrate superior ability or outperform others to be satisfied. In contrast, those who are task oriented hold a “less differentiated” conception of ability as they believe that ability equates to effort, and “the harder you try, the more able you feel”. Those who are highly task –involved use cues such as levels of effort and task completion to assess their competence in an entirely self –reflective manner. Task-oriented performers are satisfied if they perform to a level that reflects how they have mastered a task or made personal improvements. Based on this, Nicholls (1984) considered goal orientation a construct that fits into the broad conceptual framework of achievement motivation. The Achievement Motivation Theory has been derived from the work of several researchers who investigated goal - directed behaviour (Ames, 1992) and why humans feel the need to achieve success (Atkinson, 1974).

A major tenet of achievement goal theory is that individuals will be predisposed to task orientations as a result of socialization experiences in their sport and these orientations will subsequently influence whether an individual will adopt a task or ego goal in a specific situation. Nicholls (1989) defined “task orientation” as marked by intrinsic interest and a

desire to improve through effort, while the opposite “ego orientation” as the desire to enhance the self by establishing ones superiority relative to others. In addition, the prevailing motivational climate will also affect the adoption of achievement goals (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999).

According to Ames (1992), Maehr & Nicholls (1980) and Nicholls (1989), ego oriented individuals are highly motivated by extrinsic rewards, where these rewards are lacking, their performance is low. On the other hand, task oriented individuals are highly motivated by intrinsic rewards, a feeling of wanting to perform better regardless of the rewards. The nature of the goal state (level of task and ego –orientation) that is activated in a specific sport situation will be determined by individual preference (goal orientation) and situational cues (motivational climate) as indicated in Figure1. Regardless of which goal an athlete is skewed towards, where motivation is lacking or inadequate, low performance results are observed (Ames, 1992; Nichols, 1989). In summary, Lochbaum & Roberts (1993) states that the two orientations are theorized to reflect two distinct ways in which success and failure are subjectively defined and ways in which one judges competence.

1.10.2 Theories of Satisfaction

No well-developed theories of satisfaction exist and little research has been done on satisfaction, especially in relation to sport (Maday, 2000). According to Lawler (1973), satisfaction has been considered atheoretical. However, research in satisfaction has been done by industrial

psychologists with job satisfaction being the primary focus of investigations.

Maslow (1943) included satisfaction in his theory of human motivation and hierarchy of human needs. Maslow (1943) suggested that the less needs wanted or desired, the more satisfied a person was with life. Lawler (1973) described satisfaction according to the motivation theory of Maslow (1943) explaining that Maslow did not mean psychological satisfaction; rather, he meant a psychological feeling of contentedness; of having received enough of a desired object. Although Maslow (1943) mentioned satisfaction in the theory, satisfaction was not clearly defined. Lawler (1973) discussed early studies of satisfaction as not focused on the causes or consequences of satisfaction; rather they treated satisfaction as a useful explanatory concept or intervening variable.

In recent years, job satisfaction has been studied widely in relation to other variables. Locke (1976) suggested that job satisfaction results from the perception that ones' job fulfils or allows the fulfillment of ones important job values, provisions and to the degree that those values are congruent with ones' needs. Therefore, to examine job satisfaction, variables that affect the environment need to be analyzed.

Sports psychologists have tried to understand satisfaction in sports by employing other theories related to satisfaction. Harter (1981) employed competence motivation theory to understand participation and satisfaction in children sports. In this line, the present study sought to establish Kenya volleyball league players' satisfaction by using achievement goal theory

and demographic factors of the athletes. The present study hypothesized that satisfaction is determined by goal orientation and demographic factors. None of these three variables is superior to the other, but they are interdependent. That is why most satisfaction studies (Maday, 2000; Petlichkoff, 1993) have employed other instruments in their methodologies for them to be conclusive.

1.11 Operational Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were defined as indicated below.

Ability: The division in which a player participated in Kenya's volleyball league, either division one or division two. Women division two teams included schools, colleges and university teams that participate in KVF organized tournaments.

Age: Chronology based on number of years, classified as younger players (aged below 25 years) and older players (aged 25 years and above).

Athlete: A player in the national division one or two of the Kenya volleyball league.

Clubs: Volleyball teams that participate in Kenya's national volleyball leagues (division one or two).

Demographic Factors: Refers to age, ability, participation status, gender and experience of Kenya's volleyball league players.

Ego orientation: A state in which a player performs for public display to demonstrate superiority relative to others.

Experience: The number of years a player has participated in volleyball league either in division one or two, classified as less experienced (played for less than 10 years in national volleyball leagues) or experienced (played for 10 or more years in national leagues).

Gender: Characteristics of being either male or female with a psychosocial inclination.

Goal Orientation: Inclination of Kenya's volleyball league players as either task or ego oriented as they indicated on the TEOSQ.

National Leagues: Categories of Kenya's volleyball leagues, classified as either national division one or two leagues.

Older Players: Those players who are participating in the KVF organized leagues and tournaments and were aged over 25 years old.

Satisfaction: The ranking of Kenya's volleyball league players as they indicated on the 15 subscales of ASQ namely individual performance, team performance, ability utilization, strategy, personal treatment, training and instruction, team social contribution, team task contribution, ethics, team integration, personal dedication, budget, medical personnel, academic support services, and external agents.

Status: The placement of a player as either a starter on the first line-up or as a substitute in the Kenya's volleyball national leagues or tournaments.

Survey design: An investigative study where the variables under study are not manipulated.

Task orientation: A state where a player performs through mastery of skills and have interest in an activity for its own sake.

Volleyball league: The two national leagues, division one and two for volleyball organized by Kenya Volleyball Federation. Division two league for women included schools, colleges and university teams that participate in KVF organized tournament.

Younger players: Those players who are participating in the KVF organized leagues and tournaments and are aged between 13 and 25 years old.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

The review of literature on goal orientation and satisfaction has been divided into three major sections. The first section is introductory and it deals with achievement goal orientation in sports and satisfaction in sports. The second section is review of studies that include research on achievement goal orientation in sports and research on satisfaction in sports. The last section is on measuring goal orientation and satisfaction in sports; research on goal orientation and satisfaction in sports and summary of literature reviewed.

2.2 Achievement Goal Orientation in Sports

According to Ames (1992) goal orientation with achievement motivation results to increased physical activity participation and success. This conclusion was drawn by Ames (1992) on examining achievement motivation and the reasons individuals participate in activities. Nicholls (1984) through non-sport study identified two goal orientations defined by ego orientation and task orientation. The study found that students who are ego oriented become involved in activities that allow for a public display of their talent to demonstrate superiority to others. Task oriented individuals are concerned with personal improvement and not with peer comparison.

Duda & Nichols (1992) created a scale to distinguish task and ego orientation of individuals in sport situations, the Task and Ego Orientation in Sports Questionnaire (TEOSQ). Goal orientation has been studied extensively in relation to participation in sport (Duda 1989; Duda, Chi, Newton, Walling and Catley, 1995; Duda & Nichols, 1992; Duda & White, 1992; Horn, Duda & Miller, 1993; Maday, 2000; Williams, 1994) through the use of the TEOSQ. The TEOSQ has been popular because the scale is short and easy to administer. Elaborate information on the creation and development of the TEOSQ is outlined elsewhere in this literature review.

2.3 Satisfaction in Sports

Apart from goal orientation, satisfaction in sport has been a debatable issue in sport psychology. This has let several researchers to study goal orientation and satisfaction in sport concurrently. The influence of satisfaction on goal orientation has been the focus of sport psychology researchers (Horn *et al*, 1993; Petlichkoff, 1993). In this study, two variables, goal orientation and satisfaction in sports are compared on the basis of independent variables of age, gender, status, experience and level of participation and their relationship on each other noted.

Job satisfaction of workers has been studied primarily in the workforce. Early theorists of satisfaction (Maslow, 1943) examined the need for survival. Later, Lawler (1973) and Vroom (1964) discussed job satisfaction in the workplace. The study of satisfaction in sport has been limited; most of the research on satisfaction includes studies on the

satisfaction of various leadership styles (Chelladurai, 1984; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Horne and Carron, 1985; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Schliesman, 1987) or the study of influence of satisfaction on goal orientation (Horn *et al*, 1993; Maday, 2000; Petlichkoff, 1993). According to Lawler (1973), satisfaction does not have a theoretical framework without the influence of other variables. This prompted the researcher of this study to look at goal orientation and satisfaction concurrently.

Riemer & Chelladurai (1998) created the Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) to examine satisfaction of athletes in a detailed dimension. The scale was the first to measure sport satisfaction by exploring the variables that influence satisfaction. This scale encourages researchers in the area of athletic satisfaction to explore aspects of satisfaction and sports participation. Detailed information on the creation of the ASQ is outlined elsewhere in the literature review.

2.4 Research on Achievement Goal Orientation in Sports

Achievement goal orientation is related to motivation in sports. The study of motivation has since been key area of interest to sport psychologists since the early 1990s. The origin of these studies come from the work of educational psychologists in the late 1970s and early 1980s who proposed that motivation should be viewed more in terms of personal thought and perceptions rather than some innate quality (Bandura, 1977). Through various studies, three types of achievement emerged, ability oriented motivation, task oriented motivation and social approval oriented

motivation (Maehr & Nicholls, 1980). However, researchers in sports have emphasized ability related motivation, which has been modified in sport psychology as ego orientation, and task oriented motivation as task orientation (Duda, 1993; Maehr & Nichols, 1980).

Studies under achievement goal orientation have utilized diverse demographic information of subjects (Duda, 1989; Duda & Hom, 1993; White, Duda & Keller, 1998; White & Zellner, 1996; and Williams, 1994). These vary from age, gender, ability, experience and status among others. On the other hand, dependent variables have been diverse, utilizing different instruments that measure participants' perception towards sports. However, in most of these studies, the underlying factor has been players' goal orientation towards sports and physical activity.

2.4.1 Goal Orientation and Gender Differences in Sports

Several studies have looked at gender differences on goal orientation in sports. In a study by Duda (1989) using university and high school athletes involved in individual and team sports, a significant difference was found between the goal-orientation of female and male students. No sport-specific comparisons of the goal orientation of the participants were made. Results indicated a significantly higher score for females on task-involvement and a significantly higher ego-involvement score for males.

In another gender-based study, Duda & Hom (1993) examined goal orientation of participants and their parents involved in a summer basketball camp. Duda & Hom (1993) found no significant gender-related differences in goal orientation. The results of a one-way MANOVA

revealed no significant gender difference in the goal orientation of the young athletes or their parents.

Later, a study by Dongfang, *et-al* (2003) sought to investigate male and female basketball players goal orientation, perceived motivation, perceived ability and the sources of sports confidence. The purpose of this study was to discuss the differences and relationships between male and female high school basketball goal orientation, perceived motivational climate, perceived ability and the sources of their sports confidence. The study, a survey by design, utilized junior basketball players with an average age of 17.09 years and had a total of 13 variables under study. Gender differences, which is covered in the present study, was also covered by Dongfang *et-al* (2003). However, other variables of age, experience ability and status covered by this study were not considered .

The study by Dongfang *et-al* (2003) found that male players had recorded higher scores in perceived ego climate and the perfection of skills and physical performance factors of sport confidence than female players'. Secondly, simple correlation analyses showed that both male and female players task orientation, perceived task climate, and perceived ability were positively related to the eight factors of sports confidence source, which included perfection of skills, demonstration of ability, physical performance, physiological/psychological preparation, social support, vicarious experience, leadership styles of coaches and positive environment. Male players ego orientation was positively related to demonstration of ability, physical performance, physiological

/psychological preparation, social support, vicarious experiences, leadership styles of coaches and positive environment. Female players' ego orientation, male players perceived ego climate and the eight factors of sport confidence source were positively related to pre-competition confidence. Thirdly, results of the stepwise regression analyses showed that male players task orientation and perceived ability could effectively predict the pre-competition sport confidence. Results of the study indicated that more confidence could be generated from a task-oriented environment. Findings by Dongfang *et-al* (2003) matched with results of Shane (2000) and Vealey (1998).

A study by Shane (2000) examined 620 high school and collegiate athletes of both genders to examine the relationship between goal orientation and sport confidence. The findings indicated that male and female athletes were significantly different in task orientation, ego orientation, and several factors related to the source of sport confidence, such as skill perfection, demonstration of ability, and physiological /psychological preparation. In addition, the perceived sources of sport confidence were different between high school and collegiate athletes of both genders.

In a gender analysis study related to goal orientation, Williams (1994) examined goal orientation and preference of athletes for competence information sources. Male and female student athletes from four different high schools in Oregon (U.S.A.) were participants in the study. The athletes were involved in various sports including basketball, golf, soccer, softball, tennis, and track and field. The TEOSQ (Duda & Nicholls, 1992)

was used to determine athlete's goal orientation. Williams (1994) found that females were more task oriented while males were ego oriented. The concept of gender difference has been very debatable in various studies and this formed part of the hypothesis of this study.

Similarly, like Williams (1994), White, Duda & Keller (1998) carried out a gender related study using the TEOSQ. White *et-al* (1998) researched on the relationship between goal orientation and perceived purpose of sport among youth sport participants. The study involved one hundred and ninety two youth sport participants from the northeast region of the United States. Specifically, the sample included: 100 males (mean age = 11.5, [+ or -] 1.3 years) and 92 females (mean age = 11.2, [+ or -] 1.1 years). The children were involved in a variety of organized sports such as soccer, swimming, basketball, and ice hockey with approximately equal numbers of males and females represented in each sport activity. All subjects volunteered to participate in the study.

A two-part questionnaire was administered by White *et-al* (1998) to the participants in a group setting. Part one of the questionnaire measured individual differences in dispositional goal orientation via the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ). Part one of the questionnaire also tapped pertinent demographic information regarding age, sex, and the number of years the children had participated in sport. Part two of the questionnaire assessed the individual's views about "what sport should do" by utilizing the 46-item Perceived Purposes of Sport Questionnaire (PPSQ; Duda, 1989). Responses to the open-ended question

"A very important thing sport should do" were indicated on a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). In completing the PPSQ, the children were requested to reflect on the perceived values and benefits of youth sport involvement (e.g., "teach us to be satisfied when we tried our best", "give us the chance to feel like a champion", "prepare us to respect authority", "give us the chance to be rich and famous", etc.).

The internal consistency of the task and ego orientation subscales was determined by calculating Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Both the seven-item task orientation and six item ego orientation subscales demonstrated acceptable internal reliability (Alpha = .83 and .76, respectively). In general, the youth sport athletes were primarily task oriented. The overall mean for the task orientation subscale was 4.19 [+ or -] .59 and for the ego orientation subscale 2.5 [+ or -] .77.

Gender differences in goal orientation were analyzed using a one-way MANOVA. Results indicated that there were no significant differences between males and females in task orientation, $F(1, 158) = 2.75, p > .05$, or ego orientation, $F(1, 158) = 0.07, p > .05$. The internal reliability of the seven Perceived Purposes of Sport subscales (i.e., Enhanced Self-Esteem and Sport Ethos, High Status and Popularity, Good Citizenship, Mastery/Cooperation, Deception and Superiority, Physically Active, and Competitiveness) was determined for all participants by calculating Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (Cronbach, 1951).

Differences between youth sport males and females on the seven perceived purposes of sport subscales were determined by a one-way MANOVA. Significant differences between males and females were revealed, Wilks's lambda = .86, $F(7, 101) = 2.40$, $p < .05$. Specifically, males perceived sport as a vehicle to heighten status and popularity with peers, $F(1, 107) = 4.85$, $p < .05$, teach deceptive behaviors and superiority over others, $F(1, 107) = 8.40$, $p < .005$, and encourage competitiveness, $F(1, 107) = 9.03$, $p < .005$ when compared to female youth sport participants.

The multivariate relationship between goal orientation and the perceived purposes of sport in youth athletes was analyzed via canonical correlation analysis. The canonical loadings reflect the variables that contribute most to the multivariate relationship between the two constructs. Loadings greater than .35 were considered significant and meaningful (Pedhazur, 1982). One significant function emerged (Wilks's lambda = .435; canonical correlation = .72; $F\{14,180\} = 6.63$, $p < .001$). With respect to this function, an examination of the standardized canonical loadings indicated that individuals who were high in task orientation tended to perceive that Enhanced Self-Esteem and Sport Ethos, Good Citizenship, Mastery/Cooperation, and being Physically Active were important purposes of sport involvement.

2.4.2 Goal Orientation, Ability and Age in Sports

Zahariadis, Greece & Biddle (2000) carried out a study on goal orientation and participation motives in Physical Education and sport among English

school children. The study emphasized the importance of sport and physical education in school life and for health, thus need to better understand the motivation of young people in school towards physical activity. It investigated the interrelationship between participation motivation (reasons given for involvement) and achievement goal orientation (how success is construed) within the physical education environment. The study utilized cross-sectional survey design, which included English Secondary School students (N=412).

Zahariadis *et al* (2000) utilized Participation Motivation Questionnaire (PMQ) to assess motives for participation in sport and physical activity and the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) to assess achievement goal orientation. The PMQ is a 30-item questionnaire describing the possible reasons for sports participation. Factor analytic results of the PMQ have revealed factors of achievement /status, team atmosphere, fitness, energy release, skill development, friendship and fun as basic motives for involvement.

Zahariadis *et al* (2000) findings on Zero order Relationships between Motives and Goals showed that task orientation was most strongly related to skill development and team motives, whereas ego orientation was related most clearly to status motives. To examine the multivariate relationship between ego and task orientation and participation motives, canonical correlation analysis was performed. Two significant functions emerged, function 1 showed that task orientation was positively related to skill development and team atmosphere motives and negatively related to

status /recognition motives. Function 2 showed that ego orientation was positively and highly correlated with status/recognition motives and negatively associated with team atmosphere motives. Zahariadis *et-al* (2000) concluded that there is a clear relationship between task orientation and intrinsic motivational patterns, whereas ego orientation was associated with more extrinsic forms of motivation. Therefore, results show that motivation is likely to be enhanced through the promotion of a task orientation.

White & Zellner (1996) studied the relationship between goal orientations, beliefs about the causes of sport success and trait anxiety among high school, intercollegiate and recreational sport participants. A total of 251 male and female students from the north-eastern area of the United States of America (U.S.A.) were involved in the study. Participants were administered the TEOSQ prior to organized practice. In addition, White and Zellner (1996) utilized the 21-item Belief About the Causes of Sport Success Questionnaire (BACSSQ) developed by Duda & Nicholls (1992), which was adapted for use in the realm of athletics to analyze the beliefs of the students in regard to sport. The Sport Anxiety Scale (SAS) developed by Smith, Smoll & Schuttz (1990) was used to measure competitive anxiety in students.

White & Zellner (1996) concluded that athletes who scored higher in "Ego Orientation" were more likely to experience worry prior to, or during competition. They also found out that females tended to be more task oriented, whereas males were more ego oriented. White & Zellner

(1996) also revealed that high school male athletes, more than any other group, reported they would use illegal forms of drugs to increase performance and obtain success in athletics. Also, students who scored higher on the Ego Orientation scale indicated that they would consider illegal means to obtain success in sport as well. In addition, younger athletes reported contemplating going to extremes to obtain success in sport, as compared to other groups. The findings by White & Zellner (1996) were reflected in a later study by Maday (2000) on gender response, where females were found to be more task oriented than males, while male students were more ego oriented.

Another goal orientation study was carried out by Alla & Oleg (1998). A sample of 72 members of a National Junior Athletic Team served as subjects. The study considered sport performance as the unity of a goal, a way of achievement and a result. The study tried to find correlation between the goal-setting strategies and personality orientation (the main motivational characteristics of personality). Alla & Oleg (1998) hypothesized that these factors affects the result of the performance. It was further hypothesized that goal orientation is a problem of interaction between personality and activity.

The study found out that three types of personality orientation in athletes were distinguished: self-directed (egoistic), social, and bimodal. Adequate, inadequate, and intermediate goal-setting strategies were shown by the athletes in the experiment. Interaction between goal-setting strategies and the type of personality orientation revealed that athletes with social

personality orientation showed adequate goal-setting strategies. Their motivational sphere had an optimal correlation between aspirations and achievements. They were referred to harmonious type of personality structure with adequate goal-setting activity. Athletes with bimodal and self-directed orientation revealed inadequate goal-setting strategies, they had a contradiction between a conscious social and unconscious egoistic motives, which could not find an adequate solution. Such personality might be disharmonious with inadequate goal-setting strategies. These findings add to the literature on goal orientation and athlete personality. Alla & Oleg (1998) helps to understand the various goal orientations of athletes and also agree with Duda (1992) on the three forms of goal orientation that were later scaled to two, ego and task orientation. Earlier, Duda *et-al*, (1995) had evaluated the goal orientation of members of a college tennis class and revealed a significant differences in TEOSQ scores related to task-involvement with females scoring significantly higher in task-involvement than males. No significant difference was found related to ego-involvement.

In another ability related study, Lochbaum & Roberts (1993) studied goal orientation and perceptions of the sport experience among high school athletes. The participants were high school students from football, basketball, track and field, volleyball, baseball softball, wrestling, golf, swimming, cheerleading and gymnastics. The TEOSQ was used to measure differences in task, ego and goal perspective in athletics. They developed scales to measure perceived causes of success, competition strategies, practice benefits and competition satisfaction. Lochbaum &

Roberts (1993) did not specify how each sport affects an athlete's goal orientation.

Lochbaum & Robert (1993) concluded that task-oriented athletes understood the importance of practice for skill-persistence to achieve success. Ego oriented athletes found social approval and chance as reasons for success in sport. Lochbaum & Roberts (1993) found out that the desire to demonstrate high-level ability through normative ability assessment was valuable to ego-oriented individuals as well as the support of external sources for success.

2.4.3 Goal Orientation, Status and Level of Participation

In an attempt to investigate the relationship between the goal orientation of coaches and athletes, Chaumeton & Duda (1988) conducted a study on coaches of male basketball players involved in athletics at university, elementary, junior high and high school levels. This study was limited only to coaches of male basketball players.

The researchers found that coach's use of process-oriented (task) and outcome-oriented (ego) behaviors significantly varied as a function of the level of competition and situation. Coaches of teams competing at higher levels emphasized the outcome of players' actions more frequently than did coaches of teams competing at lower levels. The researchers indicated that coaches of teams at lower levels of competition were more likely to use outcome-oriented behaviors than were coaches of teams at higher levels. Participants at all three levels reported the consistent importance of task-goals. This shows the emphasis placed on task orientation by both

players and coaches. The athletes reported that task-involvement is valued at each level. The study indicated that in higher levels of competition, winning became increasingly more important to both players and coaches. It was apparent from this study that motivational climate changes with respect to competitive level in the same sport.

The PMCSQ is an instrument developed by Duda, Walling & Chi (1993) to measure perceived motivational climate among the athletes. The PMCSQ measures the athletes' level of response to two factors of motivational climate, performance goal orientation (12 items) and mastery goal orientation (9 items). The PMCSQ, a motivational instrument was not used in the present study but instead the Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) was utilized to measure players' satisfaction.

Dongfang *et-al* (2003) used a 2-tailed T -test, for analyses of the difference between goal orientation (TEOSQ) and Perceived Motivational Climate (PMCSQ) of the groups of athletes with alpha at 0.05 in answering the first part of the research questions. There was no significant difference ($p = .30$) between basketball players and cross-country runners related to degree of task-involvement. However, basketball players had a slightly higher task-involvement score ($m = 4.27$) than did cross country runners ($m = 4.18$). Additionally, participant's mean scores for ego-involvement on the TEOSQ were subjected to a two-tailed t-test and yielded much the same results as above with an insignificant, ($p = .10$) differences between the two groups of athletes (basketball players and cross-country runners). Again cross-country runners ($m = 2.63$) had a

slightly higher degree of ego-involvement in comparison to the basketball players ($m = 2.40$).

Thirdly, t-test ($p = .05$) done on resultant data from the PMCSQ indicated a significant difference between the perceptions of basketball players and cross country runners ($p = .02$) with respect to their perception of the importance of mastery goals in their competitive environment. The cross-country runners ($m = 3.97$) view their competitive environment as significantly more mastery oriented than did the basketball players ($m = 3.77$). Lastly, significant difference ($p < 0.001$) was found related to the perception of the participants related to the role of performance goals in their sport's motivational climate. Basketball players ($m = 3.06$) perceived performance goals as playing a more dominant role in the environment than did cross country runners ($m = 2.48$). In summary, data indicate that there was a significant difference in the perception NCAA Division II female basketball players and cross country runners have of their motivational climate related to the value placed on mastery and performance goals.

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to answer the second part of the research questions related to the relationship between the athlete's goal orientation and perception of the motivational climate. The first question centered on an evaluation of the basketball player's task-involvement scores (TEOSQ) and their scores related to mastery goals (PMCSQ). The data yielded an insignificant ($p = .05$) low positive ($r = 0.18$) correlation between mastery goals and task-involvement for

basketball players. The second question sought for an evaluation of the relationship between the participant's ego-involvement scores and performance goal scores. The resultant correlation indicated that there is a significant ($p = .05$) and positive correlation ($r = 0.45$) between the participants score for ego-involvement and performance goals. Analysis of data for the third question found that the relationship between the basketball players task-involvement score and perception of performance goals indicated only a slight positive yet insignificant correlation. Lastly, basketball player exhibited a relationship between the player's ego-involvement score and the importance of mastery goals that was both negative and significant ($r = -0.38$).

Further results showed that the relationship between cross-country runners' degree of task-involvement and perception of mastery goals was found to be positive ($r = 0.69$) and significant. However, the relationship between the runners score for ego-involvement and performance goals was found to be low, positive, and insignificant. Likewise, runners exhibited low negative and insignificant correlation between level of task-involvement and perceived performance goals. Another question asked for evaluation of the relationship between level of ego-involvement and perception of mastery goals. There was found to be only low positive and insignificant correlation between these characteristics. A significant negative correlation was found between the basketball players' level of ego-involvement and perception of mastery goals. Basketball players also exhibited significant positive correlation between their level of ego-involvement and their perception of performance goals. The cross-country

runners exhibited a significant positive correlation between their level of task-involvement and perception of mastery goals.

In summary, there was no significant difference in the goal orientation of the two groups of athletes, although there was a significant difference in the way the athletes perceived their respective motivational climates. There was also found a significant relationship between aspects of goal orientation and perception of motivational climate for both groups of athletes.

2.5 Research on Satisfaction in Sports

Satisfaction is an integral part of sport participation and enjoyment. Without satisfaction, athletes would turn to other sources for potential success and enjoyment. The importance of satisfaction cannot be underestimated at any age. According to Chelladurai (1984) the degree of satisfaction in athletes is expressed by the relation of their performance and the degree to which (team) performance reach or fail to reach expected levels. Orlick (1998) states that lack of satisfaction in sport leads to dropout from sport. Petlichkoff (1993) suggests that the level of satisfaction an athlete maintained during sport involvement also played a role in perception of performance. The study of satisfaction in sport is a multifaceted one because several factors contribute to athlete satisfaction. The present study examined 15 different satisfaction subscales among Kenyan Volleyball League Players. This shows the diversity of satisfaction in sport. Researchers have examined athletic satisfaction in combination with several variables, but primarily, leadership and

motivation are the major dimensions. Researchers have had difficulty creating a valid and reliable measuring instrument to assess athletic satisfaction because satisfaction is a very broad concept. This study has reviewed literature under two broad concepts; satisfaction and motivation in sports and satisfaction and leadership in sports.

2.5.1 Research on Satisfaction and Motivation among Athletes

A motivation study was carried out by Carron, Ball & Chelladurai (1977) among 183 intercollegiate hockey players in early season and post-season to determine individual and team satisfaction in relation to athletic performance. The Orientation Inventory (Martens, Landers & Loy, 1972), which included 10 questions, was used to assess participation motivation. Two questions were developed to assess group satisfaction and team satisfaction after the completion of the season. For group satisfaction, the athletes were asked, "How satisfied are you with the over-all performance of your hockey club this year?" and for individual satisfaction the players were asked, "How satisfied are you with your own over-all performance this year?" The participants were given two choices as answers for the satisfaction questions; they were "not satisfied at all" or "very satisfied".

Carron *et-al* (1977) found that there were differences in satisfaction with team performance between high and low task motivation. Also, differences were discovered in terms of satisfaction with team performance between successful and unsuccessful groups. Carron *et-al* (1977) indicated that motivation, performance, and other interactions had no implications upon satisfaction of individual performance, but level of

success and high task motivation influenced levels of satisfaction in terms of team performance.

Gender differences have also been studied in relation to participation and satisfaction in sports. Kamal (2003) studied gender differences in physical activity among Birzeit University (Palestine) first year students. The study entailed 100 female and 100 male first year students at Birzeit University in Palestine. The subjects responded to the Attitude Towards Physical Activity Questionnaire (ATPA) developed by Kenyon (1968). ATPA contains 50 items with responses on a five point Likert scale. The scale consists of six dimensions, namely, social experience, health and fitness, pursuit of vertigo, aesthetic experience, recreational catharsis and aesthetic experience. Kamal (2003) found out that male and female attitudes towards social experience and aesthetic dimensions were significantly different with a higher mean for male on social experience and a higher mean for women on aesthetic experience. The other four dimensions showed no significant difference between male and female athletes. Additionally, there were reported differences between male and female mainly in the areas of coeducational physical activity, practicing sport activities outside the university and presence of the audience during physical activity sessions. Male students approved more than female on attitudes towards coeducational physical activities and practicing sports activities outside the university. Female students approved more on presence of the audience during physical activity sessions. There were no gender differences on sports uniforms in physical activities and attitude towards a sport trainer of the other gender.

A related study by Aminuddin & Omar-Fauzee (2003) was on perceptions of Malaysian college students about sport participation constraints. The study included students from the faculty of education, University of Putra, Malaysia. The sample consisted of 303 subjects from nine different faculties. Data were collected quantitatively by survey instruments developed by Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, & Bon Eye (1993). The instrument measured three different types of constraints to sport participation, structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal. Results of the study showed that subjects were constrained more by structural factors, and least by intrapersonal factors. Physical education major students reported least structural and intrapersonal constraints, while female students experienced higher intensities of structural and intrapersonal constraints to sport participation than male counterparts. Aminuddin & Omar-Fauzee (2003) concluded that gender might have been a critical variable influencing sport participation and non-participation among the subjects.

2.5.2 Research on Satisfaction and Motivation among Elite Athletes

Young-Jun, DeSchriver, Bestmann & YeanSub (1997) carried out a study on Satisfaction Levels of Elite Track and Field Athletes in South Korea. The general problem of this study was to examine the level of satisfaction of elite track and field athletes in South Korea with facilities, equipment, financial support, head coach's technical ability, training methods, and leadership. The subjects in this study were both male and female elite track and field athletes whose performance in 1997 ranked them among the top five as their track and field events in South Korea. The list of these

athletes was obtained from the Korean Amateur Athletics Federation (KAAF). Since there were a total of 22 events for men and 20 for women, the sample included 110 (22X5) males and 100 (20X5) females. Therefore, the sample included a total of 210 athletes. However, taking into consideration that 16 athletes placed in the top five in more than one event, the actual targeted number of potential subjects was 194. Eighty-seven per cent of the subjects (N=168) responded to the questionnaire.

The researcher constructed a survey questionnaire instrument for the subjects to indicate their satisfaction levels. Responses to questions were made on a five point Likert scale and were averaged to yield the overall satisfaction level for each factor. Descriptive statistics included frequency and percentage distribution, the mean and standard deviation were used to analyze subjects' demographic characteristics. One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were statistically significant differences among the means of the athletes' satisfaction levels. The Student Newman-Keuls method as a post hoc test was conducted to determine specifically athletes' satisfaction levels. Statistical significance was accepted at $p < .05$.

Results of the study showed that of a total subjects (N=168), 90 (58.3%) were male athletes, and 78 (41.7%) were female athletes. Seventy-two (42.9%) athletes were ages of 18 to 21 and 60 (36.9%) were ages of 22 to 25. Only six athletes (3.6%) were over 30 years old.

One hundred athletes (59.5%) were members of university teams and 56 (33.3%) were members of company or club teams. A few were on high school teams. The classification of the subjects by event indicated track

(58.9%), field (36.4%), and multiple event athletes (4.7%). The majority of the subjects became track and field athletes through encouragement from their coach or physical education teacher. Most subjects competed for more than five years, but less than 15 years. Furthermore, one hundred and twelve athletes (67%) changed their main event more than once during their track and field career. Their reasons for changing were as follows: the opportunity to obtain better results (28.5%), poor record (23.2%) or dislike of their primary event (21.4%). Of those athletes who did change their main event, 90 athletes (80.7%) were satisfied with the results.

One hundred and fourteen athletes (67.8%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their weight training facilities and 98 (58.3%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their track training facilities. For the field training facilities, 94 athletes (56.7%) were satisfied or very satisfied.

The satisfaction levels showed that sixty-eight athletes (42.0%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their training equipment, and 82 (45.2%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their competition equipment. For personal training items, 66 athletes (39.2%) were satisfied or very satisfied.

Ninety six athletes (57.1%) indicated they were satisfied or very satisfied with their head coaches' personal communication skills, and 92 (54.7%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their head coaches' technical skills and knowledge. Eighty-four athletes (50.0%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their head coaches' strategy.

Eighty four athletes (47.6%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their head coaches' training methods, and 96 (57.1%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their head coaches' training schedule. Eighty-four athletes (50.0%) were satisfied or very satisfied with the coaches' feedback.

One hundred and two athletes (62.9%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their head coaches' friendliness, and 110 (68.7%) were satisfied or very satisfied with their head coaches' ethical conduct. As for the head coaches' ability to motivate, 102 athletes (62.9%) of the subjects were satisfied or very satisfied.

Only 50 athletes (29.9%) were satisfied or very satisfied with the financial support they received from their team, club, company or school. Most athletes were not satisfied with the financial support from their team. Many athletes in this study received financial support from their family.

One-way ANOVA was used to determine differences in Athletes' Satisfaction Levels. Results revealed that there were statistically significant differences among means of the six factors; facilities, equipment, financial support, head coach's technical ability, training methods, and leadership. The results of the post hoc test indicated financial support was significantly lower than facilities, head coach's technical ability, training methods, and leadership.

Young-Jun *et-al* (1997) came up with the following policy recommendations from the study of satisfaction among elite track and field athletes. Track and field coaches must discern whether the event in

which their athletes compete is appropriate. If it is believed to be inappropriate, the athletes must be encouraged to change their event. By doing so, the athletes may obtain better results and thus experience greater satisfaction.

Secondly, it was desirable to expend more money on providing athletes with quality training equipment needed to increase satisfaction. Lastly, it was desirable to develop a financial support plan, if implemented, could increase track and field athletes' satisfaction and thus result in greater interest in participating in track and field.

Young-Jun *et-al* (1997) recommended further that a study should be conducted with subjects that are representative of all track and field athletes, as opposed to only elite performers. Also, the level of athletes' satisfaction with regard to their room and board should also be identified. Finally, specific data on the financial support given to teams, as well as allocations given to individual athletes should be analyzed.

A study on African volleyball players was carried out by Morakinyo (2002) to understand Academic Status of African Elite Volleyball Players. The study, Academic Status of African Elite Volleyball Players involved 96 African elite volleyball players. They completed a questionnaire about their present academic status, and intended academic ambitions. The study revealed that 53.3% had obtained academic certificates, while 46.7% had not. Also, 80% of the respondents wanted to further their education, while 20% were not interested. Morakinyo (2002) noted that there was need to encourage athletes, especially elite ones to attain high academic

certificates to open occupational doors often not available to those without academic credentials when they are no longer able to sustain their sport careers. The study further noted that the number of African elite volleyball players without academic certificates might be large. Academic support services is one of the satisfaction components covered by this study. Morakinyo (2003) showed how many African elite players have not been keen on furthering their education.

A further view on the tactical aspects of African volleyball teams was examined by Bailasha & Akpata (2002). The study, Effectiveness of Serves used during the 12th African Feminine African Volleyball Clubs Championship investigated technical and tactical paradigms in volleyball to determine levels of African volleyball players' masteries of serves, and how they used them tactfully to determine outcomes of games. The study showed that only three types of serves were used, the floater, tennis and jump service. It was noted that the floater was the most used and most effective serve. Also teams did not diversify types of serves. This led to the conclusion that level of African female volleyballers; masteries of serves and abilities to use them to determine outcomes of games were very low. These findings are very necessary for the present study in trying to understand satisfaction, performance, training and instructions, which are key variables under study.

2.5.3 Research on Satisfaction and Motivation among Athletic Trainers and Coaches

Based on the extensive amount of research on job satisfaction conducted by organizational scholars, it is not surprising that this construct has received attention in sport management. One employee group that has been studied in regards to their degree of job satisfaction is athletic coaches. They are considered one of the primary employee groups in athletics, and thus, there is a need to understand their work experiences (Chelladurai & Ogasawara, 2003). Additionally, there tends to be a higher degree of turnover among coaches making it important for athletic administrators to understand more about how to retain coaches (Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 1996). The commonsense theme (Fisher, 2003) that a happy worker is a productive worker has resulted in a number of studies in sport management, which measured job satisfaction and its influence on a variety of employee attitudes and behaviours (Chelladurai & Ogasawara, 2003; Cunningham & Sagas, 2004; Kim & Cunningham, 2005; Saga & Batista, 2001; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004).

Roberto & YeanSub (2001) studied Job Satisfaction among Athletic Trainers in NCAA Division I AA Institutions. The participants were 138 certified athletic trainers (73 men, 65 women) from NCAA Division IAA institutions, which sponsored football. They consisted of program directors (13.0%), faculty (5.1%), head athletic trainers (16.7%), assistant athletic trainers (48.6%), and graduate assistants (16.7%). Education of the respondents was as follows: bachelor's degree = 13%, masters degree = 67.4%, doctoral degree = (13.0%). The majority of subjects (34.8%) had

one to five years experience, 31.2% had six to 10 years of experience, and 22.5% had more than 16 years experience in athletic training. The study by Roberto & YeanSub (2001) utilized demographic variables of age, gender and experience. They also used classification of the coaches' satisfaction depending on their qualifications.

Demographic data pertaining to gender, age, experience, and education level were collected. Job satisfaction among athletic trainers was measured using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). This instrument utilized a 20-dimension Likert-type scale with five responses (1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = neutral, 4 = satisfied, and 5 = very satisfied). The purpose of the MSQ is to determine the degree of job satisfaction in characteristics associated with the task itself (intrinsic satisfaction), in non-task characteristics of the job (extrinsic satisfaction), and in overall job satisfaction (total satisfaction). Evidence for validity of the MSQ has been derived mainly from its performing according to its construct validity. Coefficients ranged from .84 to .91 for intrinsic satisfaction while external satisfaction scale coefficients ranged from .77 to .82. General satisfaction scale coefficients ranged from .87 to .92. Reliability reported from Hoyt reliability coefficients suggested that the MSQ scales have adequate internal consistency reliabilities.

The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics by frequency distributions, percentages, means, and standard deviations. Also, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if significant differences existed in the level of job satisfaction among

athletic trainers relative to their demographics. When the results of the ANOVA test were statistically significant, Post hoc Scheffe multiple comparisons were conducted to determine where differences between means existed.

Results showed that primarily, the intrinsic variables of social status (Mean = 3.52), moral values (Mean = 3.50), and achievement (Mean = 3.41) were the top three most satisfying areas of athletic training personnel. Working conditions (Mean = 2.45), company policies and procedures (Mean = 2.22), advancement (Mean = 2.20), and compensation (Mean = 1.42) were the least satisfying variables among athletic training personnel.

Athletic training program directors had a mean rating of 3.58, and athletic training faculty had a mean rating of 3.47, which indicates that they are satisfied with their job. On the other hand, head athletic trainers had a mean rating of 2.85, assistant athletic trainers had a mean rating of 2.47, and graduate assistants had a mean rating of 1.40. The results of the one-way ANOVA test indicate there were statistically significant differences between groups in their satisfaction levels based on the subject's employment ($F=152.875$, $p=.000$). The results of the Scheffe' post-hoc test indicate that the program directors and faculty had statistically significant higher job satisfaction levels than head athletic trainers, assistant athletic trainers, and graduate assistants. Certified graduate assistants had the lowest satisfaction levels.

Male athletic trainers had a mean of 2.79, while female athletic trainers had a mean of 2.27 on job satisfaction. The results of the one-way ANOVA test indicate there were statistically significant differences between male and female athletic trainers in their total job satisfaction ($F=20.401$, $p=000$). Female athletic trainers showed statistically significant higher dissatisfaction than their male counterparts.

Athletic trainers between 20-29 years of age had a mean of 2.11, subjects between 30-39 had a mean of 2.81 and subjects of 50 or more years old had the highest mean score of 2.96. The results of the one-way ANOVA test indicated that there were statistically significant differences between groups in their total job satisfaction based on the subjects' age ($F=17.709$, $p=.000$). The results of the Scheffe' post-hoc test indicated that athletic trainers between 20-29 had statistically significantly higher job dissatisfaction than the other age groups.

Subjects with a bachelor's degree had a mean of 2.30, master's degree subject's had a mean of 2.56, and subjects with a doctoral degree had the highest mean of 2.83. The results of the one-way ANOVA test indicated that statistically significant differences between groups based on the subject's educational level ($F=3.149$, $p=.46$). The results of the Scheffe' post-hoc test indicated that athletic trainers with a bachelor's degree had a significantly higher dissatisfaction than athletic trainers with a doctoral degree.

Athletic trainers with one to five years of experience had a mean rating of 2.00, and subjects of 16 or more years had a mean value of 2.95. The

results of the one-way ANOVA test indicate there were statistically significant differences between groups based on the subjects' years of experience ($F=19.826$, $p=.000$). The results of the Scheffe' post-hoc test indicate the means of total job satisfaction of athletic training personnel were statistically significant to years of experience. Subjects with one to five years had mean scores statistically lower than groups with more years experience.

The study concluded that total satisfaction rank scores indicated intrinsic variables to be the most satisfying element in the profession. Social service ranked as the most satisfying variable in total job satisfaction. Advancement and compensation were the most dissatisfying variables of total job satisfaction. The highest level of satisfaction was seen in program directors and athletic training faculty. The lower the employment position the lower the satisfaction level. Satisfaction may be contributed to the level of compensation, which was seen at various positions. The most dissatisfied were younger members of the profession: specifically, the certified graduate assistant. Male respondents had a higher level of satisfaction as compared to females. This may be related to the dissatisfying score of advancement in the profession. However, advancement was a total job satisfaction variable, which in general, athletic training personnel found dissatisfying. As educational levels increased so did the level of job satisfaction. As the years of experience increased so did the job satisfaction of the subjects.

Roberto & YeanSub (2001) concluded that it was unfortunate to see dissatisfaction among any athletic training personnel. All groups in the study indicated that compensation was a major factor in total job satisfaction. A major concern was the dissatisfaction of certified graduate assistants. Roberto & YeanSub (2001) noted that these individuals are usually underpaid and overworked. The study further emphasized that in any institutional environment, graduate assistants are assets to the programs effectiveness. It is time for a change in this pattern of employment abuse among graduate assistants. Additionally, the study concluded that graduate assistant athletic training personnel must be made aware of the advantages and disadvantages of the expectations of the position prior to employment. However, no matter how much work is involved with virtually no pay and no benefits, there will always be someone waiting to take the position. Until this pattern changes, graduate assistants will never be fully compensated for their hard work. The study by Roberto & YeanSub (2001) will make a good understanding of satisfaction in the present study especially the subscale of budget and ethics, which have been exhaustively covered.

Turner & Jordan (2006) carried out a study on Commitment and Satisfaction of Coaches. The study was titled "Commitment and Satisfaction of Coaches: Which is Important in the Retention and Performance of Coaches?" The research project was part of a larger study on coaching behaviours. All head coaches of NCAA Division I and III athletic teams were the target population for the study. At the time of the study, there were 5,399 athletic teams in Division I institutions and 6,193

in Division III schools. Using a 95% confidence level and a sampling error of 5%, a sample of 362 was calculated for each division (N=724) (Sissons, 1999). To guarantee representation of all sports, a stratified random sampling technique (by sport) was employed to select the 724 coaches who were sent the questionnaires.

Turner & Jordan (2006) sought for four main issues during this study; they included organizational commitment, satisfaction, intention to leave the organization and objective performance. Organizational commitment was measured using a modified version of Meyer & Allen's (1991) 24 item instrument to measure Affective Commitment Scale (AC), Normative Commitment Scale (NC), Continuance Commitment high personal sacrifice (CC: HiSac), and Continuance Commitment –low number of alternatives (CC: LoAlt) was chosen. Since the research was concerned with measure of overall job satisfaction for coaches, a single item measure was chosen to assess satisfaction. Coaches were asked to indicate their level of agreement to a single statement concerning overall job satisfaction ("Overall, I am satisfied with my current job") on a 7 –point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Intention to leave the organization was measured using two items adapted from a scale used by Meyer *et-al.* (1993). This included a 7 – point Likert scale, where respondents were asked how frequent they think about leaving their university and how likely it is that they will actually leave within the next two years. Objective performance was measured by asking the coaches their previous seasons win-lose record.

In conclusion, Turner & Jordan (2006) stated that satisfaction and commitment were significantly related to the turnover intentions and objective performance of intercollegiate head coaches. Most importantly, satisfaction had a greater influence on intention to leave the organization, while commitment had a greater influence on objective performance.

Conceptually, the relationship between job satisfaction and employee work performance would seem to be both positive and strong. Research by Fisher (2003) found that individuals tended to support the “commonsense theme” that satisfied workers were more likely to be productive workers. In contrast to this endorsement of the satisfied productive worker hypothesis, the majority of empirical work has revealed that the relationship between job satisfaction and performance, though positive, is generally weak and inconsistent (Fisher, 2003). However, despite past results, researchers continue to study the satisfaction – performance relationship in an attempt to clarify the “real” association between the two constructs.

Judge *et-al.* (2001) conducted a comprehensive examination of the satisfaction- performance relationship. It established a correlation much higher than the previous research by Iaffaldano & Muchinsky (1985). The study focused on the relationship between overall job satisfaction and performance and included correlations from 312 independent samples. A correlated correlation of $r = .30$ were established, indicating a relationship of moderate magnitude and one that is distinguishable from zero. Additionally, the study revealed that correlations between job satisfaction

and performance were stronger for jobs classified as complex (i.e. higher degree of responsibility; $p=.52$) compared with lower complexity positions ($p=.29$), suggesting that the amount of challenge associated with a position can influence the satisfaction – performance relationship. It has been suggested that the inconsistent and relatively weak relationships presented in past studies could be the result of limitations associated with measurement error and how the constructs were operationalized (Carmeli & Freund, 2004; Fisher, 2003; Saari & Judge, 2004; Turner & Jordan, 2006) which suggests the need to further explore the relationship.

2.5.4 Research on Satisfaction and Leadership in Sports

Weiss & Friedrichs (1986) explored the influence of leader behaviours, coach attributes, and institutional variables on performance and satisfaction of collegiate basketball teams. The players ($n=251$) and coaches ($n=23$) were from men's basketball teams competing in the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA). Weiss & Friedrichs (1986) considered the following institutional variables before selection of the school for the study; student enrolment of the college, percentage appointment as basketball coach, amount of basketball budget, amount of basketball scholarship awarded, and prior winning tradition. Coaching attributes and leadership behaviour were examined to classify the coaches into groups. The measurement tools used for the study were coaching data sheets completed by each coach individually, the 40 item Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980), and an Athletic Satisfaction Scale was used for the study, which was modified from the Industrial Organization Recreation Scale (IOR; Smith, 1976).

Multiple regression analyses were used to determine the influence of the variables on performance and satisfaction.

Weiss & Friedrichs (1986) found that certain leader behaviour would result in greater satisfaction of players. Players indicated that a democratic decision –making leadership style brought the individual athlete most satisfaction. Weiss & Friedrichs (1986) concluded that coaches impacted player satisfaction by providing positive feedback, and a supportive playing environment.

Another satisfaction study by Schliesman (1986) examined the relationship between the congruence of preferred and actual leadership behaviour and subordinate satisfaction with leadership. Members of a University track and field team (N=40) were participants in the study. The LSS (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) was administered, and two leadership satisfaction scales were developed. Schliesman (1987) concluded that “Social Support” leadership behaviour influenced satisfaction. Additionally, Schliesman (1987) found that people and relationship-oriented leader behaviours seemed to be most strongly related with satisfaction. This finding supports Weiss & Friedrich (1986) who found out that supportive playing environment increased players satisfaction in physical activity.

Horne & Carron (1985) studied compatibility in coach –athlete relationships. The participants were from four universities in Ontario, Canada. The athletes were participants in various sports that included volleyball (n=26), basketball (n=19), track and field (n=13) and swimming

(n=16). The coaches (n=9) were the sub-sample examined. The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO-B) Scale (Schutz, 1958,1966) was adapted for use in sport, the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS), a 40 -item scale, was used to assess the five dimensions of leadership; "Training and Instruction", Democratic Behaviour", Autocratic Behaviour", "Social Support" and "Positive Feedback" (LSS; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980), as well as a questionnaire designed to measure performance and satisfaction with coaching leadership. The instruments were mailed to the coaches and a team manager was asked to administer the questionnaires to the athletes without the coach in the same room. Stepwise discriminant function analysis was used to develop an equation of predictor variables to predict compatible and incompatible dyads. The athletes who rated the overall relationship with their coach between 1 and 4 on a 9-point scale were defined operationally as the incompatible group. The athletes who designated the relationship between a 7 and 9 were considered compatible (Horne & Carron, 1985).

Horne & Carron (1985) concluded that the athletes might have wanted a coach who was in charge as long as the needs of the athletes were being met. Also, athletes may use positive feedback from the coach as a motivator, encouraging improvement and hard work. Horne & Carron (1985) found that athletes determined social support as the environment in which students no longer experienced parental support and the competitiveness of sport was increased. According to the discriminant function analysis, the coach provided less encouragement and support compared to what the athletes would have preferred. The relationship

between the coach and the athlete was determined by the perception the athlete had of the amount of positive feedback and interaction provided by the coach. If the athlete perceived the coach as adequately furnishing positive reinforcement, then the athlete was more likely to be satisfied, and viewed the relationship as compatible. The participants who rated the coach as incompatible perceived a lack of positive feedback from the coach.

Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma & Miyauchi (1988) investigated sport leadership in a cross-national setting. The researchers studied 115 Japanese athletes and 100 Canadian university athletes, and compared the results between the two groups. Chelladurai *et-al* (1988) examined preferred leadership through the use of the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) developed by Chelladurai & Saleh (1980). Satisfaction was assessed through 18 items answered on a 7-point Likert Scale. Chelladurai *et-al* (1988) indicated differences between the two groups when preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction were compared. Chelladurai *et-al* (1988) found that "Japanese athletes preferred more of an autocratic and socially supportive leadership while Canadian athletes preferred more of training and instruction. Canadian athletes perceived coaches as more autocratic and revealed more satisfaction in personal performance- based outcomes and leadership, than did the Japanese athletes.

In a related study, Dwyer & Fischer (1990) observed perceptions of wrestlers coach leadership behaviours as predictors of satisfaction with

leadership. The participants were wrestlers who were 15 years old or older (n=152). Dwyer & Fischer (1990) used the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) and measured satisfaction with leadership through one question, "How satisfied are you with the leadership provided by your coach?". They also obtained general demographic information that included age and years of experience. Dwyer & Fischer (1990) concluded that the athletes perceived coaches as high on "Training and Instruction" and on "Positive Feedback", but low on "Autocratic Behaviour" on the LSS. No specific leadership style was found which related to satisfaction.

Another leadership related study was done by Aminuddin (2002) on practice of transformational leadership among Malaysian high school coaches and its impact on athlete satisfaction with individual performance. The study entailed 162 high school students from netball and soccer teams. The Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory (TLBI) developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1999) and the Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) developed by Riemer & Chelladurai (1998) were the two main instruments used for data collection. Also, subjects responded to demographic information of age, ethnicity, incentives, facilities and support system. The study found out that transformational leadership behaviour of the soccer and netball coaches were significantly related to players' satisfactions. Additionally, results showed that athletes were more likely to be satisfied with their performance if they were in good academic standing, and if they had a local Malaysian coach. Significant finding of the study by Aminuddin

(2002) to this study was the relationship between transformational leadership behaviour and players satisfaction.

Ipinmoroti (2002) carried out a related study to Aminuddin (2002) among coaches in Southwestern states of Nigeria. The study, "Type of Sport and Gender as Predictors of Coach Leadership Behaviour Patterns in Southwestern Nigeria" involved 261 subjects (131 team sports, 130 individual and dual sports). Data were collected with the Leadership Scale for Sports developed by Chelladurai & Saleh (1980). Results showed that gender was a significant predictor for training and instruction as well as rewarding (positive feedback) coach leadership behaviours among the coaches while type of sport was not a significant predictor of coach leadership behaviour.

2.6 Measuring Goal Orientation and Satisfaction in Sports

Examining the differences between goal orientation and levels of satisfaction of participants in connection to psychomotor activity can be accomplished through affective scale measures in these domains. Researchers have designed scales specific to each of these areas. The following subsections are included to elaborate on the types of testing models available in each of these areas: The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) developed by Duda & Nicholls (1992) and The Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Riemer & Chelladurai (1998).

2.6.1 Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ)

The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) (Duda & Nicholls, 1992) is a valuable tool to assess goal orientation. The scale is used to examine a number of individual traits, which determine athletic sport achievement orientation. The evolution of this scale begun with Duda (1989) when he investigated the relationship between “Task Orientation” and “Ego Orientation” and the perceived purpose of sport among 198 high school and University athletes in the 11th and 12th grades in a mid western city in United States of America (USA). The TEOSQ (Duda, 1989) was modified from scales assessing student views on the “Purpose of Schooling”, “Personal Goals in School”, and “Satisfaction with School” developed by Nicholls, Patashnick and Nolen (1985). The responses were based on a 5 point Likert scale and ranged from 1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. The stem that preceded each question was that, “A very important thing sport should do...”(Duda, 1989). The scales were administered in a group setting and the athletes were aware that the results would remain anonymous.

In furthering the development of a tool to measure goal orientation, Duda & Nicholls (1992) conducted a survey to examine high school students both academically and athletically. The researchers studied 207 American high school students in a mid western city in 10th and 11th grades. A variety of different areas including classroom and sport goal orientation items, classroom and sport belief items, as well as classroom and sport satisfaction items were measured. Questionnaires were distributed in a group setting and a trained administrator presented orally the questions

while the students recorded answers on a computerized scoring sheet. In this development of TEOSQ, goal orientation were measured based on a 19-item Motivation Orientation Scale (Nicholls, 1989; Nicholls, Cobb, Wood, Yackel & Patashnick, 1990; Nicholls *et al*, 1985).

Duda & Nicholls (1992) used factor analysis to examine the factor structure of the goal orientation scale. The construct validity of the test was determined through principal components exploratory factor analysis in which the TEOSQ was found to consist of two stable factors: "Task Orientation" and "Ego Orientation". The concurrent validity of the TEOSQ was supported when the "Task Orientation" subscale correlated with the Purpose of Sport Questionnaire (Duda, 1989). Duda & Nicholls (1992) further estimated The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients (Cronbach, 1951) of the factors, "Ego Orientation", .89; and "Task Orientation", .89. Duda (1989) found the Cronbach alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) for the TEOSQ on the six item "Task Orientation" subscale as .82; and seven item "Ego Orientation" subscale as .89. Duda *et-al* (1995) used two undergraduate samples to provide further evidence for the internal consistency alpha reliability of the TEOSQ concluding "task Orientation" as .83 and "Ego Orientation" as .78. Additionally, students who were determined as high on "Task Orientation" were found to experience more enjoyment and interest in their respective physical activities.

Li, Harmer & Acock (1996) also examined the validity and reliability of the TEOSQ (Duda and Nicholls, 1992) using Structural Equation

Modeling (SEM) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Invariance tests through gender carried out by Li *et-al* (1996) found that males and females were similar in the ability to distinguish between "Task Orientation" and "Ego Orientation". SEM allowed Li *et-al* (1996) to examine the consistency of the scale items across different participation groups. Additionally, SEM was used to compare means of the latent variables providing a more accurate assessment of differences among latent variables over groups. Testing of the latent mean structures indicated significant differences between males and females regarding "Ego Orientation" with males scoring higher. However, no differences were found in "Task Orientation" for males and females. Li *et-al* (1996) concluded that the TEOSQ (Duda & Nicholls, 1992) was found to be a valid and reliable psychological scale for use across gender groups.

A confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was carried out by Li, Harmer, Duncan, T., Duncan, S., Acock, & Yamamoto (1998) on the TEOSQ. Participants were college students (N=1,002) from three universities in the Pacific Northwest United States of America (USA). All of the students were enrolled in a physical skill class including one of the following: basketball; fencing; martial arts; track athletics; soccer; volleyball; or weight training. The sample was divided into two equal groups and administered the TEOSQ as well as The Sports Motivation Scale (SMS) developed by Pelletier *et-al* (1995) to assess motivation. Li *et-al* (1998) chose to use the following three intrinsic motivation subscales for the purpose of the study; intrinsic motivation to know (for the pleasure of discovering new training techniques); intrinsic motivation to accomplish

tasks (for the pleasure that I feel while executing certain difficult movements) and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (for the satisfaction I experience while I am perfecting my abilities). Each subscale was comprised of four items which were answered on a 7- point Likert scale, ranging from 1= “strongly disagree” to 7= “strongly agree”. An overall composite score was determined for each subscale and used as an indicator of intrinsic motivation.

Li *et-al* (1998) concluded that alpha reliability of the TEOSQ was .90 for “Task Orientation” and .88 for “Ego Orientation”. The composite reliability coefficients were .88 for “Task Orientation “ and .86 for “Ego Orientation”, suggesting both subscales are internally consistent. Li *et-al* (1998) provided adequate construct validity of the TEOSQ through examination of the criterion –related concurrent validity, which indicated that both “Task Orientation” and “Ego Orientation” have been predictors of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. Li *et-al* (1998) indicated that the TEOSQ developed by Duda and Nicholls (1992) is a valid and reliable tool of achievement goal orientation measurement in physical activity.

2.6.2.The Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ)

According to Riemer & Chelladurai (1998), Athletic Satisfaction is a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience. Riemer & Chelladurai (1998) developed The Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) to examine a comprehensive list of athletic satisfaction components applicable to the testing of satisfaction of

intercollegiate athletes. Riemer & Chelladurai (1998) investigated the satisfaction of the respondents to a variety of situations encountered during the participation of sport at the collegiate level. The scale included 56 items, or questions, which were statements concerning different aspects of the athletic experience. Athletes responded on a 7- point Likert scale with 1= "not satisfied" to 7= "extremely satisfied".

The ASQ included important components of athletic satisfaction determined through the following subscales: individual performance (an individuals' satisfaction with his/her own task performance which include absolute performance, improvements in performance, and goal achievement), team performance (an individuals satisfaction with his/her teams level of performance which includes absolute performance, goal achievement, and implies performance improvements), ability utilization (satisfaction with how the coach uses and / or maximizes the individual athletes talents and /or abilities), strategy (satisfaction with the strategic and tactical decisions made by the coach, personal treatment (satisfaction with those coaching behaviours which directly affect the individual, yet indirectly affect team development . It includes social support and positive feedback), training and instruction (satisfaction with the training and instruction provided by the coach), team social contribution (satisfaction with how teammates contribute to the athlete as a person) and team task contribution (satisfaction with those actions by which the group serves as a substitute for leadership for the athlete). Other satisfaction components on the ASQ include ethics (satisfaction with the ethical/moral positions of teammates), team integration (satisfaction with

the members contributions and coordination of their efforts towards the teams task), personal dedication (athletes satisfaction with his/her own contribution to the team), budget (satisfaction with the amount of money provided to the team by the athletic department), medical personnel (satisfaction with the teams medical personnel), academic support services (satisfaction with the academic support services provided to the athletes), and external agents (satisfaction with those agents /elements outside the organization which may contribute to the team).

American undergraduate students (n=172) and Canadian university students (n=614) were tested to estimate the reliability and validity of the ASQ. Riemer & Chelladurai (1998) used Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and the item -to -total correlations to confirm the construct validity of the scale. Correlations between the ASQ subscales measuring the constructs of "Desire to Quit" and "Team Commitment" (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1997), and The Negative Affectivity Scale (Levin & Stokes, 1989) provided evidence for criterion-related validity. The researchers correlated the two subscales of "Desire to Quit" and "Team Commitment" developed by Riemer & Chelladurai (1997) and the results were significant ($p < .05$) with several of the correlations greater than +0.30 indicating criterion validity.

Riemer & Chelladurai (1998) found the Cronbach alpha reliability (Cronbach, 1951) coefficient for the 15 subscales ranged from .78 and .95. In 12 of the 15 subscales, the reliability was .85 or higher. The mean for the 15 subscales was .88. Although the ASQ was developed recently,

it has given satisfaction in physical activity more insight. This has enabled satisfaction to be studied more extensively like any other construct on sport psychology. The ASQ has multiple subscales that enable athletes' satisfaction to be measured through different dimensions. Also, its design is easy to understand and administer to many subjects.

2.7 Research on Goal Orientation and Satisfaction in Sports

A limited number of research studies have been conducted where the constructs of goal orientation and aspects of athletic satisfaction have been included. Petlichkoff (1993) studied group differences on achievement goal orientation, perceived ability and level of satisfaction during a high school athletic season. Participants were athletes (N=249) trying out for sports in two American mid-western school districts. The playing status of each athlete was determined according to whether the participants started each game (starters), participated in competitive play frequently but was not a starter (non-starter) or the athlete rarely played (survivors).

Petlichkoff (1993) utilized various measures to determine goal orientation, perceived ability, and satisfaction in sport. Achievement goal orientation was assessed through the Achievement Orientation Inventory (A.O.I) developed by Ewing (1981). Perceived ability was determined through the question, "How would you rate your ability compared to other athletes out for this team?" This question was derived from an earlier scale developed by Harter (1982) referred to as "The Perceived Competence Scale for Children". Satisfaction was evaluated through the

Comparison Level (CL) (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959) which determined a minimum level of satisfaction. Thibaut & Kelley (1959) created two standards; the comparison level (CL) and the Comparison Level of alternative (CL alt). Petlichkoff (1993) developed four questions which answered on a 9 point Likert scale where 9= "very satisfied" and 1= "dissatisfied", with 5= "neutral".

Petlichkoff (1993) used a 3 x 3 (player status x time of season) repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to determine if a significant interaction occurred. Petlichkoff (1993) found a significant interaction, which suggested participants varied on psychological constructs at different times in the different season. Petlichkoff (1993) concluded that only survivors had significant decreases in goal orientation, perceived competence and level of satisfaction by the end of the season due to limited participation. Starters and non-starters maintained goal orientation consistent to what was determined in the beginning of the season. Players who started a large majority of the games had the highest ratings on each of the three assessments, as well as were more focused on ability demonstration and competency at the beginning of the season. In contrast, players who were survivors or provided with little playing time scored the lowest on the achievement constructs presented. Therefore, playing time was an influential factor in the dropout rate of athletes. It was concluded that the importance of playing time for all individuals should be emphasized to coaches to allow players to experience improvements and practice time during competitive play.

Hom, Duda & Miller (1993) investigated correlation among goal orientations, beliefs about success, perceived ability and satisfaction/enjoyment for young adolescent athletes whose mean age was 11.3 years. The participants were young males and females involved in summer basketball camps in an American mid-western city. The basketball players completed the TEOSQ (Duda and Nicholls, 1992) to determine goal orientation as well as three other scales developed to assess beliefs about success, perceived ability and satisfaction / enjoyment.

Hom *et-al* (1993) found ego-oriented participants thrived on winning and enjoyed displaying high levels of talent in comparison with others. The task-oriented individual was less concerned with peer comparison and placed more emphasis on the activity at hand. Hom *et-al* (1993) found that only beginners were task oriented due to low skill levels and athletes with the potential for achievement in sport are more likely to be ego-oriented. Enjoyment or satisfaction in the sport of basketball was related to both goal orientations. That is, both ego oriented and task oriented individuals were linked to satisfaction in the sport, in contrast to the findings of Duda & Nichols (1992), who discovered that only "Task Orientation" correlated with satisfaction but not "Ego Orientation". These differences show that studies on goal orientation and satisfaction in sport are not conclusive.

In another research, Maday (2000) studied goal orientation and level of satisfaction in runners. The participants for this study were 68 male and

89 female intercollegiate cross-country runners from the New England area United States of America (U.S.A.). Participants were delimited to Division III athletes competing in an organized intercollegiate cross-country program in the fall of 1999. A total of 10 Division III New England area colleges in the Eastern Collegiate Athletic Conference (E.C.A.C) were included in the sample.

Demographic Questionnaire was used to indicate the age, gender, level of ability, and years of running experience. Level of ability was defined for females based on an average 5 – Kilometre distance with race time of 25 minutes or higher for beginners, 21-24 minutes for intermediate runners, and 20 minutes or under for advanced runners. Level of ability was determined for males based on an 8 kilometre distance, average race time as 30 minutes or higher for beginners, 27-29 minutes for intermediate runners, and 26 minutes or under for advanced runners. The TEOSQ (Duda and Nicholls, 1992) was utilized to assess goal orientation while satisfaction was measured by the ASQ (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998) for male and female intercollegiate cross-country runners.

A total of 175 questionnaires were administered with a 90% acceptance, 10% of the questionnaires were rejected due to incomplete data. Task orientation significantly correlated with the following subscales of the ASQ: Individual Performance, Ability Utilization, Strategy, Training and Instruction, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents. Ego Orientation significantly ($p < .05$)

negatively correlated with the following subscales of the ASQ: Ability Utilization, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, and Medical Personnel. Age significantly ($p < .05$) positively correlated with Personal Dedication subscale of the ASQ. However, age significantly ($p < .05$) negatively correlated with the Budget subscale of the ASQ.

Ability level significantly ($p < .05$) positively correlated with the following subscales of the ASQ. Team Social Contribution, Team Integration, and Personal Dedication. Ability level also significantly ($p < .05$) negatively correlated with the following subscales of the ASQ: Team Performance, Budget, Medical Personnel and Academic Support Services. No significant relationships were found between the demographic variable -years of experience and any of the 15 subscales of the ASQ or the two subscales of the TEOSQ.

The Levene Test of homogeneity of variance was used to determine if males and females had similar variance for each of the 17 subscales. From the Levene Test of homogeneity of variance, unequal variance was found only on the Team Group Ethics subscale of the ASQ indicating unequal variances for males and females. The standard deviation for females (.99) was significantly ($p < .05$) greater than for males (.68) for this variable. No significant ($p < .05$) mean differences were found for males and females on the mean scores for the two subscales of the TEOSQ. However, significant differences were found between mean scores for males and females on six of the subscales of the ASQ. Females had higher means than males on Team Performance, Budget, Medical

Personnel and Academic Support Services. Male runners had higher means than females on Team Social Contribution and Personal Dedication. Maday (2000) concluded that task oriented individuals scored higher on satisfaction subscales pertaining to Team Social Contribution, Personal Dedication, and Medical Personnel. Also, women were more satisfied with Team performance, Budget, Medical Personnel and Academic Support Services, while men were more satisfied with Personal Dedication and Team Social Contribution.

2.8 Summary of Literature Reviewed

Only three studies in the literature reviewed (Hom *et-al*, 1993; Maday, 2000 and Petlichkoff, 1993) involved goal orientation and satisfaction in sport. Other studies either investigated goal orientation and motivation or competence, satisfaction and motivation or leadership. Petlichkoff (1993) carried a study on goal orientation, perceived ability and satisfaction among high school students. Hom *et-al* (1993) carried out a study on goal orientation, beliefs about success, perceived ability and satisfaction /enjoyment for young adolescent athletes. Lastly, Maday (2000) investigated goal orientation and level of satisfaction in college runners. None of these studies involved elite athletes hence lack of information on athletes at this level. Also, samples used in these studies were not drawn from team sport, thus lack of information pertaining to goal orientation and satisfaction in team sports.

Petlichkoff (1993) found out that playing duration was an important factor in children's participation and performance in sport, with those

who frequently play having more confidence and satisfaction. On the other hand, Hom *et-al* (1993) found that both ego and task oriented players were linked to satisfaction, with task oriented players placing more emphasis on the activity at hand unlike ego oriented players who valued public display. Furthermore, Maday (2000) found female players to be more task oriented and greatly satisfied than male players. The present study synthesized all these diverse missing links into one study to help understand goal orientation in relation to gender, status and duration of play as found in the reviewed studies.

The demographic information under study in the three reviewed studies above were never exhaustive like the present study where the researcher sought five different demographic information. Many options in understanding goal orientation were never captured because of inadequate demographic information. The use of demographic information of gender, age, ability, status and experience in the present study gives it more focus than the previous studies. Consequently, the use of TEOSQ developed by Duda & Nicholls (1992) for measuring players goal orientation (ego and task orientation) and the ASQ developed by Riemer & Chelladurai (1998) to measure players' satisfaction widened the scope of this study. Goal orientation had two variables under study, while satisfaction in sports had 15 different subscales/variables under study. Thus, this study not only filled in the missing links in the area of physical activity but also goal orientation and satisfaction in sports. Furthermore, the present study on analysis of demographic factors, achievement goal orientation and

satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players was specific to the area of volleyball in Kenya.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methods and procedures that were used in this study. It is organized under the following sections; the research design, the target population, the sample and sampling procedures, research instruments, validity and reliability of research instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques.

3.2 The Research Design

A survey research design was used in this study. A survey design investigates what happens in a social setting without manipulating the variables under study (Hinton, 1995; Kerlinger, 1973; Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Additionally, survey design has been found convenient to study variables in their natural setting without manipulation (Haslam & McGarty; 2003; Hinton, 1995; Schuman & Kalton, 1985) thus able to examine relations that would be difficult to isolate experimentally such as age, gender, status experience and ability as in this study. Therefore, surveys are concerned with measuring naturally occurring relationships between variables. Additionally, a survey measures both independent and dependent variables. In this study, independent variables included demographic information of gender, age, participation status, experience and ability. These variables are causal hence independent. The dependent

variables in the study included goal orientation that encompass task and ego orientation and the 15 components of satisfaction which include individual performance, team performance, ability utilization, strategy, personal treatment, training and instruction, team social contribution, team task contribution, ethics, team integration, personal dedication, budget, medical personnel, academic support services, and external agents.

According to Haslam & McGarty (2003), surveys are more suitable for studying phenomena that are believed to be constant and enduring. These characteristics are in line with the present study, hence choice of survey as a research design. Surveys are easy to administer anywhere like in this case among Kenya volleyball league players. Also, this design allows researchers considerable scope to investigate many aspects of phenomena at the same time in the environment where they occur, like goal orientation (two sub variables) and satisfaction (15 sub variables). According to Schuman & Kalton (1985) survey methodology typically obtains information about a number of different variables in which the researcher is interested and identifies the relationships between the variables.

3.3 Target Population

Kenya Volleyball male and female league players in division one and two formed the target population for this study. The men's teams were 12 in both division one and two. However, the women teams in the national division one league were six in the 2004 season when data for the present

study were collected, and four in the year 2005 league. Schools, colleges and university teams that participated in the KVF organized tournaments represented national division two league for women. Most volleyball teams in Kenya Volleyball Federation (KVF) leagues have an average of 15 players. Based on these criteria, the total number of male players in division one was 180, and also a similar number in division two. Women's division 1 players had a population of 90 players in 2004 and 60 players in 2005 league. Womens' division two population is not well documented because of the multiple teams that come up to participate in KVF tournaments. For the year 2004, 20 different women's teams participated in various KVF tournaments with a total population of 300 players. Therefore, the total number of players in Kenyan top two leagues was 750.

3.4 The Sample and Sampling Procedures

Kenya Volleyball Federation has two top-level leagues for volleyball clubs for men and one national league for women. They included National division one League and National division Two League for men and National Division One League for women. Top institutions in sports have strong female teams, which regularly participate in the Kenya Volleyball Federation (KVF) tournaments, and are the next level after National Division One League. Therefore, schools, colleges and universities that participate in KVF organized tournaments were sampled as division two teams for women.

Samples for the study were drawn from National Division One and Two leagues / institutional teams for women. The two divisions formed the strata from which sample was drawn. At National Division One, three men's and three women's teams were randomly sampled for the study. The same number was also randomly sampled for the study from the National Division Two leagues/institutional teams. This added up to a total of 6 teams for men and 6 teams for women, which is 25% of the registered teams. For a survey study, a sample of between 10%-25% is adequate (Haslam & McGarty, 2003; Kerlinger, 1973; Sissions, 1999, Nachmias & Nachmias, 2005). A total of 15 players from three men's and three women's division one teams were sampled for the study. A similar number was also sampled for division two/ institutional teams for men and women. This added up to 180 players with 90 division one and also 90 division two players. This was 25% of the population, a representative sample as advocated by Haslam & McGarty, 2003; Kerlinger, 1973; Sissions, 1999, Nachmias & Nachmias, 2005). On analysis, the total number of players who participated in the study were 134 from 16 teams. The difference in the number of teams and subjects of the study was necessitated by the administrative and logistical challenges that made it impossible for some teams to produce adequate number of players for the study; hence increase of sampled teams from 12 to 16.

3.5 Instruments for Data Collection

Instruments for data collection were questionnaires. The first instrument was a researcher designed demographic questionnaire (Appendix B).

Researchers have used diverse demographic questionnaires in trying to understand athletes' behaviour, satisfaction and performance in sports. Variables such as individual differences (gender, experience, motivation, maturity, ability) have been applied. Subjects of research in sports satisfaction have included different demographic and institutional goals of competitive and recreational sports, variables of size and funding (Jordan & Turner, 2006; Weiss & Fredrichs, 1996), maturity (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983) nationality (Chelladurai *et-al*, 1988), players' ability and gender (Andanje, 2006; Kamal, 2003; Maday, 2000; Riemer & Toon, 2001) task characteristics (Chelladurai, 1984; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Setter & Asli, 2005), and experience (Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Jordan & Turner, 2006; Maday, 2000). Hence, the demographic questionnaire used in this study that entailed age, gender, ability, level of participation and experience is in line with such instruments utilized elsewhere by researchers in goal orientation and sports satisfaction studies.

Other instruments included the "Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire" (TEOSQ) (Appendix C) adapted from Duda & Nicholls (1992) and the "Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire" (ASQ) (Appendix D) developed by Riemer & Chelladurai (1998). The TEOSQ is a valuable tool to assess goal orientation (Duda, 1992; Maday, 2000). The scale is used to examine a number of individual traits and determine sport achievement motivation. The TEOSQ is used to assess whether an athlete shows characteristics of "Ego Orientation" and/or "Task Orientation".

The scale includes 13 items, which are answered on a five point Likert Scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5).

Rierner & Chelladurai (1998) developed the Athletic Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ). This scale was developed to examine a comprehensive list of athlete's satisfaction components applicable to the testing of satisfaction of intercollegiate athletes. The ASQ is a scale with 56 items divided into 15 subscales / dimensions. Items are scored on seven- point Likert type scale which is anchored by “Not at all Satisfied” and “Extremely Satisfied”, with “Moderately Satisfied” as the mid point value.

The 15 satisfaction subscales on the ASQ include, individual performance (an individuals satisfaction with his/her own task performance which include absolute performance, improvements in performance, and goal achievement), team performance (an individuals satisfaction with his/her teams level of performance which includes absolute performance, goal achievement, and implies performance improvements), ability utilization (satisfaction with how the coach uses and / or maximizes the individual athletes talents and /or abilities) and strategy (satisfaction with the strategic and tactical decisions made by the coach). They also include personal treatment (satisfaction with those coaching behaviours which directly affect the individual, yet indirectly affect team development and includes social support and positive feedback), training and instruction (satisfaction with the training and instruction provided by the coach), team social contribution (satisfaction

with how teammates contribute to the athlete as a person) and team task contribution (satisfaction with those actions by which the group serves as a substitute for leadership for the athlete).

Other satisfaction components on the ASQ include ethics (satisfaction with the ethical /moral positions of teammates), team integration (satisfaction with the members contributions and coordination of their efforts towards the teams task), personal dedication (athletes satisfaction with his/her own contribution to the team), budget (satisfaction with the amount of money provided to the team by the athletic / sports department), medical personnel (satisfaction with the teams medical personnel), academic support services (satisfaction with the academic support services provided to the athletes), and external agents (satisfaction with those agents /elements outside the organization which may contribute to the team). Through expert judgment by discussion with volleyball team managers, trainers and coaches, and also the experts in sports and exercise science, it was found that factors included in the two scales for data collection are relevant to the Kenyan situation and are requirements for any athlete participating in competitive play.

3.6 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments

The two scales used in this study, TEOSQ and ASQ have been assessed for their suitability in various studies. Duda (1992) found the test-retest reliability of the two sub-scales of the TEOSQ, task orientation and ego orientation with a three-week period between testing acceptability with coefficient of .68 and .75 respectively. Additionally, the mean internal

consistency alpha reliability coefficient of .78 and .81 were determined for the "task orientation" and "ego orientation" subscales respectively from the analysis of 56 different studies by Duda & Whitehead (1998).

The TEOSQ has been used with a variety of participants, ranging from college students enrolled in a skills class, college athletes, high school athletes and adolescent youth athletes. The repeated use of TEOSQ, show that it is a reliable and valid tool hence its use by many researchers. Also, being a Likert scale tool, it is easier to administer yet it encompasses many elements of task and ego orientation on sports. The psychometric tests for validity and reliability the TEOSQ has been exposed to show that it is a refined tool; therefore it qualified to be used in this study.

The TEOSQ was also exposed to a split-half test during the pilot study to examine its reliability. Split half test is one of the methods used to asses reliability of research tools (Bali, Ingule & Rono, 1988) This study found a Guttman Split-half correlation coefficient of .64 for task orientation and .79 for ego orientation. Considering the tool was adopted from American population which showed a coefficient correlation of .68 and .75 by Duda (1990) and later a mean internal consistency alpha reliability coefficient of .78 and .81 by Duda & Whitehead (1998) for task and ego orientation respectively, the Guttman Split-half correlation coefficient of .64 for task orientation and .79 for ego orientation obtained by this study are satisfactory. This is because of the social-economic and environmental discrepancy between the various locations the researches were carried out.

The second instrument for data collection was the ASQ developed by Riemer & Chelladurai (1998). It includes components of athletic satisfaction determined through 15 sub-scales with the alpha reliability coefficient ranging from .75-.95 (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). At the initial stages of development, Riemer & Chelladurai (1998) computed both exploratory and confirmatory analysis of items to total correlation coefficient to investigate the factorial validity of the instrument. During this study, a Guttman Split-half correlation coefficient between .78 - .94 was obtained for the 15 components of satisfaction on the ASQ. This correlation was found to be satisfactory for use in this study. Additionally, considering the magnitude of use for this instrument, and the procedure of its development, it is a valid instrument to be used for data collection in this study. Both instruments (TEOSQ and ASQ) have been widely used by researchers at various levels. The consistency of these instruments and expert judgment by the supervisors of this study gives adequate validity for use of the two scales.

3.7 Pilot Study

Prior to the main study, the researcher carried out a pilot study with teams from top two levels of volleyball leagues. This comprised one for men and the other for women from division one league. The teams were selected randomly from the total number of teams in the two leagues and did not feature in the main study. Findings of the pilot study were used to refine the procedures, methods and analyses of data. After the pilot study, the researcher discovered that it would be very ideal to collect data at either the training venue, or the venue of tournaments and league

matches. This was because of the logistics of assembling all the team players together and instructing them on what to do in a uniform manner. Also, the researcher revised wording of some questionnaire items for ease of understanding by the respondents. The pilot study also revealed that it would be appropriate to use t-tests to measure satisfaction levels by comparing means and Chi-square test of independence to measure goal orientation because of its ability to compare frequencies.

A split half test between even and odd number questionnaires was carried out at this stage to determine the reliability of the two instruments (TEOSQ and ASQ) used for data collection. The Cronbach alpha on TEOSQ was .685 for task and .688 for ego orientation. These coefficients were found to be low, but because of the instruments having been designed for the western population, they were acceptable to the Kenya situation with a few modifications on the wording of the questionnaires. Cultural diversity might have been the main cause of recording low reliability on the instruments. Reliability test for the 15 subscales of ASQ using the Cronbach alpha coefficient ranged between .781-.951. This reliability was found to be acceptable hence its adoption for use in this study. The Likert scales were also found to be too demanding for the subjects while responding to the questionnaire; hence the scales were reduced from five to three for the TEOSQ and seven to three for the ASQ respectively. The researcher also used the pilot study to train the research assistants on how to instruct and supervise subjects on completing the questionnaire.

3.8 Procedures for Data Collection

The researcher applied for a research permit from the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology before data collection procedure. Through an introductory letter from Kenyatta University; Department of Exercise Recreation and Sports Science, the researcher informed the officials of the sampled teams in advance about the study to be carried out. Prior arrangements were made with team officials concerning the time, location and date for data collection. The team officials and players were informed in advance of the anonymity of the information provided and also benefit of getting feedback after the research has been concluded. Data collection was carried out at the training venue of the selected teams or at the venue of competitions during various tournaments based on the convenience of the researcher, players and team officials. The researcher, with the help of research assistants supervised the exercise of completing the three questionnaires and collected them after completion.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data collected from the demographic questionnaire, TEOSQ and ASQ were coded and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences. The analysis included percentages, means, standard deviations, independent t- tests and Chi- square test of independence. Data analysis was carried out in three phases. The first phase involved descriptive statistics, where means, percentages and standard deviations were obtained from the data to simplify understanding of the distribution of

the demographic factors. The mean is a very significant measure of central tendency because of its sensitivity to all the scores on a continuum (Hinton, 1995; Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999) hence its choice. Additionally, the standard deviation gives a measure of the standard distance of a score from the mean thus significant in this study, while percentages gives a clearer ranking of a score in the distribution (Hinton, 1995).

Chi-square test of independence was utilized in the second phase of analysis to compare frequencies of demographic information of age, gender, status, ability, and experience to goal orientation of the players. Chi-square test of independence is applicable to questionnaires and also has ability to compare two or more patterns of frequency to check if they are different from each other (Haslam and McGarty, 2003; Hinton, 1995). Therefore, this was an appropriate statistic to be used in this study. In the third phase, independent group t-ratios were used to compare differences between means (Hinton, 1995) to determine age, gender, ability, experience, and status on each of the 15 sub-scales of the ASQ. Independent group t-ratios were used to determine whether there are significant differences between two means derived from the samples or groups at a specified probability level (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Hypotheses testing on goal orientation were carried out by use of Chi-square test of independence, while satisfaction levels were tested by use of independent t-test. All the hypotheses were tested at .05 level of significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter covers findings and discussions on demographic factors, goal orientation and satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players. Each section has been divided further into various sub-sections on key factors of the variables under study.

4.2 Demographic Factors among Kenya Volleyball League Players

The demographic factors under study included age, gender, team level/ability, players' participation status and experience. Age comprised of younger and older players, while gender included male and female players. Team level/ability category was made up of players in the national volleyball leagues one and two, while status involved players on the first team/starters and substitute players /non-starters. Experience was categorized as those who had played for ten or more years in the national volleyball leagues/ experienced while those who had played for less than ten years in the national volleyball leagues were regarded as less experienced. Most players in the Kenya volleyball leagues commence participation in division 2 while studying at high school level and proceed to division 1 league after high school. This helped to set the boundary between experienced and non experienced players at 10 years participation in either division 1 or 2 volleyball leagues. Hence, majority of experienced players have played for almost four years at division 2, and more than five

years at division 1 volleyball leagues. A total of 134 players (Table 4.1) from 16 teams participated in this study.

Table 4.1 Demographic Distribution of Kenya Volleyball League Players

Demographic Factors	Variables	Number	Percentage
Age	Below 25 years	72	53.7%
	25 years and above	62	46.3%
Gender	Male	62	46.3%
	Female	72	53.7%
Team Level	Division 1	65	48.5%
	Division 2	69	51.5%
Players Status	First Team	94	70.1%
	Substitute Team	40	29.9%
Experience	Less than 10 years	118	88.1%
	10 years and above	16	11.9%

N=134

Table 4.1 shows that 62 (46.3 %) of the players were male while 72 (53.7%) were female. The older category of players (25 years of age and above) was 62 (46.3%) while the younger players (under 25 years of age) were 72 (53.7%). The sample had 65 (48.5%) players from division one, and 69 (51.5%) from division two. First team players (starters) were 94 (70.1 %) while substitute players (non-starters) were 40 (29.9%). Players who had participated in National Division one or National Division two for less than 10 years (less experienced) were 118 (88.1 %) while those who had played for 10 years or more (experienced) were 16 (11.9%).

Age has been a very debatable demographic factor among Kenya volleyball leagues especially women teams (KVF, 2004). Some of the

players in the 2004 KVF leagues aged over 40 years have been playing since the 4th All African games held in Nairobi in 1987. However; they have achieved a rare ability to competitively play alongside the younger players. During the African club championship in Nairobi in 2005, the Egyptian Al Ahly coach Raouf Abdel Kader after losing to Kenya Pipeline commented that he had lost fairly to a very strong side. He stated that the Kenyan women were mature, focused and very experienced. Therefore, they had a rare advantage that enabled them to win (KVF, 2005). In the same championships, Telkom Kenya with an average age of 29 years finished 4th, Al Ahly of Egypt with an average age of 19 years finished third, Kenya Commercial Bank with an average age of 23 years finished second, while the winners, Kenya Pipeline had an average age of 25 years (KVF, 2005).

A study by Young-Jun *et-al* (1997) among Korean elite athletes had shown that a proportion of 72 (42.9%) athletes were between 18-21 years of age while 60(36.9%) were 22-25 years of age. Only 6(3.6%) were over 30 years old. The present study had a similar finding where majority of the players are below 25 years of age. It seems that in most competitive team sports, majority of the players are below the age of 25 years of age. Coaches and trainers should therefore utilize players at this age because it is a prime age among athletes (Young-Jun *et-al*, 1997). This dimension has greatly been shown at the Olympic Games where majority of athletes who win medals are below 25 years of age (International Olympic Committee, 2004). However, players who still make the team after 25 years of age should be relied on because of their experience (Maday,

2000). Such mature players have exceptional traits and contribute a lot to the team through their experience and exposure. They also have stable temperament (Bull, 1991) and greatly manage the role of being team captains and coach players. It has been observed that older players compete well against the younger players in various major tournaments (KVF, 2004; FIVB, 2005). Additionally, players aged 25 years and above are more experienced because of the longer duration of being involved in the sport.

Another variable in the present study closely linked to age is experience, where majority of the players 118(88.1%) had less than 10 years playing experience, while 16 (11.9%) of the players had more than 10 years playing experience. Alternatively, 62 (46.3%) of the players were 25 years old and above, while 72 (53.7%) of the players were below the age of 25 years. These findings show that majority of the players hardly played for over 10 years in the national leagues. Experience gives an advantage to any team as players are more exposed and well grounded technically and tactically. Most players who are older usually are appointed team captains because of their contributions on and off the court to the team. Also, studies have shown that more experienced players are less temperamental hence an advantage to a team's discipline (Bull, 1990; Cox, 1991). This finding was well observed during the Africa Cup of Nations soccer tournament in Tunisia in the year 2004 where majority of the players who were cautioned or booked for foul play were of less experience and also young (CAF, 2004). The 1990 FIFA World Cup also showed that older and experienced players could excel where less experienced players failed.

One of the best players during the tournament, Roger Miller of Cameroun was aged 40 years during the tournament. The same scenario was repeated during the 2006 FIFA world cup tournament in Germany where the best player, Zinedine Zidane was aged 34 years, while the mean age during this tournament was 27 years (FIFA, 2006).

This study also found that a higher percentage 94 (70.19%) of players was on the first team, while only 40 (29.9%) of the players sampled were from the substitute team. This factor may have been contributed by the financial implications to the team. Keeping many players in the reserve team increases the total budget of the team because of sustaining the players. However, having a lean number of players and hence fewer second team players minimizes expenditure on the team. Other demographic factors of gender (male/female) and team level (division one/two) helped to show the percentage of players in the leagues. Female players 72 (53.7%) were more than male players 62 (46.3%). This shows that women's teams recruit many players than the men's teams. Chances of dropping midway from the team for women due to personal commitments are higher than for men. This may explain why KVF has been unable to sustain women's division two league. Therefore, the management of women's teams recruit more players as a measure to avoid the team failing because of dropout from sport.

Division one teams also had fewer players 65 (48.5%) compared to division two teams 69 (51.5%). Most division two teams are made up of institutional clubs with most of the players being high school, college and

university students. The budget for such teams are less as they take part in fewer competitions nationally, hence ability to sustain higher number of players. On the other hand, division one players are mainly made up of mature players; hence higher budgetary allotments are expected. Young – Jun *et-al* (1997) had similar findings among Korean elite athletes where 100 (59.5%) of the team were made up of university team members, while 56 (33.3%) were members of company or club teams, with a few on the high school teams. It is therefore more expensive to sustain players in National division one league than National Division two league. This could explain why division two teams have more players than division one teams.

4.3 Demographic characteristics and Goal Orientation among Kenya Volleyball League Players

Demographic characteristics of age, gender, status, ability and experience were compared to goal orientation where Chi square values were computed. Age category comprised younger and older players, gender included male and female players, ability involved players in division 1 and 2 teams, participating status comprised of starters/first team and non starters /reserve team players, while experience comprised less experienced and experienced players. Goal orientation included task and ego orientation. Table 4.2 shows details of Chi-square test of independence between goal orientation and demographic characteristics of Kenya volleyball league players.

Table 4.2: Chi-square test of independence between goal orientation variables (ego and task) and demographic factors

Independent variable			Dependent variable			Chi-square (χ^2)		
			Ego	Task	Total	Value	Sig. (2 sided)	Min. exp No.
Age	Young	No.	6	66	72	1.925	.165	7.40
		%	8.3%	91.7%	100.0%			
	Old	No.	10	52	62			
		%	16.1%	83.9%	100.0%			
	Total	No.	16	118	134			
		%	11.9 %	88.1 %	100 %			
Gender	Male	No.	10	52	62	1.925	.165	7.40
		%	16.1 %	83.9 %	100 %			
	Female	No.	6	66	72			
		%	8.3 %	91.7 %	100 %			
	Total	No.	16	118	134			
		%	11.9 %	88.1 %	100 %			
Ability/ Teams Level	Division 1	No.	10	55	65	1.424	.233	7.76
		%	15.4 %	84.6 %	100 %			
	Division 2	No.	6	63	69			
		%	8.7 %	91.3 %	100 %			
	Total	No.	16	118	134			
		%	11.9 %	88.1 %	100 %			
Team Status	Starters	No.	10	84	94	.508	.476	4.78
		%	10.6 %	89.4 %	100.0%			
	Non- starters	No.	6	34	40			
		%	15.0 %	85.0 %	100.0%			
	Total	No.	16	118	134			
		%	11.9 %	88.1 %	100.0%			
Experience	Below 10 yrs	No.	15	103	118	.560	.454	1.91
		%	12.7 %	87.3 %	100.0%			
	10 yrs and above	No.	1	15	16			
		%	6.3 %	93.8 %	100.0%			
	Total	No.	16	118	134			
		%	11.9 %	88.1 %	100.0%			

N=134, df=1, p=. 05

The main hypothesis as regards goal orientation and democratic characteristics was that there would be no significant difference between task and ego orientations on democratic characteristics of Kenya volleyball league players. This hypothesis was split further into various demographic characteristics under study of age, gender, status, ability and experience for clearer analysis. Table 4.2 shows that there were more task-oriented younger players 66 (91.7%) than older players 52 (83.9%) on age category. However, no significant ($p > .05$) difference was found between players of different age categories (young and old) on either of the two-goal orientation (task and ego orientation) among Kenya Volleyball League Players. Hence, Chi-square value of 1.925, $p = .165 > .05$ was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis $H_{01(a)}$ that there would be no significant ($p > .05$) difference between younger and older players on task and ego orientation among Kenya Volleyball League Players was accepted. This finding shows that players' goal orientation was not determined by the age of the players. Majority of the younger players 66 (91.7%) were found to be task oriented. The same observation was made among the older players where 52 (83.9%) were task oriented.

Gender category showed that there were more task-oriented female players 66 (91.7%) than male players 52 (83.9%). The Chi-square value of 1.925, $p = 0.165 > .05$ was not significant. Additionally, there was no significant ($p > .05$) difference between male and female players on task and ego orientation. Therefore, the null hypothesis $H_{01(b)}$ that there would

be no significant ($p > .05$) difference between male and female Kenya Volleyball League players on task and ego orientation was accepted.

Ability category showed that there were more task-oriented division two players 63(91.3%) than division one players 55 (84.6%). Alternatively, there were more ego oriented division one players 10(15.4%) than division two players 6 (8.7%). The Chi-square value of 1.42, $p=0.233 >.05$ was not significant. Hence, there was no significant ($p < .05$) difference between task and ego orientation from either division one or two league players. Therefore, the null hypothesis $H_{0(c)}$ that there would be no significant ($p < .05$) difference between division one and two Kenya Volleyball League players on task and ego orientation was accepted.

Status category showed that the percentage of first team /starters was higher 84 (89.4%) than second team /non-starter players 34 (85.0%) on task orientation. Consequently, the percentage of ego-oriented players was higher for second team players 6 (15.0%) compared to first team players 10 (10.6%). The Chi-square value of .508, $p=.476 >.05$, was not significant, thus there was no significant ($p < .05$) difference between starters and non -starters on task and ego orientation. Therefore, the null hypothesis $H_{0(d)}$ that there would be no significant ($p < .05$) difference between starters and non- starters on task and ego orientation among Kenya Volleyball League Players was accepted.

Experience category showed a higher percentage of experienced players 15 (93.8%) than less experienced players 103 (87.3%) on task orientation. Consequently, the percentage of ego oriented less experienced players was

higher 15 (12.7%) than experienced players 1 (6.3%) However, the Chi-square value of .508, $p=0.454>.05$, was not significant. No significant ($p>.05$) difference between more experienced and less experienced players on task and ego orientation was observed. Therefore, the null hypothesis $H_{01(e)}$ that there would be no significant ($p<.05$) difference between goal orientation (task and ego) and players experience among Kenya volleyball league players was accepted.

Both younger and older players were found to be task oriented hence no significant ($\chi^2=1.925$, $p=.165 >.05$) difference between younger and older players on task and ego orientation. Therefore, regardless of the players' age, their orientation was not affected. This study found that age is not a determinant of goal orientation. According to Duda (1992), goal orientation is a psychological state that does not change regardless of the athletes' status. A study by White & Zellner (1996) among high school, intercollegiate and recreational sport participants found younger athletes particularly male to be ego oriented. Also, the same category of athletes reported they would use illegal forms of drugs to increase performance and obtain success in athletics. The present study found no significant difference ($\chi^2=1.925$, $p=.165 >.05$) between goal orientation and age, despite younger players being more task oriented than older players, whereas White & Zellner (1996) found younger players to be more ego oriented. This shows that no conclusive findings on relationship between age and goal orientation have been obtained. The present study concludes that age of the players does not influence their goal orientation; hence the

hypothesis that there would be no significant ($p > .05$) difference between younger and older players on goal orientation is accepted.

There was no significant ($\chi^2=1.925, p=.165 >.05$) difference between male and female players on goal orientation despite female players being more task oriented 66 (91.7%) than male players 52 (83.9%). Earlier studies revealed that task orientation has positive correlation with intrinsic motivation (Duda, 1992; Duda and Nicholls, 1990; Hom *et-al* 1996). Maday (2000) found no significant difference between male and female players among college runners on goal orientation. A gender based study by Duda (1989) on relationships between Task Orientation and Ego Orientation and the Perceived Purpose of Sport among High School Athletes found that goal orientation differences existed in relation to gender. The study showed that females scored higher on task orientation while males scored higher on ego orientation. The present study agrees with Duda (1989) on the finding that females are more task oriented while males are ego oriented. Maday (2000) found no significant ($p >.05$) difference between male and female runners on goal orientation. The same finding was obtained in this study, despite both categories being task oriented; female players recorded higher task percentage scores than male players. However, these gender differences were not statistically significant.

In trying to determine gender differences on goal orientation, White (1994) carried out a study on "Goal Orientation and Preferences of Athletes for Competence Information Scores". The study found that

females were more task oriented, while males were more ego oriented. Another gender based study by Williams (1994) found that ego orientation is related to sources of information associated with social comparison, whereas task orientation is related to information sources more aligned with personal mastery such as goal attainment, learning and improving. Williams (1994) had similar findings as Lozada (1998) and White (1994) who concluded that players who are more task oriented scored highly on satisfaction unlike players who are ego oriented. This scenario was observed in the present study, where gender differences were not statistically significant on goal orientation, but female players scored highly on task orientation. This makes them attain personal mastery such as goal attainment, learning and improving. Consequently, male players scored higher on ego orientation 10 (16.1%) than female players 6 (18.3%), leading them to information associated with social comparison and extrinsic rewards.

Ego orientation has been found to correlate positively with extrinsic motivation and external rewards, while task orientation correlates positively with intrinsic motivation (Duda, 1992; Duda & Nicholls, 1992; Harter, 1982). This finding helps to explain why female players have excelled in Kenya volleyball league unlike their male counterparts. Female players were found to be highly task oriented, intrinsically motivated, and aimed at skill mastery to attain goals through learning and improving. On the other hand, male players who are comparatively less task oriented have minimal intrinsic motivation and are more aligned towards social comparison.

White & Zellner (1996) while studying relationship between goal orientation, beliefs about causes of sport success and trait anxiety among high school intercollegiate and recreational sport participants found that females tended to be more task oriented whereas males were more ego oriented. Additionally, White *et-al* (1998) found that males perceived sport as a vehicle to heighten status and popularity with peers, teach deceptive behaviours and superiority over others and encourage competitiveness when compared to female youth sport participants. Thus, females were more oriented towards task while male participants were more inclined towards ego orientation. These findings are similar to those obtained in this study, where no significant difference between male and female players was observed, although female players had higher percentages than male players on task orientation. Both male and female athletes have shown varying responses on goal orientation. Several studies (Duda, 1989; Maday, 2000; White, 1994; White & Zellner, 1996; Williams, 1994) have shown that female players are more task oriented and therefore intrinsically motivated than their male counterparts. However, this and other previous studies have not conclusively resolved the issues of whether gender based differences on goal orientation are statistically significant. This study therefore concludes that female players are more intrinsically motivated unlike the male players who are extrinsically motivated. This explains why female players are more task oriented unlike the male players.

The Chi square value ($\chi^2=1.424$, $p=.233 >.05$) between ego and task orientation was found not significant on team level/ability. Regardless of

the team level, player's goal orientation did not vary. Therefore, among Kenya Volleyball League Players, those of higher ability (division one) and low ability (division two) portrayed similar goal orientations.

Hom *et-al*; (1993) carried out a similar study on goal orientation among young athletes. Only beginners were found to be task oriented due to low skill levels while athletes with potential for achievement in sport were likely to be ego oriented. The present study found both low and high ability players to be task oriented. The disparity in age between the two groups in this study and Hom *et-al* (1993) may have contributed to different conclusions drawn. The similarity between this study and Hom *et-al* (1993) is that both studies reveal low ability players to be more task oriented than high ability players. This shows that the more players /athletes increase in ability, the less they score on task orientation. Therefore, there is a negative relationship between task orientation and ability. The study showed both low and high ability players /athletes to be task oriented, but low ability players recorded higher scores than high ability players on task orientation.

An earlier study by Maday (2000) had shown no correlation between goal orientation and ability, which meant that regardless of ones' ability, no difference was found on goal orientation. This study found both division one and two players to be task oriented despite division two players recording higher scores. Findings among Kenya volleyball league players showed that ability is not a determinant of goal orientation.

Findings of this study showed no significant ($\chi^2 = .508, p = .476 > .05$) difference between starters and non-starters. These are similar to results of a study by Petlichkoff (1993), which showed that only survivors had significant decrease in goal orientation and not starters, non-starters and dropouts. Petlichkoff (1993) found starters and non-starters to be more task oriented than dropouts. These findings are similar to those of Ewing (1981) where no significant differences were found between starters and non-starters on goal orientation. However, the study was not clear whether the athletes were found to be ego or task oriented. The study by Duda *et-al* (1993) on perceived motivation climate among basketball players and runners found no significant difference on goal orientation of the two groups. However, Duda *et-al* (1993) dwelled much on differences between runners and basketball players and not players' status. Duda *et-al* (1993) agrees with this study where both starters and non-starters were found to be task oriented. This study supports findings by Duda *et-al* (1993); Ewing (1981); and Petlichkoff (1993), which reported no significant difference between starters and non-starters on goal orientation.

Majority of Kenya volleyball league players were found to be task oriented and did not portray a significant difference on goal orientation based on their status. The finding that both starters and non-starters are task oriented leads to the conclusion that players' status is not a determinant of their goal orientation.

The present study found no significant ($\chi^2 = .560, p = .454 > .05$) difference on goal orientation between experienced and less experienced players.

Maday (2000) also found a similar result among college runners; she reported no significant relationship between demographic variable of experience and the two subscales of goal orientation. This present study and Maday's (2000) therefore agree that there is no significant difference on goal orientation due to experience.

Dongfang *et-al* (2003) carried out a study on male and female basketball players' goal orientation, perceived ability and sources of sport confidence. The study found that task orientation could predict pre-competition sports confidence hence success. Shane (2000) and Vealey (1998) also found a positive correlation between task orientation and success. Based on these presumptions, this study found both more and less experienced players to be task oriented; hence their pre-competition confidence and success in sports could be determined (Dongfang *et-al*, 2003; Shane, 2000; Vealey, 1998). Furthermore, Duda (1992) had found that task orientation is a determinant of intrinsic motivation and hence mastery of performance skills.

Zahariadis *et-al* (2000) while investigating goal orientation and participation motives in physical education and sports among English school children found task orientation to be mainly related to skill development and team motives. Earlier, Robert (1999) had made similar conclusion, that task orientation enhances skill mastery. This helps to further the finding that task orientation correlates positively with skill development, intrinsic motivation and success. Trainers and coaches should highly target task-oriented players during team selection. This will

enhance performance because of the positive correlation between task orientation, skill mastery, intrinsic motivation and performance. Furthermore, this study found no significant ($p > .05$) difference between goal orientation and experience. However, both more and less experienced players were found to be task oriented.

The greater success of Kenya volleyball league players may be due to being task oriented and hence intrinsically motivated and highly successful. This is the dimension Kenya volleyball league players and coaches need to take in order to maximize performance in sport. However, considering that there was no experienced based significant ($\chi^2 = .560$, $p = .454 > .05$) difference on goal orientation, the study concluded that experience is not a determinant of players' goal orientation.

4.4 Goal Orientations and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League

Players

Goal orientation and satisfaction was assessed amongst Kenya volleyball league players using the TEOSQ and the ASQ scales respectively. Goal orientation entailed task and ego orientation, while satisfaction comprised of 15 satisfaction components. Response of the players was determined whether they are ego or task oriented and their satisfaction levels were noted on the ASQ scale. The 15 satisfaction subscales on the ASQ include, individual performance, team performance, ability utilization and strategy. They also include personal treatment, training and instruction, team social contribution and team task contribution. Other satisfaction components on the ASQ include ethics, team integration,

personal dedication, budget, medical personnel, academic support services and external agents.

Table 4.3: Players independent group t-ratios for both ego and task oriented players on satisfaction components

Satisfaction Components	Ego Orientation		Task Orientation		Mean Difference	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Individual Performance	2.6875	.9307	4.0650	1.1993	-1.3775	-4.412*	.000
Team Performance	3.0625	.9678	4.0763	1.6175	-1.0138	-2.443*	.016
Ability utilization	2.6250	1.1521	4.1390	1.2061	-1.5140	-4.735*	.000
Strategy	3.2500	1.1515	3.9282	1.2834	-.6782	-2.006*	.047
Personal Treatment	2.7875	1.3135	2.7875	1.3135	-1.3328	-3.848*	.000
Training and Instruction	2.7875	1.3135	2.7875	1.3135	-1.3754	-3.532*	.001
Team contribution task	2.7500	1.4782	3.9887	1.3154	-1.2387	-3.483*	.001
Team contribution social	2.9167	1.3690	4.4350	1.0935	-1.5184	-5.052*	.000
Ethics	3.0625	1.0765	3.8446	1.3123	-.7821	-2.280*	.024
Team integration	3.2969	1.0654	4.1780	1.3229	-.8811	-2.551*	.012
Personal dedication	2.9375	.9811	4.4746	.9965	-1.5371	-5.800*	.000
Budget	3.2292	1.0867	2.9661	1.7603	.2631	.582	.562
Medical personnel	1.7344	1.0427	2.9343	1.8506	-1.1999	-2.534*	.012
Academic support services	1.4792	1.0884	2.7571	1.7299	-1.2779	-2.873*	.005
External agents	2.7969	1.2323	3.1850	1.5922	-.3882	-.937	.351

N=134, Equal variance assumed, $p < 0.05$, $df=132$, *-Significant t

Table 4.3 shows that Ego oriented players had a higher mean ($\bar{x} = 3.2292$) than task oriented players ($\bar{x} = 2.9661$) on satisfaction

component of Budget and a mean difference of 0.2631 as measured by the ASQ. However, task oriented players had higher means on all the other 14 satisfaction components apart from Budget.

Independent group t ratios between ego and task oriented players were significant at $p < .05$ on Individual Performance ($t = -4.412, p = 0.001$); Team Performance ($t = -2.443, p = 0.016$); Ability Utilization ($t = -4.735, p = 0.001$); Strategy ($t = -2.006, p = 0.047$); Personal Treatment ($t = -3.848, p = 0.001$); Training and Instruction ($t = -3.532, p = 0.001$); Team Task Contribution ($t = -3.483, p = 0.001$); Team Social Contribution ($t = -5.052, p = 0.001$); Ethics ($t = -2.280, p = 0.024$); Team Integration ($t = -2.551, p = 0.012$); Personal Dedication ($t = -5.800, p = 0.001$); Medical Personnel ($t = -2.534, p = 0.012$) and Academic Support Services ($t = -2.873, p = 0.005$) on the satisfaction scale of ASQ. Therefore, there was a significant ($p < .05$) difference between ego and task orientation on all satisfaction components apart from budget ($t = 0.582, p = 0.2631$) and External Agents ($t = -0.937, p = 0.351$) as measured by ASQ among Kenya Volleyball League Players.

Task oriented players were significantly ($p < .05$) more satisfied than ego oriented players on satisfaction components of Individual Performance, Team Performance, Ability Utilization, Strategy, Personal Treatment, Training and Instruction, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Medical Personnel, and Academic Support Services. The null hypothesis that there would be no significant ($p < .05$) difference between task and ego orientation on satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players was

rejected except on the satisfaction component of Budget and External Agents.

According to the mean difference scores between goal orientation and satisfaction, only budget had a higher score on ego orientation. All the other 14-satisfaction components had higher scores on task than ego orientation. Further analysis showed that there was a significant ($p < .05$) difference between task and ego orientation on all satisfaction components apart from budget and external agents. Therefore, task oriented players were more satisfied on the following satisfaction components; Individual Performance, Team Performance, Ability Utilization, Strategy, Personal Treatment, Training and Instruction, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Medical Personnel and Academic Support Services. On the other hand, there was reported an insignificant mean difference ($p > .05$) on budget with ego oriented players having a higher mean.

According to Maday (2000), task orientation significantly ($p < .05$) positively correlated with the following subscale of the ASQ. ;Individual Performance, Ability Utilization, Strategy, Training and Instruction, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents. On these 11 satisfaction subscale components found significant by Maday (2000), only external agents is not significant ($p > .05$) on task orientation in the present study. Team Performance, Personal Treatment and Ethics are significant in this study but were not found significant by

Maday (2000), while Budget was not significant in either of the two studies. These findings agree with Maday (2000) on the significance of satisfaction subscales of the ASQ and task orientation apart from Team Performance, Personal Treatment, Ethics and External Agents.

The minimal differences in the findings of these two studies may be due to different target groups used in the study and the locality of the studies. However, because similar tools were used, the two studies have come up with complimenting results. The finding that budget was not significant in either of these two studies show that budgetary allotments is a factor that equally affects both ego and task oriented players. A study by Young *et-al* (1997) among Korean athletes had indicated that only 50 athletes (29.9%) were satisfied with the financial support they received from their team, club, company or school. Young *et-al* (1997) showed that most athletes were not satisfied with the financial support from their team, hence received financial support from their families. Therefore, the finding of this study that despite the goal orientation of the athlete, budget remains a unique satisfaction factor that should be dealt with equally on both categories of goal orientation and has been observed in other instances elsewhere as noted by Young *et-al* (1997).

In an earlier study, Duda (1989) found a positive relation between ego orientation and involvement in sport, and supportive of development of self-esteem and social status of an individual. Also, Duda *et al* (1995) found that ego orientation was combined with low levels of perceived competence. Duda & Nicholls (1992) found that intrinsic satisfaction in

sport was directly related to an individual perceived competence while performing that sport. The findings by Duda (1989) and Duda *et-al* (1995) can be applicable to the present study that Kenya volleyball league players are mainly task oriented, portray intrinsic motivation and high levels of perceived competence. Maday (2000) drew similar conclusions that positively correlated task orientation to satisfaction unlike Duda (1989), Duda *et al* (1995) and Duda & Nicholls (1992) who found a negative correlation between task orientation and satisfaction. The use of sport specific instruments in this study and Madays' (2000) unlike those used by Duda (1989), Duda *et al* (1995) and Duda & Nicholls (1992) may show why there were differences in the findings of these studies. Use of sport specific instruments may be necessary to further studies in athletics and sports. These enable researchers to draw appropriate relations between goal orientation and satisfaction in sports.

Zahariadis *et-al* (2000) emphasized the significance of task orientation to participation when it was found that task orientation was positively related to skill development and team atmosphere motives and negatively related to status/recognition motives. Consequently, ego orientation positively and highly correlated with status/recognition motives and negatively associated with team atmosphere motives. Thus, the findings of this study agree with Zahariadis *et-al* (2000) that there is a clear relationship between task orientation and intrinsic motivational patterns, whereas ego orientation is associated with more extrinsic forms of motivation. Therefore, results show that motivation is likely to be enhanced through promotion of task orientation.

Findings of the present study on analysis of demographic factors, goal orientation and satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players helps to answer the question of good performance among Kenya volleyball league players, thus task orientation is a determinant of good performance. Kenya volleyball league players were found to be more task than ego oriented on the 15 components of satisfaction under study. Therefore, task orientation positively related with satisfaction apart from satisfaction component of budget. Additionally, this study concludes that task orientation not only led to satisfaction in sport, but also competence, skill mastery and team atmosphere motives (Duda, 1995; Duda & Nicholls, 1992; Zahariadis *et-al*, 2000). These parameters are inclusive on the satisfaction components on the ASQ. Therefore, these findings led to the rejection of the hypothesis in this study that there would be no significant difference between task and ego orientation on the 15 sub-scales of satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players.

4.5 Age and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players

Age was compared to satisfaction where t-ratios were computed. Age category comprised of younger and older players, while satisfaction included the 15 components of satisfaction on the ASQ. Table 4.4 shows mean differences and independent group t ratios between younger and older players on the satisfaction subscales of ASQ.

Table 4.4: Age mean differences and independent group t-ratios for both younger and older players on satisfaction components

Satisfaction Components	Younger Players (N=72)		Older Players (N=62)		Mean Difference	t	Sig. 2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
	Individual Performance	3.8519	1.3805	3.9570			
Team Performance	4.0417	1.6848	3.8548	1.4706	.1868	.678	.499
Ability utilization	4.0333	1.3925	3.8710	1.1724	.1624	.723	.471
Strategy	3.9495	1.4370	3.7285	1.0776	.2210	.994	.322
Personal Treatment	3.9278	1.4870	4.0000	1.2211	-.0722	-.304	.761
Training and Instruction	3.8194	1.6643	3.7204	1.3526	.099	.374	.709
Team contribution task	4.0231	1.5294	3.6290	1.1845	.3941	1.647	.102
Team contribution social	4.5185	1.1464	3.9462	1.2562	.5723	2.756*	.007
Ethics	3.9630	1.3801	3.5054	1.1824	.4576	2.043*	.043
Team integration	4.3021	1.4456	3.8065	1.1175	.4956	2.193*	.030
Personal dedication	4.4514	1.0662	4.1048	1.1394	.3466	1.817	.071
Budget	2.9352	1.7873	3.0699	1.5879	-.1347	-.458	.648
Medical personnel	3.0035	1.9467	2.5444	1.6256	.4591	1.468	.145
Academic support services	3.0000	1.8922	2.1452	1.3572	.8548	2.961*	.004
External agents	3.5359	1.7479	2.6774	1.1455	.8585	3.303*	.001

N=134, Equal variance assumed, $p < .05$, $df=132$, *-Significant t

Table 4.4 shows positive mean difference between younger and older players on various satisfaction components. These included Team Performance (0.1868), Ability Utilization (0.1624), Strategy (0.2210), Training and Instruction (0.0991). Others include Team Task Contribution

(0.3941), Team Social Contribution (0.3466), Medical Personnel (0.4591), Academic Support Services (0.8548) and External Agents (0.8585) on the satisfaction component as measured by the ASQ. The positive mean differences showed that younger players recorded higher means than older players. Consequently, there were negative mean differences on Individual Performance (-0.1051), Personal Treatment (-0.07222) and Budget (-0.1347) between younger and older players, thus older players recorded higher means on these satisfaction components. Therefore, younger players had higher means than older players on all satisfaction components apart from Individual Performance, Personal Treatment and Budget.

Independent group t-ratios on the satisfaction scale showed significance ($p < .05$) on Team Social Contribution ($t = -2.756, p = 0.007$), Ethics ($t = -2.043, p = 0.043$), Team Integration ($t = -2.193, p = 0.30$), Academic Support Services ($t = -2.961, p = 0.004$) and External Agents ($t = -3.303, p = 0.001$). Therefore, younger players were significantly ($p < .05$) more satisfied than older players on the satisfaction components of Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Academic Support Services and External Agents among Kenya Volleyball League Players. The null hypothesis that there would be no significant ($p < .05$) difference between younger and older players on satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players was accepted apart from satisfaction components of Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Academic Support Services and External Agents.

Results of independent group t ratios showed that younger players were significantly more satisfied than older players on satisfaction components of Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Academic Support Services and External Agents. On all the significant satisfaction components, younger players had higher scores than older players. The significant t-test may be interpreted further as follows; the younger the athlete, the more satisfied she/he is with Team Social Contribution (satisfaction with how teammates contribute to the athlete as a person), Ethics (satisfaction with the ethical position of teammates), Team Integration (satisfaction with members contributions and coordination of their efforts towards the teams task), Academic Support Services (satisfaction with the academic support services provided to the athletes) and External Agents (satisfaction with those agents/elements outside the organization which may contribute to the team). This finding differs with Maday (2000) on the study among college cross-country runners where she found only Budget negatively correlated with Age, hence her conclusion that the older the athlete, the less satisfaction with budgetary allotments. In the present study, older players recorded a higher mean on budget (amount of money provided to the team by management) but this was not statistically significant.

Comparatively, this study utilized a different age category in which National league players were used while Maday (2000) used intercollegiate athletics players hence the discrepancy in the two studies. Further comparison between the two studies show that satisfaction component of Budget was not significant unlike Maday (2000). According

to Maday (2000), age significantly ($p < .05$) positively correlated with Personal Dedication subscale of the ASQ. This may be interpreted to imply that the older the runner, the higher the level of satisfaction with Personal Dedication (satisfaction with athletes own contribution to the team). No significant ($p > .05$) difference was found between younger and older players on Personal Dedication in the present study. The two studies therefore have varying findings on the variable of age. This shows that research on goal orientation and satisfaction are not conclusive hence need for further investigations.

The present study found that younger players are significantly more satisfied with how teammates contribute to the athlete as a person (team social contribution), ethical position of teammates (ethics), members contribution and coordination of their efforts towards the teams task (team integration), satisfaction with the academic support services provided to the athletes (academic support services) and agents/elements outside the organization which may contribute to the team (external agents). Younger players were therefore found to be good team players because of their satisfaction on team social contribution and team integration. Also, by being significantly satisfied with the ethical position of teammates, they readily accepted their peers. Therefore, younger players were found to be good team players with satisfactory ethical behaviours.

The finding that younger players were significantly more satisfied on Academic Support Services is not surprising. This is because most of the younger players are high school, college or university students (KVF,

2004). It is good that team managers have considered this and given them adequate support. The older players who are out of college/school, university could not be interested in the academic support services, hence the low satisfaction level. This finding helps to show that majority of the older players are not involved in academic pursuits like their younger counterparts. These findings concur with Morakinyo (2002) on the study of academic status of African volleyball players. The study found that 46.7% of African elite players do not have academic certificates. However, the study noted that 80% of these players wanted to further their education. Therefore, managers of younger players should maximize academic support services to ensure higher satisfaction and achievement among this caliber of players.

The support from school, college /university or community (External Agents) is particularly significant to younger than older players (Mugalla, 2002) because these are salient factors in schools than in clubs. Also, being less experienced, players in learning institutions highly depend on support from the fans and the mass media to highlight their performance and popularity. In summary, sports psychologists have revealed that cheering a team/ support by fans during competitions is one of the psychological factors that contribute to team success (Bull, 1991; Cox, 1990, Hayes, 2003). Others significant factors to team performance include commitment and control. Therefore, younger players raised a very valid satisfactory component when they highlighted external agents (support from school/university or community) as a significant satisfaction component. Coaches and trainers should therefore use this initiative as a

baseline to psychologically prepare their athletes /players because of its positive consequences.

4.6 Gender and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players

Gender was compared to satisfaction in which t-ratios were computed.

Gender category comprised of male and female players, while satisfaction included the 15 components of satisfaction on the ASQ.

Table 4.5 shows gender mean differences and independent group t-ratios for both male and female players on satisfaction components.

Table 4.5: Gender means and independent group t-ratios for both male and female Players on satisfaction components

Satisfaction Components	Male (N=62)		Female (N=72)		Mean Difference	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Individual Performance	3.7742	1.0844	4.0093	1.3760	-.2351	-1.086	.280
Team Performance	3.7258	1.3449	4.1528	1.7531	-.4270	-1.562	.121
Ability utilization	3.7516	1.1671	4.1361	1.3758	-.3845	-1.729	.086
Strategy	3.6215	1.1700	4.0417	1.3516	-.4202	-1.908	.059
Personal Treatment	3.9774	1.2686	3.9472	1.4531	.0302	.127	.899
Training and instruction	3.4677	1.3435	4.0370	1.6258	-.5693	-2.188*	.030
Team task contribution	3.5108	1.2336	4.1250	1.4604	-.6142	-2.606*	.010
Team social contribution	4.0000	1.3347	4.4722	1.0902	-.4722	-2.254*	.026
Ethics	3.3441	1.2428	4.1019	1.2679	-.7578	-3.481*	.001
Team integration	3.7137	1.0537	4.3819	1.4541	-.6682	-3.002*	.003
Personal dedication	4.0000	1.1244	4.5417	1.0414	-.5417	-2.893*	.004
Budget	4.5417	1.0414	3.0046	1.8668	1.5371	-.052	.958
Medical personnel	2.2460	1.3425	3.2604	2.0316	-1.0144	-3.351*	.001
Academic support services	2.0323	1.2927	3.0972	1.8810	-1.0650	-3.758*	.000
External agents	2.6022	1.1440	3.6007	1.7135	-.9985	-3.900*	.000

N=134, Equal variance assumed, $p < 0.05$, $df=132$, *-Significant t

Table 4.5 shows that Personal Treatment and Budget had positive mean differences of 0.0302 and 1.5371 respectively between male and female players. Therefore, male players had higher mean than their female counterparts on these two satisfaction components. The other 13 components of satisfaction recorded negative mean differences between

male and female players, which reveal that female players had higher means than male players.

Independent group t ratios on satisfaction scale showed significant ($p < .05$) difference on Training and Instructions ($t = -2.188$, $p = 0.030$), Team Task Contribution ($t = -2.606$, $p = 0.010$), Team Social Contribution ($t = -2.254$, $p = 0.026$), Ethics ($t = -3.481$, $p = 0.001$) and Team Integration ($t = -3.002$, $p = 0.003$). Others included Personal Dedication ($t = -2.893$, $p = 0.004$), Medical Personnel ($t = -3.351$, $p = 0.001$), Academic Support Services ($t = -3.758$, $p = 0.001$) and External Agents ($t = -3.900$, $p = 0.001$). Therefore, female players were significantly ($p < .05$) more satisfied than male players on the satisfaction components of Training and Instructions, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents on the satisfaction scale of ASQ. The null hypothesis that there would be no significant ($p < .05$) difference between male and female Kenya volleyball league players on satisfaction was rejected only on these components of satisfaction. Male and female volleyball league players responded significantly ($p < .05$) different on the satisfaction questionnaire on nine (9) out of 15 satisfaction items as indicated on table 4.5.

A study by Roberto & YeanSub (2001) on job satisfaction among Athletic Trainers found that male athletic trainers had higher means than female trainers. Furthermore, the ANOVA test indicated that there were statistically significant differences between male and female athletic trainers in their total job satisfaction. Female athletic trainers showed

statistically significant higher dissatisfaction than their male counterparts. These findings vary with this study that found female players to be more satisfied than male players in the Kenya national volleyball league. Roberto & YeanSub (2000) carried out their study among athletic trainers, unlike the present study that involved athletes. The different expectations and demographic information of trainers in Roberto & YeanSub (2000) and the present study that consisted of athletes might have influenced the varied results obtained. Results of this study concur with those of Lozada (1998) and Flood & Hellstedt (1991) who found female athletes to be more satisfied than their male counterparts. In a related study, Kamal (2003) while studying gender differences in physical activities among University students found that male athletes had significantly higher means than female athletes on social experience. Ego orientation has been highly associated with social experience, thus the conclusion that male players portrayed ego orientation in Kamal (2003) and in the present study.

Elsewhere, Aminuddin & Omar-Fauzee (2003) studied perceptions towards participation in sports among college students. From the three different types of constraints to sport participation, structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal, the study found that female students experienced higher intensities of structural and intrapersonal constraints to sport participation than male counterparts. Hence, the finding by this study that female athletes are more inclined towards task orientation was observed. Aminuddin & Omar-Fauzee (2003) concluded that gender might

have been a critical variable influencing sport participation and non-participation.

Lozada (1998) found that there had been an increase in athletic participation for both male and female players. However, the incremental ratio of female players was more than for males. There have been found gender differences in satisfaction, personal commitment, motivation and role models in sports (Lozada, 1998). According to Flood & Hellstedt (1991), females value making friends, learning new skills and exercising, while male players valued winning, competition and the challenge of sports participation. Furthermore, females were found to be less likely to participate in sports to win than males (Kidd & Woodman, 1975). This study found significant difference between male and female players on satisfaction components of Training and Instruction, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents. These findings consent with an earlier study by Flood & Hellstedt (1991) on female players valuing learning new skills and exercising (Training and Instructions and Team Task Contribution as measured by the ASQ). Therefore despite performance outcomes, female players will highly be satisfied. On the other hand, male players will experience satisfaction when they obtain favourable results (Flood & Hellstedt, 1991). Where they are performing below expectations, their satisfaction levels are low.

Female players were significantly more satisfied than their male counterparts on training and instructions provided by the coach, which shows that the technical aspects of the players were well handled. This resulted into higher success and performance as evidenced in the results of female teams at national and continental levels (KVF, 2004). The team aspects among female players were also significantly ($p < .05$) satisfying. Female players reported significantly higher scores on actions by which the group serves as a substitute for leadership for the athlete (team task contribution), ethical positions of team-mates (ethics) and members' contributions and coordination of their efforts towards the team task (team integration). These aspects are all vital for a successful team, hence, Kenya volleyball female players' success can greatly be attributed to their ability to work together in harmony as a team. Also, as mentioned earlier by Flood & Hellstedt (1991), female athletes value learning new skills and exercising, hence the observed success of Kenya female volleyball teams compared to their male counterparts.

Additionally, satisfaction components that touch on players' personal growth were observed to have been met, hence significant difference between male and female in favour of female players. Female players were significantly satisfied with their own contribution to the team (personal dedication), which showed that they were more committed to the team success. The team management also provided satisfactory contributions through teams medical personnel and academic support services. Through this, the female players might have felt committed to perform well as a reciprocal to the team managements good medical and

academic support services. Lastly, female players were significantly satisfied with the element outside the organization, which contribute to the team. These include fans, media support and the local community. Therefore, the players felt appreciated by these significant outsiders and this gave them the urge to perform better. The difference between male and female players towards satisfaction was evidenced in this study where female players were highly satisfied than their male counterparts.

Generally, female volleyball players have shown superior performances than their male counterpart at regional, continental and global levels (KVF, 2005). This might be due to their satisfaction level which this study showed to be higher than male players. Therefore, these findings led to the rejection of the hypothesis in this study that there would be no significant difference between male and female players on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players apart from satisfaction components of Individual Performance, Team Performance, Ability Utilization, Strategy, Personal Treatment and Budget.

4.7 Ability and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players

Ability was compared to satisfaction in which t-ratios were computed. Table 4.6 shows ability mean differences and independent group t-ratios for both division one and two league players on satisfaction components.

Table 4.6: Team level means and independent group t-ratios for both division one and two players on satisfaction components and goal orientation

Satisfaction Components	Division 1 (N=65)		Division 2 (N=69)		Mean Difference	t	Sig.(2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Individual Performance	3.9641	1.0787	3.8406	1.3987	.1235	.570	.570
Team Performance	3.8718	1.5698	4.0338	1.6089	-.1620	-.589	.557
Ability utilization	3.7938	1.1505	4.1130	1.4052	-.3192	-1.434	.154
Strategy	3.7538	1.0866	3.9353	1.4472	-.1814	-.817	.416
Personal Treatment	3.9600	1.2350	3.9623	1.4877	-.0023	-.010	.992
Training and instruction	3.8410	1.2571	3.7101	1.7442	.1309	.496	.621
Team task contribution	3.6718	1.2155	4.0000	1.5275	-.3282	-1.371	.173
Team social contribution	4.0154	1.2183	4.4783	1.2025	-.4629	-2.213*	.029
Ethics	3.5179	1.1859	3.9710	1.3859	-.4531	-2.027*	.045
Team integration	3.9115	1.0802	4.2246	1.5086	-.3131	-1.374	.172
Personal dedication	4.1385	1.1093	4.4348	1.0995	-.2963	-1.552	.123
Budget	3.0821	1.6447	2.9179	1.7456	.1642	.560	.577
Medical personnel	2.6231	1.6841	2.9493	1.9258	-.3262	-1.041	.300
Academic support services	2.1590	1.4399	3.0242	1.8518	-.8652	-3.006*	.003
External agents	2.7590	1.2398	3.4964	1.7360	-.7374	-2.814*	.006

N=134, Equal variance assumed, $p < 0.05$, $df=132$, *-Significant t

Table 4.6 shows that there was a positive mean difference between players in division one and two on Individual Performance (0.1235), Training and Instruction (0.1309) and Budget (0.1642). Therefore,

division one players had higher means on satisfaction components of Individual Performance, Training and Instruction and Budget, while division two players had higher means on all the other 12-satisfaction components.

Independent group t ratios on satisfaction scale showed a significant ($p < .05$) difference on Team Social Contribution ($t = -2.213$, $p = 0.029$), Ethics ($t = -2.027$, $p = 0.045$), Academic Support Services ($t = -3.006$, $p = 0.003$) and External Agents ($t = -2.814$, $p = 0.006$) with higher means for division 2 players. Therefore, division two players were significantly ($p < .05$) more satisfied than division one players on Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Academic Support Services and External Agents on the satisfaction scale of the ASQ. The null hypothesis that there would be no significant ($p < .05$) difference between division one and two Kenya volleyball league players on satisfaction was rejected apart from Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Academic Support Services and External Agents. Division two players were significantly more satisfied than division one players on Team Social Contribution (how teammates contribute to the athlete as a person), Ethics (ethical position of teammates), Academic Support Services (academic support services provided to the athlete) and External Agents (elements outside the organization which may contribute to the team) on the satisfaction scale.

Results of the mean differences on satisfaction showed that division one players had a higher mean on satisfaction subscales of Individual Performance, Training Instruction and Budget on the ASQ. Division two

players had higher means on the other twelve satisfaction subscales of the ASQ. On average, division two players had higher scores on most satisfaction subscales (12) compared to division one players (three). Division two players had higher means than division one players on all the four significant ($p < .05$) satisfaction components. Therefore, division two players were significantly satisfied than division one players on Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Academic Support Services and External Agents. This finding may be interpreted to mean that the higher the players' ability, the less they are satisfied with Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Academic Support Services and External Agents. Alternatively, the lower the players' ability, the more they are satisfied with Team Social Contributions, Ethics, Academic Support Services and External Agents.

Division two players were more satisfied than division one players on how teammates related to the athlete as a person (team social contribution); the ethical position of teammates (ethics); academic support services provided to the athletes, and other agents/elements outside the organization which may contribute to the team (external agents). This shows that players in this category had good interpersonal relationship hence worked together as a team.

In a study that involved college runners, Maday (2000) found a positive correlation between ability level and Team Social Contribution, Team Integration, and Personal Dedication. It is noted that while Team Social Contribution correlated positively with ability in the study by Maday (2000), the same satisfaction component showed a negative significance

with higher ability (division one players) but a positive significance with low ability (division two players) in this study. Maday's (2000) also found a negative correlation between ability level among intercollegiate runners and Team Performance, Budget, Medical Personnel and Academic Support Services among the satisfaction subscales on the ASQ. Academic Support Services satisfaction component had a negative correlation in both Maday (2000) and this study. In these studies, the higher the players' ability/level of play, the lower the satisfaction with Academic Support Services. Players of higher ability therefore had less support from the team management on Academic Support Services. The consistency shown between this study and Maday (2000) gives support for use of ASQ as a sport specific instrument on satisfaction because of its reliability in the findings on Academic Support Services, a key component to student athletes in Maday (2000) study, unlike in this study that comprised national league players.

The findings that higher ability players had less satisfaction on Academic Support Services might be attributed to several factors. Probably, higher ability players are non students hence do not value academic support services. However, with the current wave of adult learning in Kenya (Ministry of Education, 2006), possibility of these players being in tertiary institutions are high, hence they might not be appreciating the available academic support or they simply find it not adequate. Additionally, the busy schedule of higher ability players (division one) might have left less time for them to pursue academic endeavours, hence the negative relations. On the other hand, players in national division two league are

mainly students hence need for the team management to adequately provide for their academic needs.

In another related study, Roberto & YeanSub (2001) found that athletic trainers with higher qualifications (doctorate) are less satisfied than those with lower (Bachelors) qualifications. Roberto & YeanSub (2001) had similar findings to this study, where low ability correlated positively with satisfaction. Roberto & YeanSub (2001) therefore coincide with the present study, which found division two players to be more satisfied than division one players. The expectations of division one players who are more elite may be very high, hence the dissatisfaction, unlike the low ability players in KVF national division two league who have minimal expectations. Also, division two players who are mainly students (especially women) participate in sports as a co-curricular activity; therefore have fewer requirements unlike division one players who are mainly out to make a career out of sports.

The study also revealed that low ability players were highly satisfied with the ethical position of the team, unlike the high ability players. The correlation between ethics and discipline are high (Harter, 1981; Hayes, 2003) and these are qualities of a successful team. Team coaches and trainers/managers of high ability teams should strive to enhance team ethics that was found to be low at this cadre. Consequently, team social contribution was also low among the high ability compared to the low ability team players. This facet of satisfaction should equally be enhanced to ensure team cohesion among high ability players. External agents,

which involves team support from schools/university /community was also low among high ability players. It was observed that most high ability players come from corporate company teams (KVF, 2005), which have low number of popular support. This is unlike low ability teams which are mainly institutional (school, community/university) teams hence have ready following in form of fellow students /staff/ neighbours. Thus, low ability teams have higher external agent influence in form of moral support, which increase their psychological support (Hayes, 2003). Higher ability teams should equally strive to attain this through increased interaction with the community through advertisements, exhibitions and community based projects (Nation Correspondence, 2007) so as to increase their community social responsibility. This will enhance their popularity and increase their external agents support from community.

4.8 Status and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players

Players' status was compared to satisfaction in which t-ratios were computed. Table 4.7 shows status mean differences and independent group t-ratios for both first team players/starters and second team players/non starters on satisfaction components.

Table 4.7: Player status means and independent group t-ratios for both starters and non-starter players on satisfaction components

Satisfaction Components	Starters (N=94)		Non-starters (N=40)		Mean Difference	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Individual Performance	3.8262	1.2344	4.0750	1.2865	-.2488	-1.054	.294
Team Performance	3.7482	1.5905	4.4417	1.4838	-.6934	-2.355*	.020
Ability utilization	3.9468	1.2108	3.9850	1.4852	-.0382	-.156	.876
Strategy	3.6706	1.2310	4.2625	1.3236	-.5919	-2.490*	.014
Personal Treatment	3.9404	1.2858	4.0100	1.5544	-.0696	-.269	.788
Training and instruction	3.7021	1.4701	3.9417	1.6484	-.2395	-.832	.407
Team task contribution	3.6667	1.2004	4.2500	1.7043	-.5833	-2.258*	.026
Team social contribution	4.1809	1.1605	4.4250	1.3733	-.2441	-1.054	.294
Ethics	3.5674	1.2509	4.1833	1.3523	-.6160	-2.546*	.012
Team integration	4.1649	1.0724	4.5875	1.1541	-.7605	-3.146*	.002
Personal dedication	2.7447	1.6164	3.5917	1.7402	-.4226	-2.040*	.043
Budget	2.4734	1.6150	3.5375	2.0440	-.8470	-2.713*	.008
Medical personnel	2.4734	1.6150	3.5375	2.0440	-1.0641	-3.216*	.002
Academic support services	2.3582	1.4715	3.1833	2.0905	-.8252	-2.604*	.010
External agents	2.7988	1.4134	3.9375	1.5960	-1.1387	-4.104*	.000

N=134, Equal variance assumed, $p < 0.05$, $df = 132$, *-Significant

Table 4.7 shows there were no positive mean differences between starters and non-starters on satisfaction scale as measured by the ASQ. Therefore,

non-starters had higher mean than starters on all the 15 satisfaction components.

Independent group *t* ratios on the satisfaction scale of ASQ were significant on ten (10) out of the 15 subscale components. Satisfaction components that had significant ($p < 0.05$) difference were Team Performance ($t = -2.355, p = 0.020$), Strategy ($t = -2.490, p = 0.014$), Team task contribution ($t = -2.258, p = 0.02$), Ethics ($t = -2.546, p = 0.012$), Team Integration ($t = -3.146, p = 0.002$), Personal Dedication ($t = -2.040, p = 0.043$), Budget ($t = -2.713, p = 0.008$), Medical Personnel ($t = -3.216, p = 0.002$), Academic Support Services ($t = -2.604, p = 0.010$) and External Agents ($t = -4.104, p = 0.001$). There were significant ($p < .05$) difference between starters and non-starters on Team Performance, Strategy, Team Task Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Budget, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents on the satisfaction scale of ASQ.

The finding that non-starters were more satisfied than starters leads to the conclusion that since starters are more skilled players than non-starters, their expectations as superior players are high, hence low satisfaction levels (Harter, 1982). On the other hand, nonstarters being low skilled have low expectations from the team managers, thus they are readily satisfied with the provisions availed to them. It may be assumed that the needs of nonstarters on the subscales of satisfaction were met. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant ($p < .05$) difference between starters and non-starters on satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball

League Players was rejected apart from satisfaction components of Individual Performance, Ability Utilization, Personal Treatment, Training and Instruction and Team Social Contribution. There was no significant difference between starters and non-starters on these five satisfaction components.

Carron *et-al* (1977) while studying intercollegiate hockey players found that there were differences in satisfaction with team performance between high and low task motivation. The same difference was also observed between successful and unsuccessful groups. Thus, Carron *et-al* (1977) concluded that level of success and high task motivation influenced levels of satisfaction in terms of team performance. Deduced from Carron *et-al* (1977) study, the higher means indicated by non-starters in the present study shows that they are more task oriented, successful and hence satisfied. Turner & Jordan (2006) had similar response where they found commitment and satisfaction to be the key factors leading to turnover among NCAA division I and III coaches. Turner & Jordan (2006) found that dissatisfied coaches had intentions of quitting, unlike committed satisfied coaches. Translated to the present study, it is assumed that division 2 players are more satisfied and committed; therefore, they will remain in the teams / sport longer than division 1 players

According to Petlichkoff (1993) players who started a large majority of the games had the highest rating on satisfaction as well as ability demonstration and competency. Thus, players with higher status showed more satisfaction than those of lower status. However, this study found

players with low status to be more satisfied than those with high status on the team. Players with low status and hence non-starters in most of the games are of low ability, young and have minimal experience; therefore they may be newly recruited in the teams they are representing. These factors make low status players appreciate even minimal provisions the team avails to them, hence the higher satisfaction levels recorded by low status players. These results imply that ability relates negatively with satisfaction components of Team Performance, Strategy, Team Task Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Budget, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents on the satisfaction scale of ASQ, thus rejection of hypothesis based on these ten satisfaction components. However, on the other hand, there was no significant difference between starters and non-starters on the satisfaction components of Individual Performance, Ability Utilization, Personal Treatment, Training and Instruction and Team Social Contribution. Thus the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference among Kenya volleyball league players of different abilities on the 15 subscales of sports satisfaction was rejected apart from satisfaction components of Individual Performance, Ability Utilization, Personal Treatment, Training and Instruction and Team Social Contribution.

The low display of satisfaction among starters may be explained that most of the players in this category are older and have attained their optimum performance. Due to this, they have few expectations; hence low perception towards team management and the provisions availed to the players. Also, starters have been exposed to more challenging

environment through interaction with other teams from other countries which have better provisions than those accorded to them by KVF league teams. This might be the reason for issues that concern training (team performance, strategy, team task contributions, ethics, team integration) or those that are linked to finance and management (budget and medical personnel) were significantly low for starters than non-starters. Kenya volleyball federation teams' management should improve on these unsatisfactory components through increased funding, training and moral support. Starters are the key players on the team, and their satisfaction determines overall team performance.

4.9 Experience and Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players

Experience was compared to satisfaction in which t-ratios were computed. Experience category comprised of experienced and non-experienced players, while satisfaction comprised of the 15 components of satisfaction on the ASQ.

Table 4.8: Players experience means and independent group t-ratios for both experienced and less experienced players on satisfaction components

Satisfaction Components	Less		More		Mean Difference	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Experience (N=118)		Experience (N=16)				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Individual Performance	3.8418	1.2696	4.3333	1.0328	-.4915	-1.482	.141
Team Performance	3.9350	1.6442	4.1042	1.0935	-.1691	-.399	.691
Ability utilization	3.9593	1.3237	3.9500	1.0770	.0093	.027	.979
Strategy	3.8732	1.2998	3.6563	1.1761	.2169	.633	.528
Personal Treatment	3.9814	1.3837	3.8125	1.2574	.1689	.463	.644
Training and instruction	3.7768	1.5568	3.7500	1.2910	.0268	.066	.948
Team task contribution	3.8446	1.4207	3.8125	1.1736	.0321	.086	.931
Team social contribution	4.2542	1.2393	4.2500	1.1769	.0042	.013	.990
Ethics	3.7486	1.3460	3.7708	1.0163	-.0222	-.064	.949
Team integration	4.0784	1.3633	4.0313	1.0078	.0471	.133	.894
Personal dedication	4.2797	1.0910	4.3750	1.2780	-.0095	-.321	.749
Budget	2.9972	1.6808	3.0000	1.8379	-.0028	-.006	.995
Medical personnel	2.7733	1.8149	2.9219	1.8545	-.1486	-.307	.760
Academic support services	2.6299	1.7251	2.4167	1.6755	.2133	.466	.642
External agents	3.1596	1.5873	2.9844	1.3244	.1752	.422	.674

N=134, Equal variance assumed, $p < 0.05$, $df=132$, *-Significant t

Table 4.8 shows that there was positive mean differences between less experienced and experienced players on the satisfaction scale as measured by the ASQ on Ability Utilization (0.0093), Strategy (0.2169), Personal Treatment (0.1689), Training and Instruction (0.0268), Team Task Contribution (0.0321), Team Social Contribution (0.0042), Team Integration (0.0471), Academic Support Services (0.2133) and External

Agents (0.1752). Therefore, less experienced players had higher means than experienced players on Ability Utilization, Strategy, Personal Treatment, Training and Instruction, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Team Integration, Academic Support Services and External Agents.

Independent group t ratios between experienced and less experienced players were not significant at $p < .05$ on the satisfaction scale of ASQ. Therefore, there was no significant ($p < .05$) difference between less experienced and experienced players on all the 15 satisfaction components as measured by ASQ among Kenya volleyball league players. The null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference between less experienced and experienced players on satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players accepted.

A study by Maday (2000) among college runners found no significant difference between experience and non-experienced runners on any of the 15 satisfaction subscales on the ASQ. Therefore, the present study and Maday's (2000) have similar findings as regards experience and satisfaction. A study on job satisfaction by Roberto & YeanSub (2001) among athletic trainers found that trainers with one to five years of experience had a mean rating of 2.00 from a maximum of 5.00, and subjects of 16 or more years experience had a mean value of 2.95. Thus, the experienced trainers had a higher mean than the less experienced trainers. Results of one-way ANOVA test by Roberto and YeanSub (2001) showed a significant difference between less experienced and more

experienced trainers, with experienced trainers being more satisfied. Therefore, Roberto & YeanSub (2001) differ with this study and Maday's (2000) who found no significant difference between experience and satisfaction. However, it should be noted that the present study and Maday (2000) dealt with athletes, unlike Roberto & Yean Sub (2001) who studied a job situation. These two categories, athletes and employment setting are not homogeneous, hence the reported discrepancies.

During the women African Club Volleyball Championship of 2005 held in Nairobi (KVA, 2005), the best four teams had players of varying experience levels. This shows that experience does not determine player's satisfaction on the team and hence success. It is assumed that the most satisfied players excel in performance in sports thus the conclusion that satisfaction, which leads to success is not determined by the player's experience. Judge *et-al* (2001) studied performance-satisfaction relationship and found a positive relation between satisfaction and performance. Fisher (2003) proposed the "commonsense theme" which anticipates that enhanced performance comes due to satisfaction. Additionally, the long duration experienced players have participated in the KVF leagues buttress the satisfaction –commitment relationship. Lengthy duration on a team / sport shows commitment and hence satisfaction. However, the younger players equally showed parallel traits towards satisfaction, commitment and performance hence acceptance of the null hypothesis. The mean differences observed between experienced and less experienced players on satisfaction components of Ability Utilization, Strategy, Personal Treatment, Training and Instruction, Team

Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Team Integration, Academic Support Services and External Agents with less experienced players having higher means was statistically not significant. Therefore, the hypothesis that there would be no significant difference between less experienced and experienced players on satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players was accepted.

The present study showed that experience is not a key demographic characteristic that determines satisfaction and performance as evidenced on the 15 satisfaction components on the ASQ. Team managers, coaches and trainers should therefore look for other dynamic demographic characteristics apart from experience while selecting players to their teams. Experience is not an entity to guarantee success of a team; it should be integrated with other principal characteristics like age, ability and status as highlighted in this study. Experienced players have portrayed excellent performance on teams, but this should not be taken by coaches and managers as core and mandatory quality that leads to success. The present study showed no significant difference between experienced and non-experienced players on satisfaction, a key determinant of a successful team among Kenya volleyball league players.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter includes hypotheses, summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations on analysis of demographic factors, goal orientation and satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players.

5.2 Hypotheses and Summary of the Findings

The purpose of this study was to analyze demographic factors, goal orientation and satisfaction among 2004 Kenya volleyball league players. Demographic factors included age, gender, ability, status and experience. Goal orientation entailed task and ego orientation as measured by the TEOSQ, while satisfaction components comprised the 15 satisfaction components as measured by the ASQ. The 15 satisfaction components on ASQ include Individual Performance, Team Performance, Ability Utilization, Strategy, Personal Treatment, Training and Instruction, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services, Budget and External Agents.

The following hypotheses were formulated to guide the study;

Ho₁. There is no significant difference between task and ego orientations on the basis of Kenya volleyball league players' characteristics that include:

- a) Age
- b) Gender
- c) Status
- d) Ability
- e) Experience

Ho₂. There is no significant difference between task and ego orientations on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players.

Ho₃. There is no significant difference among Kenya volleyball league players of different age categories on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction.

Ho₄. There is no significant difference between male and female players on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players.

Ho₅. There is no significant difference among Kenya volleyball league players of different status on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction.

Ho₆. There is no significant difference among Kenya volleyball league players of different abilities on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction.

Ho₇. There is no significant difference among Kenya volleyball league players of varying experience level on the 15 sub-scales of sports satisfaction.

5.2.1 Demographic Information of Kenya Volleyball League Players

The total number of players who participated in the study were 134, of which 62(46.3%) were male and 72(53.7%) were female. Players aged below 25 years old were 72(53.7%), while those aged 25 years and above were 62(46.3%). Those from national division one league were 65(48.5%), while national division two league players were 69(51.5%). On players' status, first team players were 94(70.1%), while second team /substitute players were 40(29.9%). Players with less than ten years experience in either national division one or two were 118(88.1%), while those with ten and above years playing experience in either of the two leagues were 16(11.9%).

5.2.2 Goal Orientation of Kenya Volleyball League Players

There was no significant difference between younger and older players on goal orientation. Both categories of age (younger and older players) were found to be task oriented. Relationship between gender and goal orientation showed that female players were more task oriented than male players. However, these gender differences on goal orientation were statistically not significant. There was no significant difference between starters and non-starters on goal orientation. Players in both categories (starters and non starters) were found to be task oriented. Additionally, relationship between ability and goal orientation showed that both division

one and two players were task oriented. Furthermore, there was no significant difference between division one and two players on goal orientation. Lastly, there was no significant difference between more experienced and less experienced players on goal orientation. Both more and less experienced players were found to be task oriented.

5.2.3 Satisfaction of Kenya Volleyball League Players

Task oriented players scored higher than ego-oriented players on all satisfaction components apart from Budget. Consequently, there were significant differences between task and ego oriented players on all satisfaction components apart from Budget and External Agents. Age category showed that younger players had higher means than older players on all satisfaction components apart from Individual Performance, Personal Treatment and Budget. Furthermore, younger players were significantly more satisfied than older players on satisfaction components of Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Academic Support Services and External Agents. Gender means showed that female players scored higher than male players on all satisfaction components apart from Personal Treatment. Also, female players were significantly more satisfied than male players on satisfaction components of Training and Instructions, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents.

Status category showed that non-starters had higher means than starters on all satisfaction components. Furthermore, non-starters were significantly

more satisfied than starters on satisfaction components of Team Performance, Strategy, Team Task Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Budget, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents. Relationship between ability and satisfaction showed that division two players recorded higher means than division one players on all satisfaction components apart from Individual Performance, Training and Instruction and Budget. Furthermore, division two players were significantly more satisfied than division one players on satisfaction components of Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Academic Support Services and External Agents. The study found no significant difference between more and less experienced players. However, less experienced players had higher means on the satisfaction components of Ability Utilization, Strategy, Personal Treatment, Training and Instruction, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Team Integration, Academic Support Services and External Agents.

5.3 Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from findings of this study include those on demographic information, goal orientation and satisfaction among Kenya volleyball league players.

5.3.1 Demographic Information among Kenya Volleyball League Players

This study concluded that there are many younger players (aged below 25 years of age) than older players (aged 25 years and above) in the Kenya volleyball leagues. This is mainly because many of the teams that play in

these leagues are from learning institutions. Most students are aged below 25 years. Additionally, the number of male and female players participating in national leagues is almost the same. This finding is obvious because both male and female teams are made up of similar number of players. However, the percentage of women players was slightly higher than men players. This might have been because women teams have higher dropout rate hence need to cover for such cases. The study also concluded that there were more players in the first teams than in the substitute teams. This is mainly because first team players make the majority of players on the team lineup. Lastly, it was concluded that the percentage of less experienced players was more than that of experienced players. This finding shows that athletes in Kenya volleyball leagues participate for a few years hence the smaller number of experienced players.

5.3.2 Goal Orientation among Kenya Volleyball League Players

Conclusions on goal orientation among Kenya volleyball league players were that goal orientation of players does not differ due to age. Younger and older players were both found to be task oriented. Also, the study concluded that female players are task oriented hence intrinsically motivated while male players are ego oriented, thus extrinsically motivated. However, these gender differences are not statistically significant. This study concluded that this might be the reason why women players perform better than male players in international tournaments because they are more intrinsically motivated to play, unlike male who are extrinsically motivated. It was also concluded that starters and non-starters

are both task oriented hence no difference was observed between the two groups. The study concluded that status is not a determinant of players' goal orientation. It was also concluded that players with both higher and lower ability are task oriented, thus ability is not a determinant of athletes' goal orientation. It was also concluded that experience is not a determinant of players' goal orientation, both more and less experienced players were found to be task oriented. Lastly, the study concluded that regardless of players' demographic information of age, gender, ability, status and experience, Kenya volleyball league players are mainly task oriented. This study linked task oriented players to goal setting, high performance and success in sports. Although male players showed an indication towards ego orientation, this gender difference was not significant.

5.3.3 Satisfaction among Kenya Volleyball League Players

Conclusion drawn from relationship between goal orientation and satisfaction showed that task oriented players are significantly more satisfied than ego oriented players on the 15 satisfaction components on ASQ apart from Budget and External Agents. However, ego oriented players are more satisfied on Budget, although there was no significant difference. Task oriented players were found to be more satisfied on the satisfaction component of external agents, although this was not significant. Budget and External Agents showed no significant difference between task and ego oriented players, hence satisfaction with the amount of money provided to the team by the management, and agents /elements outside the organization which may contribute to the team are not determined by athletes goal orientation.

Younger players are significantly more satisfied than older players on the satisfaction components of Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Academic Support Services and External Agents. Age is therefore a determinant of satisfaction on these satisfaction components. The older the players, the less satisfied they become with satisfaction components of Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Academic Support Services and External Agents. The study noted that younger players have less experience than the older players, thus the reported higher satisfaction level among younger players on these satisfaction components. Additionally, female players are significantly more satisfied than their male counterparts on the satisfaction components of Training and Instructions, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents. Female player are therefore more satisfied than male players with their requirements on the team apart from Personal Treatment (coaching behaviour which indirectly affect the individual, yet directly affect team development, like social support and positive feedback). Female players were found to be more task oriented than their male counterparts, hence the high satisfaction level observed among females.

Division two players were found to be more satisfied than division one players on satisfaction component of team social contribution, ethics, academic support services and external agents. This was due to their desire and urge to excel in sports, and therefore they greatly valued the provisions availed to them by the team management, community and

fellow teammates. Also, because of their limited exposure, they easily appreciated the meager provisions, unlike the extreme demands of division one players.

Non-starters are significantly more satisfied than starters on the satisfaction components of Team Performance, Strategy, Team Task Contribution, Ethics, Team Integration, Personal Dedication, Budget, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services and External Agents. Therefore, requirements of non-starters were highly met unlike those of starters. It was also concluded that lower ability players are significantly more satisfied than higher ability players on the satisfaction components of Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Academic Support Services and External Agents. Requirements of the lower ability players were therefore more met than those of higher ability players. This may be because of the higher expectations of the higher ability players hence they are over demanding to the team management. Lastly, the study concluded that there is no significant difference between more and less experienced players on satisfaction. Players of both categories showed similar relationship towards satisfaction on the ASQ, thus experience is not a determinant of satisfaction. This study revealed that other demographic characteristics apart from experience hold more insight on athletic satisfaction

5.4.0 Recommendations

Based on the conclusions of this study, the following recommendations were suggested.

5.4.1 Recommendations for Implementation

1. Trainers and coaches need to give equal opportunity to both younger and older players for inclusion to the teams playing in the Kenya national volleyball league. The study found both categories to be task oriented, a determinant of intrinsic motivation, vital for success in sports.
2. Managers, trainers and coaches need to strategize and design training and management of male and female players/teams separately because their needs are not the same.
3. Team managers should provide higher ability players with more provision on satisfaction components of Team Social Contribution, Ethics, Academic Support Services and External Agents because their satisfaction levels were found to be low on these components. This can be attained by the sponsors of teams in division one and two increasing their budgetary allocations.
4. Team managers and sponsors need to maximize external agents by harnessing support of communities where their teams are based. Involvement in community projects and advertisement can increase the influence of external agents on KVF teams. This is because most of the teams are institutional or corporate companies sponsored and therefore lack community support, a significant satisfaction component cherished by many successful teams.
5. Team coaches and trainers should enhance role of substitute players (non-starters) on the team by giving them more training

and playing opportunities because they are intrinsically motivated and highly satisfied, therefore, can perform well in competitions.

6. Team managers, trainers and coaches need to give experienced players greater attention to enhance their satisfaction on the team because they portrayed low satisfaction levels than less experienced players despite both categories being task oriented.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Policy Formulation

1. Managers, coaches and trainers should commence talent spotting of players to national league teams among the youth teams. This can be achieved by teams in national leagues having youthful teams as foundation for the senior teams.
2. Managers and coaches should be educated on the role of sports psychology in order to understand its place in athletic training. Kenya Volleyball Federation should organize for refresher courses that will include this element in the training.
3. The national volleyball association and sports scholars should come up with standardized local scales for measuring players' satisfaction and goal orientation. This may be done through harmonizing the existing scales to meet the requirements of Kenya players.
4. Managers of corporate company teams should advertise and involve their parent company in community projects to win communal support. This is a key element in sport psychology that arouses motivation during competition.

5.4.3 Recommendations for Further Studies

The review of related literature, methods, findings and conclusions of this study has shown that there is need to carry out further studies in the following areas of physical activity and sport;

1. Research on goal orientation and satisfaction of various sports including volleyball at different levels of participation. This may include schools, colleges, amateur and professional sports. Such studies may help to explain effect of ability on goal orientation and satisfaction, and also if goal orientation and satisfaction are sport specific.
2. Research on goal orientation and cultural differences is needed to help explain if goal orientation is a cultural phenomenon. Additionally, it will clarify effects of cultural diversity on satisfaction in sports.

REFERENCES

- Andanje M. (2006), *Evaluation of the Professional Preparation and Certification of Athletics Coaches in Kenya* Unpublished Doctorate Dissertation Kenyatta University, Nairobi.
- Alla, D. and Oleg, E. (1998). Goal setting strategies and personality orientation, Moscow. *Psychological Social Institute*, Moscow.
- Ames, C. (1994). Competitive and individualistic goal structures: A motivational analysis. In R.Ames and C.Ames (Eds). *Research on motivation in education. Student motivation* (177-207).
- Ames, C. (1992). Achievement goals, motivational climate and motivation processes. In G.Roberts (Eds). *Motivation in sport and exercise* (161-176). Champaign, I.L: Human Kinetics.
- Aminuddin Y. (2002). Practice of Transformational Leadership Among Malaysian High School Coaches and Its Impact on Athlete Satisfaction with Individual Performance. *International Council of Health, Physical Education Recreation sports and Dance. Vol. 38 .1. pp 26-30.*
- Aminuddin, H. J.Y. and Omar-Fauzee M.S. (2003). Perceptions of Malaysian College Students about Sport Participation Constraints. . *International Council of Health, Physical Education Recreation sports and Dance. Vol. 39 .1. pp 32-36.*
- Atkinson ,J (1997). Motivation for achievement .In T. Blass (Ed.) ,*Personality Variables in Social Behavoiur*. Hillsdale, N.J: Erlbaum.
- Atkinson, J. (1974). The mainsprings of achievement-oriented activity. In J. Atkinson and J.Raynor (Eds.), *Motivation and Achievement*. (pp. 13-41). New York: Halstead.
- Atkinson, J. (1964). *An introduction to motivation*. Princeton N J: Van Nostrand.
- Bali, S.K.; Ingule, F. and Rono P.K.:(1988) *Psychology of education (Part Two) Tests and measurement*. Nairobi University Press; Nairobi.
- Bailasha, N. and Akpata, D. (2002). Effectiveness of Serves used during the 12th feminine African volleyball clubs championship. *International Council of Health, Physical Education Recreation sports and Dance. Vol. 38 .1. pp 46-49.*
- Bandura, A (1977). Self – efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review*, 84, pp 191-215.

- Biddle, S. (1997). Cognitive theories of motivation and the self. In K.R.Fox (Ed). *The physical self: From motivation to well being* (59-82). Champaign, I.L: Human Kinetics.
- Biddle, S; Sallis, J and Garill, N. (Eds). (1998). *Young and active? Young people and health enhancing physical activity: Evidence and implications*. London: Human Education Authority.
- Bucher, C.A. and Wuest, C.A. (1995). *Foundations of physical education and sport*. St.Louis: Mosby.
- Bull, J. (1991). *Sport psychology. A self-help guide*. Marlborough State: The Crowood Press Ltd.
- Carmeli A., & Freund, A. (2004). Work commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance: An empirical investigation. *International Journal of Organization Theory and Behaviour*, 7 (3), 289-309.
- Carron, A.; Ball, J.& Chelladurai, P. (1977). Motivation for participation success in performance and their relationship to individual and group satisfaction . *Perceptual and Motor Skills*,45, pp835-841.
- Chelladurai, P (1984). Discrepancy between preferences and perceptions of leadership behaviour and satisfaction of athletes in varying sports. *Journal of sport psychology*, 6,27-41.
- Chelladurai, P & Carron, A. (1983). Athletic maturity and preferred leadership. *Journal of sport psychology*. 5, 371-380.
- Chelladurai, P.; Imamura, H.; Yamaguchi,Y.;Oinuma,Y.; and Miyauchi,T. (1988).Sport leadership in a cross –national setting. The case of Japanese and Canadian University athletes. *Journal of sport and exercise psychology*, 10, 374-389.
- Chelladurai, P., & Ogasawara, E. (2003). Satisfaction and commitment of American and Japanese collegiate coaches. *Journal of Sports Management*, 17 (1), 62-73.
- Chelladurai, P. and Riemer, H. (1997). A classification of facets of athletic satisfaction. *Journal of sport Management*, 11(2) 133-159.

- Chelladurai, P. and Saleh, S. (1980). Dimensions of leader behaviour in sports: Development of a leadership scale. *Journal of sport psychology*, 2, 34-45.
- Cox, H. (1990). *Sport psychology, concepts and applications*. London: Brown Publishers.
- Cronbach, L. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16, 297-334.
- Cunningham, G. B., & Sagas, M. (2004). Examining the main and interactive effects of deep and surface –level diversity on job satisfaction and organizational turnover intentions. *Organizational Analysis*. 12 (3), 319-341.
- Dongfang, C.; Steve, C.; Chou Hung-Yu, and Chi L. K. (2003). Male and female basketball players goal orientation, perceived motivation, perceived ability and the sources of sport confidence. *The sports journal*. vol. 6 No. 3.
- Duda, J. (1992). Sport exercise motivation: A goal perspective analysis. In G. Roberts (Ed). *Motivation in sport and exercise* (57-91). Champaign, I.L: Human Kinetics.
- Duda, J.L. (1993). Goals: A social –cognitive approach to the study of achievement motivation in sport. In Singer, R.N.; Hausenblas, H.A. and Janelle, C.M. (2001). *Handbook of Research on sport psychology*. New York: Wiley.
- Duda, J (1989). Relationship between task and ego orientation and the perceived purpose of sport among high school athletes. *Journal of sport and exercise psychology*. 11, 318-335.
- Duda, J; Chi, L; Newton, M; Walling, M and Catley, D. (1995). Task and ego orientation and intrinsic motivation in sport. *International Journal of sport psychology* 26, 40-63.
- Duda, J and Nicholls, J. (1992). Dimensions of achievement motivation in schoolwork and sport. *Journal of education psychology*. 84 (3) 290-299.
- Duda, J and White, S. (1992). Goal orientation and belief about the causes of sport success among elite skiers. *The sport psychologist*. 6, 334-343.
- Duda, J and Whitehead, J. (1998). Measurement of goal perspective in the physical domain. In J. Duda (Ed). *Advances in sport and exercise psychology measurement*. (21-48). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.
- Dwyer, J. and Fischer, D. (1990). *Wrestlers perception of coaches' leadership as predictors of satisfaction with leadership*. *Perception and motor skills*. 71, 511-517.

- Ewing, M.E. (1981). *Achievement orientation and sport behaviour of males and females*. Unpublished doctorate dissertation. University of Illinois, Champaign, I.L.
- Fisher, C. D. (2003). Why do lay people believe that satisfaction and performance are correlated? Possible sources of commonsense theory. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 2 (6), 753-777.
- Flood, S.E. and Hellstedt. J. C. (1991). Gender differences in motivation for intercollegiate athletic participation. *Journal of sport behaviour*, 14(13) 159-167.
- Gitonga, E.R. (1998). *Relationship between participation in competitive sport and academic performance of secondary school students in Nairobi province*. Unpublished masters thesis. Kenyatta University. Nairobi.
- Glynis, M. Breakwell, Sean Hammond and Chris Fife-Schaw (2000). *Research Methods in Psychology*, 2nd Ed. Sage Publishers. London.
- Goodway J.D. and Rudisill, M.E. (1997). "Perceived competence and actual motor skill competence of African American pre-school children". In R.G.Greg (Ed). *Adapted physical activity quarterly*. 14,314-326. Champaign I.L: Human Kinetics.
- Hom, H; Duda, J and Miller, A. (1993). Correlates of goal orientation among youth athletes. *Paediatric exercise sciences*. 5,168-178.
- Harter, S. (1982). The perceived competence scale for children. *Child development*, 53,87-97.
- Harter, S. (1981). A new self –report scale of intrinsic versus extrinsic orientation in the classroom: Motivational and informational components. *Developmental psychology*. 17,300-312.
- Haslam, S.A. and Craig McGarty (2003). *Doing Psychology. An Introduction to Research Methodology and Statistics*. Sage Publications. London.
- Hayes, N. (2003). *Teach yourself psychology*. Contemporary Books: Chicago.
- Hinton, P.R. (1995). *Statistics explained, a guide for social science students*. London: Routledge.
- Horn, T and Carron, A. (1985). Compatibility in coach athlete relationship. *Journal of sport psychology*. 7,137-149.
- Iaffaldano, M. T., & Muchinsky, P.M. (1985). Job satisfaction and job performance: A meta –analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 97, 251-273.

- Inglis, S., Danylchuk, K. E., & Pastore, D. (1996) Understanding retention factors in coaching and athletic management positions. *Journal of Sports Management*, 10, 37-249.
- Ipinmoroti, O. A. (2002). Type of Sport and Gender as Predictors of Coach Leadership Behaviour Patterns in Southwestern Nigeria. *International Council of Health, Physical Education Recreation sports and Dance*. Vol. 38 .1. pp 32-35.
- Judge, T. A., Thoresen ,C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001) The job satisfaction, job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 376-407.
- Kahan D. (2007). Gender Differences in Walking and its Correlates in the Orthodox Jewish Community; An Exploratory Study. *International Council of Health, Physical Education Recreation sports and Dance*. Vol. XLIII No.2 pp.21-29.
- Kamal.B. S. (2003) Gender Differences in Physical Activity among Birzeit University(Palestine)First Year Students. *International Council of Health, Physical Education Recreation sports and Dance*. Vol. 39 .1. pp 27-31.
- Kerlinger, F.N. (1973). *Foundations of behavioural research*. New York: Hold Reinehart.
- Kenya Volleyball Federation (2005) National Leagues and Tournaments, Newsletter, Nairobi.
- Kenya Volleyball Federation (2004) National Leagues and Tournaments, Newsletter, Nairobi.
- Kenyon, G.S. (1968). Sociological considerations. *Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, 39,31-33.
- Kidd, T.R. and Woodman ,W.F. (1975). Sex and orientation toward winning in sport. *The Research Quarterly*, 46 (4) 476-483
- Kim, J.C., & Cunningham, G. . (2005). Moderating effects of organizational support on the relationship between work experiences and job satisfaction among university coaches. *International Journal of Sports Psychology*, 36 (1), 50-64.

- Kinoti, J. (1998). *Effects of the diploma physical education programme on health related fitness levels of teacher trainees. The case of Kenya Science Teachers College*. Unpublished masters thesis. Kenyatta University. Nairobi.
- Lawler, E. (1973). *Motivation in work organization*. Montrel, C.A: Brooks/Cole.
- Levin, I. and Stokes, J. (1989). Dispositional approach to job satisfaction: Role of negative affectivity. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 74, 752-758.
- Li, F; Harmer, P and Acock, A. (1996). The task and ego orientation in sport questionnaire: Construct equivalence and mean difference across gender. *Research quarterly for exercise and sport*. 68(2)228-238.
- Li, F.; Harmer, P.; Duncan, T.; Duncan, S.; Acock, A. and Yamamoto ,T. (1998) Confirmatory factor analysis of the task and ego orientation in sport questionnaire with cross-validation .*Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 69 (3) 276-283.
- Lochbaum, M and Roberts, G. (1993). Goal orientation and perception of the sport experience. *Journal of sport and exercise psychology*. 15,160-171.
- Locke, E. (1976). Major content theories of job satisfaction .In M. Dunnette (Ed.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*.1307-1319.Chicago,IL: Rand McNally.
- Lozada,P. (1998). Are there gender differences in motives ,personal commitment and parental role in sports? *Adolescence. Achievement in sports*. Unpublished Seminar paper.
- Maday, M. (2000). *Goal orientation and level of satisfaction in runners*. Unpublished masters thesis. Springfield College.
- Maehr, M.L.and Nicholls, J. (1980). Culture and achievement motivation. A second look. In N.Warren (Ed). *Studies in cross cultural psychology* 3,221-267).
- Martens, R.; Landers, D. and Loy,J.(1972). Sport cohesiveness questionnaire. Washington D.C. *American Association of Health and Recreation*.
- Maslow, A. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological review* 50,370—396).
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N.J (1991). A three –component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 161-89.

- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N.J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and tests of a three component conceptualizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 538-551.
- Morakinyo, E. O. (2002). Academic Status of African Elite Volleyball Players. *International Council of Health, Physical Education Recreation sports and Dance. Vol. 38 .1. pp 42-45.*
- Muindi, D. (1998). *A study of the relationship between performance in physical skill and academic achievement among pupils in primary school education in Kenya.* Unpublished doctorate thesis. Kenyatta University. Nairobi.
- Mugala H. B. (2002) Motivational factors that affect primary school pupils in participation in organized sport i Shinyalu division of Kakamega District,Kenya.Unpublished master thesis.Kenyatta University.Nairobi.
- Mugenda, O and Mugenda, A (1999). *Research methods. Quantitative and qualitative approaches.* Nairobi: Acts press.
- Nachmias, C. F and Nachmias , D (2005). *Research Methods in the Social Sciences (5th Ed.)*. Hodder Arnold, London.
- Nation Correspondence (2007). Kennedy Langat, Daily Nation April 09,Volleyball: Kenya Pipeline to clash with Al Ahly of Egypt,Nation Media House,Nairobi.
- Nicholls, J. (1992). The general and the specific in the development and expression of achievement motivation .In G. Roberts (Ed.).*Motivation in.*Cambridge, M.A: Harvard University Press.
- Nicholls, J. (1984). Achievement motivation conceptions of ability, subjective experience, task, choice and performance. *Psychological review.* 91,328-346).
- Nicholls, J.; Cobb, P.; Wood, T.; Yackel, E. and Patashnick, M (1990). Assessing students theories of success in mathematics .Individual and classroom differences. *Journal of Research in Mathematics Education* ,21, 109-122.
- Nicholls,J.; Patashnick,M. and Nolen,S. (1985).Adolescents -theories of education. *Journal of Education Psychology*, 77, 683-692.
- Ntoumanis,N. and Biddle, S. (1999). A review of motivational climate in physical activity. *Journal of Sport Sciences.*17, 643-665.

- Ogundele , B. O. and Akiutekun, G (2007) Knowledge, Attitudes and Determinants of Adolescents Sexual Behaviour among Secondary Students in Nigeria. *International Council of Health, Physical Education Recreation sports and Dance*. Vol. XLIII, No. 2 pp36-38.
- Pelletier, L.; Fostier, M.; Vallerand, R.; Tuson, K.; Briere, N. and Blais, N. (1995). Toward a new measure of intrinsic motivation , extrinsic motivation and a motivation in sports. The sport Motivation Scale (SMS). *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*. 17, 18-34.
- Petlichkoff, L. (1993). Group differences on achievement goal orientations, perception, ability and level of satisfaction during an athletic season. *Paediatric exercise sciences*.5 (1)12-24.
- Raymore, L., Godbey, G., Crawford, D. and Von Eye ,A. (1993). A nature and process of leisure constraints :An empirical test. *Leisure Sciences*,15,104.
- Riemer, H and Chelladurai, P (1998). Development of the athletic satisfaction questionnaire. *Journal of sport and exercise psychology*. 20,27-56).
- Riemer, H and Chelladurai, P (1995). Leadership and satisfaction in athletics. *Journal of sport and exercise psychology*,17,276-293.
- Roberto H. and YeanSub J. L. (2001) Job satisfaction among athletic trainers in NCAA division institutions, *Northern State University*, Unpublished
- Saari, L. M. & Judge, T. A. (2004) Employee attitude and job satisfaction . *Human Resource Management*, 43 (4), 395-407.
- Sagas, M., & Batista , P. J. (2001). The importance of title IX compliance on the job satisfaction and occupational turnover intent of intercollegiate coaches. *Applied Research in Coaching and Athletic Annual*, 16, 15-43.
- Sagas, M., & Cunningham, G. (2004). Treatment discrimination in college coaching: its prevalence and impact on the career success of assistant basketball coaches. *International Sports Journal*, 13 (1), 76-88.
- Schiesman, E (1987). Relationship between the congruence of preferred and actual leadership behaviour and subordinate satisfaction with leadership. *Journal of sport behaviour*.10 (3)157-166.
- Schuman, H. and Kalton, G.(1985). Survey methods. In G. Linzey and E. Aronson (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (3rd ed., vol.1, pp.635-697). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Schutz , W.(1966). *The interpersonal underworld*. New York: Science and Behaviour Books.

- Schutz, W. (1958). *FIRO: A three dimensional theory of interpersonal behaviour*. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston.
- Setter K. and Asli C. (2005). Leadership and satisfaction in soccer: examination of congruence and player positions. *International council for health, physical education, recreation, sport and dance journal* vol. XLI, 3.
- Sissions T. (1999). Survey research. Sample size calculator. Retrieved July 1, 2000 from <http://www.Azplansite.com/samplesize.htm>.
- Smith, F. (1976). The index of organizational reactions (IOR). *JSAS Catalog of selected documents in psychology*, 6, Ms. No. 1265.
- Smith, R; Smoll, F and Schutz, R (1990). Measurement and correlates of sport specific cognitive and somatic trait anxiety. *The Sport Anxiety Scale. Research Quarterly*. 2,263-280.
- Statistical Package for Social Sciences. (1998).
- Suinn, M, R. (1994). *Psychology in sports. Methods and applications*. Minnesota: Burgess publishing company.
- Turner B. A., & Jordan J. S., (2006). Commitment and satisfaction of coaches: Which is more important in the retention and performance of coaches? *The Journal of International Council for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport, and Dance*. XLII (4), 42-48.
- Vealey, R. S. (1989). Sport personality: A paradigmatic and methodological analysis. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 11, 216-235.
- Vealey, R. S. (1986). Sport confidence and competitive orientation: An addendum on scoring procedures and gender differences. *Journal of sport and exercise Psychology*. 10, 471-478.
- Vroom, V (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Weiss, M. (2000). Motivating kids in physical activity. *Research digest*. 3-11).
- Weiss, M. (1993). Psychological effects of intensive sport participation in children and youth: Self-esteem and motivation. In B.Cahill and A.J.Pearl. (Eds). *Intensive training and participation in youth sports*. (39-70). Champaign, I.L: Human Kinetics.
- Weiss, M. and Chaumeton, N. (1992). Motivational orientations in sport. In T.Horn (Eds.). *Advances in sport psychology*. (61-101).
- Weiss, M.; and Friedrichs, W. (1986). The influence of leader behaviour, coach attributes, and institutional variables on performance satisfaction of collegiate basketball teams. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 8, 332-346.

- Weiss, M and Petlichkoff, L. (1989). Children's motivation for participation in and withdraw from sport. Identifying the missing links. *Paediatric exercise science*. 1,195-211.
- Wekesa, M. (1993) *Injuries and Illnesses during the 8 th African Feminine Volleyball Championship*, Unpublished seminar paper, Kenyatta University, Nairobi.
- White, R; Duda, J. and Keller, (1998). The relationship between goal orientation and perceived purposes of sport among youth sport participants. *Journal of sport behaviour*, 21.4.474.
- White, R. and Zellner, S. (1996). The relationship between goal orientation, beliefs about the causes of sport success, and trait anxiety among high school intercollegiate and recreational sport participants. *The sport psychologist*. 10 (1)58-72.
- Williams, L. (1994). Goal orientation and athletes preferences for competence information. *Journal of sport and exercise psychology*. 16,416-430.
- Wu, S.C. (2000). *A research in relationships of athletes goal orientation , perceived climate and sport confidence*. Unpublished masters thesis, National collage of sport and physical education. Taoyuan, Taiwan.
- Young-Jun, Dick D., Lawrence B. and YeanSub" L.(1997). Satisfaction levels of elite track and field athletes in South Korea. *Korean National University of Physical Education*. Unpublished
- Zahariadis, P; Greece, T and Biddle, S. (2000). Goal orientation and participation motives in physical education and sport. Their relationships in English school children. *In Athletic insight. The online journal of sport psychology* 12-1.

APPENDIX A**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION**

The Team Manager,
..... Volleyball Club,
P.O.Box.....
.....
Kenya.

Mugala Hannington Bulinda,
Kenyatta University,
P.E. Department,
P.O.Box 43844,
Nairobi.

**RE: REQUEST FOR CARRYING OUT RESEARCH ON KENYA
VOLLEYBALL LEAGUE PLAYERS**

I am a postgraduate student in the department of Physical Education at Kenyatta University. As part of my studies, I am carrying out research on Kenyan Volleyball teams. The research is about the Relationship between Gender, Status, Ability, Experience and Age and Achievement Goal Orientation and Satisfaction in Sport. I have chosen your team to help me in getting the necessary information for my research. The players will be required to respond to a prepared questionnaire. All responses will be kept confidential and a summary of the results will be send to you for your perusal. We will agree on the time and date for this exercise at your convenience.

Thank you in advance.

Sincerely,

H.B. Mugala.

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE.

Instructions:

- **Answer all questions truthfully.**
- **Do not indicate your name.**
- **Tick against the answer of your choice.**

1. Name of your team.....

2. Gender

M ()

W ()

3. Date of Birth Day.....Month.....Year.....

4. Level of your team;

Division I ()

Division II ()

5. Status on the team;

First Six ()

Libero ()

Second Six ()

6. How many years have you been playing in KVF organized tonourments?

a) 1-4 years ()

b) 5-9 years ()

c) 10-14 years ()

d) 15 years and above ()

APPENDIX C

THE TASK AND EGO ORIENTATION IN SPORT QUESTIONNAIRE (TEOSQ)

Stem; "I feel most successful in volleyball when..."

S/ N	Stem Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I'm the only one who can do the play or skill.					
2.	I learn a new skill and it makes me want to practice more.					
3.	I can do better than my friends.					
4.	The others can't do as well as me.					
5.	I learn something that is fun to do.					
6.	Others mess up and I don't.					
7.	I learn a new skill by trying hard.					
8.	I work really hard.					
9.	I score the most points/goals/hits e.t.c.					
10.	Something I learn makes me want to go to practice more.					
11.	I'm the best.					
12.	A skill I learn really feels right.					
13.	I do my very best.					

Task Items: 2,5,7,8,10,12,13.

Ego Items: 1,3,4,6,9,11.

Adapted from Duda and Nicholls (1992).

APPENDIX D**THE ATHLETIC SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE. (ASQ.)**

S/n	Scale Item	Not at all Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	More Satisfied	Most Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
1.	How the team works (worked) to be the best.							
2.	My social status on the team.							
3.	The coach's choice of plays during competitions.							
4.	The competence of the medical personnel.							
5.	The degree to which I do(did) my best for the team.							
6.	The degree to which I have reached (reach) my performance goals during the season.							
7.	The degree to which my abilities are (were) used.							

S/n	Scale Item	Not at all Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	More Satisfied	Most Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
8.	The extent to which all team members are (were) ethical.							
9.	The extent to which team-mates provide (provided) me with instruction.							
10.	The funding provided to my team.							
11.	The medias support of our programmes.							
12.	The recognition I receive (received) from my coach.							
13.	The team's win/loss record this season.							
14.	The training I receive (received) from the coach during the season.							
15.	The tutoring I receive (received).							
16.	My dedication during practices.							
17.	My team-mates sense of fair play.							

S/n	Scale Item	Not at all Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	More Satisfied	Most Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
18.	The academic support services provided.							
19.	The amount of money spent on my team.							
20.	The degree to which team-mates share (shared) the same goal.							
21.	The fairness with which the medical personnel treats all players.							
22.	The friendliness of the coach towards me.							
23.	The guidance I receive (received) from my team-mates.							
24.	The improvement of my performance over the previous season.							
25.	The instruction I have received from the coach this season.							

S/N	Scale Item	Not at all Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	More Satisfied	Most Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
26.	The level to which my talents are (were) employed.							
27.	The role I play (played) in the social life of the team.							
28.	The support from the university community.							
29.	The tactics used during games.							
30.	The teams overall performance this season.							
31.	The coach's choice of strategies during games.							
32.	My enthusiasm during competitions.							
33.	My team-mates sportsmanlike behaviour.							
34.	Team members' dedication to work together towards team goals.							

S/n	Scale Item	Not at all Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	More Satisfied	Most Satisfied	Extreme Satisfied
35.	The coach's teaching of the tactics and techniques of my position.							
36.	The constructive feedback I receive from my teammates.							
37.	The degree to which my team-mates accepted me on a social level.							
38.	The extent to which my role matches (matched) my potential.							
39.	The extent to which the team is meeting (has met) its goals for the season.							
40.	The fairness of the team's budget.							
41.	The improvement in my skill level.							
42.	The level of appreciation my coach shows /showed when I do/ did well.							

S/n	Scale Item	Not at all Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	More Satisfied	Most Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
43.	The medical personnel's interest in athletes.							
44.	The personnel of the academic support services (i.e. tutors, counsellors).							
45.	The supportiveness of the fans.							
46.	How the coach makes (made) adjustments during competitions .							
47.	My coach's loyalty towards me.							
48.	My commitment to the team.							
49.	The amount of time I play (played) during competitions .							
50.	The extent to which team-mates play (played) as a team.							

S/n	Scale Item	Not at all Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Slightly Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	More Satisfied	Most Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
51.	The local community's support.							
52.	The promptness of medical attention.							
53.	Coach's game plan.							
54.	The degree to which my role on the team matches (matched) my preferred role.							
55.	The extent to which the coach is (was) behind me.							
56.	The manner in which the coach combines (combined) the available talent.							

Adapted from Riemer and Chelladurai (1998)