

**EVALUATION OF THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION AND
CERTIFICATION OF ATHLETICS COACHES IN KENYA**

By

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DECLARATION

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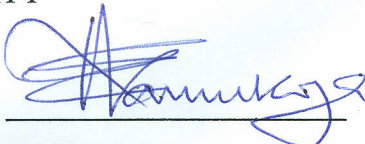
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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my dear brother, Job Luvonga. I have tried to do what you sacrificed your meagre resources to enable me achieve.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A.K.:	Athletics Kenya
I.A.A.F.:	International Association of Athletics Federations
N.A.S.P.E.:	National Association for Sport and Physical Education
N.C.I.:	National Coaching Institutes (of Canada)
N.Y.S.A.:	National Youth Sports Coaches Association (United States)
A.C.E.P.:	American Coaching Effectiveness Programme
P.A.C.E.:	Programme for Athletic Coaches Education (United States)

ABSTRACT

The present study evaluated the professional preparation and certification of athletics coaches in Kenya. The variables of the study included scrutiny of the coaches' gender, age, marital status, level of education, other employment; areas of coaching, nature and level of training, course content, duration of courses, competency of coaches' instructors, assessment of trainee coaches, frequency of refresher courses and availability of coaching literature. Other variables included the adequacy of athletics coaches' education, their level of effectiveness, professional training needs and problems. Data were gathered from 229 respondents who included provincial and national executive officials of Athletics Kenya, government sports officers and coaches. Questionnaires were used to gather data. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, while hypotheses were tested using Chi-square test and Spearman rank order correlation coefficient. The results indicated that majority of the coaches were males, and were married. The largest proportion of the coaches possessed ordinary level of education, and had other regular permanent occupations besides their coaching roles. The coaches for middle and distance runners outnumbered those for sprints and field events. The International Association of Athletics Federations trained most of the athletics coaches. The main content area of the coaches' courses was Theory and Practice of Athletic Techniques and Tactics, but sport psychology received least attention. A larger fraction of the coaches indicated that the duration of the courses was adequate. Most coaches acknowledged that theory and practical examinations were administered during their coaching courses. Although many coaches viewed their course instructors as competent, the analysis of their views on the basis of their academic qualifications yielded a X^2 of 76.94 ($p < 0.05$). The coaches indicated that their access to coaching literature was infrequent as their ratings on this variable on the basis of their academic qualifications produced a X^2 of 8.10 ($p > 0.05$). In spite of the finding that many of the coaches, government sports officers and Athletics Kenya (AK) officials indicated that coaching and in-service courses were infrequent, their views yielded a x^2 of 18.34 ($p < 0.05$). Majority of the three groups of respondents indicated the need to train more coaches in sprints, middle and long distance races, and field events, with their views producing X^2 values of 3.21 ($p > 0.05$), 5.45 ($p > 0.05$) and 2.32 ($p > 0.05$) respectively. There were significantly positive correlations, $r_s = 0.72$ ($p < 0.05$) and $r_s = 0.57$ ($p < 0.05$) between the coaches' and managers' views with regard to the training needs and problems of athletics coaches, respectively. Their main need and problem is regular in-service courses and inadequate finances, respectively. On the overall, the three groups of respondents indicated that the training of the coaches was inadequate, as their views yielded a X^2 of 9.37 ($p > 0.05$). The inadequacy of training was attributed to insufficient course content, limited access to in-service courses and coaching literature. It was therefore, recommended that AK and the Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services should establish a centralized institution to standardize and conduct frequent athletics coaching and in-service courses to meet coaching personnel needs in the country. AK and the government should set up learning resource centres across the country where coaches can access recent coaching literature. An athletics coaches' licensing board should be formed to ensure high standards in coaching and offer licenses to qualified coaches only. AK and the government should find alternate ways of raising funds to cater for the training of coaches.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1.0 Background to the Problem

Kenya is well recognized internationally for its impressive performances in the middle and long distance races. Since 1956 when Kenya participated for the first time in the Olympic Games held in Melbourne, Australia, many Kenyan athletes have continued to win medals in various international competitions, including the Commonwealth Games, All Africa Games, World Championships, Olympic Games and Grand Prix meets. At any rate, much of these successes have been registered in the middle and distance races and not in short distance races and field events. For instance, from 1956 to 2004 no single Kenyan athlete won a medal in the field events at the Olympic Games and World Championships (Ndoo, 2000; IAAF Regional Development Centre Nairobi, 2004;).

During the same period (1956 - 2004) only 4 medals were won in sprints at the Olympics and only 2 medals in the same events at the world championships (Ndoo, 2000; IAAF Regional Development Centre Nairobi, 2004). This performance is quite low when compared to the 42 medals won in the middle and long distance races at the Olympic Games and 50 medals in the same events at the world championships during the same period (IAAF Regional Development Centre Nairobi, 2004).

Kenya's domination of the middle and long distance races is also currently seriously challenged by other African countries, particularly Ethiopia and Morocco (Ndoo, 2000; Wallace-Jones, 2002). For instance, in addition to being beaten by Ethiopia in the

Olympic Games held in Athens, Greece in 2004, Kenya's domination in the men's 3000 metres steeplechase race was broken in 2001 when the country lost the world record for the first time in 23 years to Morocco's Brahim Boulami who clocked 7.55.28 (Kenya Amateur Athletics Association, 2002). The world record in the same event is now held by Morocco's Shaheen Saeed who set it in a time of 7:53:63 in Brussels (IAAF Regional Development Centre Nairobi, 2004).

In view of the declining performances of Kenyan athletes in the sprints and field events, coupled with the loss of the world record in 3000 metres steeplechase, an investigation into the psychosocial factors that affect Kenyan women's performances in international track events by Murithi (1997) highlighted weakness in coaching as one of the adverse factors. The study by Kubai (1992) also attributed poor performance in sprints by Kenyan male athletes in international competitions to lack of exposure of Kenyan athletics coaches to modern training techniques. The findings of the two studies therefore provide the basis to investigate the certification processes and factors related to athletics coaching in Kenya.

Coaches are the central figures in the technical development of athletes' potential. It becomes necessary, therefore, to assess their professional preparedness to successfully guide their athletes to success. It is also important to establish the adequacy of athletics coaches not only in the middle and distance races but also in sprints and field events. This study, therefore, focused on gathering demographic information on Kenya's athletics coaches and on evaluating the procedures involved in their professional preparation.

There is no firmly established and centralized national structure entrusted with the responsibility of training athletics coaches in Kenya (Tirop, 1996). Coaching courses for potential coaches are therefore, conducted by various uncoordinated and independent organizations and institutions, some of which are foreign (Tirop, 1996; Ndoo, 2000). Among the organizations and Institutions involved include International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF) and foreign universities and colleges in Germany, Finland, United States of America and Hungary (Denscher Leihathletik Verband, 1994; Tamas, 1995; IAAF, 1996). The local ones include Universities, Teachers' Training Colleges and Athletics Kenya, which includes its branches and sub-branches in the provinces and districts, respectively (Tirop, 1996). With these many organizations and institutions involved in the training of coaches, the need to scrutinize their programmes is inevitable. The issues that need to be addressed include content of the various coaching courses offered by the various organizations and institutions, modes of assessment of trainees, methodology of instruction, instructor's competency, frequency of the courses, access of trainees to relevant literature and duration of the courses. Other pertinent issues include the frequency of in-service courses which will enable coaches to keep abreast of developments in their profession and improve on their performance, and the rating of the athletics coaches of the kind of coaches courses offered by the various organizations and institutions.

Since coaches spend much time with the young athletes providing the necessary teaching, instruction, guidance, psychological support, management and leadership, there is need among parents, educationists, sports enthusiasts and general public to know more about them (Mills & Dunley, 1997). This is necessary in enabling them to develop trust and confidence in the coaches. It is necessary to know more about their personal attributes besides formal education, professional training, coaching ability, knowledge of roles, experiences, needs and problems. A coach who has little formal and professional education may not be able to effectively cope with the challenges of coaching. Hence, the need for the current study.

Many scholars in the various parts of the world have studied factors related to the background, education, certification processes and the other aspects concerning the roles, experiences and problems of coaches. For instance, Jones (1992) carried out a study which focused on describing the background, certification process and personal role perceptions of English Football Association preliminary certified coaches. Jones (1997) reviewed literature on what constitutes effective instructional coaching behaviour. Mills and Dunlevy (1997) reviewed literature on coaching certification in the United States of America vis-à-vis that found in other countries. Unlike these studies, the present study evaluated the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya.

1.2.0 Statement of the Problem

Coaching is fairly complex. It involves a wide range of highly technical activities, which require every coach to be professionally prepared to carry out so as to assist athletes to improve their performances (Dougherty & Bonano, 1985; Nebiolo, 1991). Coaches need to have effective communication and leadership skills to enable them handle and rightfully influence their athletes (Straub, 1981; Terry, 1991; Jones, 1997). They should demonstrate mastery of the theory and application of scientific principles of training and systematic coaching procedures which are crucial to athletic performance (Bull, 1991; Nebiolo, 1991). Unfortunately, the unimpressive performance of Kenyan athletes in major international competitions in the sprints and field events, coupled with the current apparent deterioration in performance in the middle and distance races, have been blamed on coaches and their quality of coaching (Kubai, 1992; Murithi, 1997). This state of affairs calls for an evaluation of the professional preparation and certification of Kenyan athletics coaches. Details relating to their level of training, areas of specialization (coverage), competence of course instructors, modes of assessment of trainees, duration of coaching courses, accessibility to coaching literature and in-service training need scrutiny. In addition, details relating to their knowledge of coaching roles, leadership styles and degree of their effectiveness in their coaching roles need to be evaluated.

There is no firmly established national institution that trains athletics coaches in Kenya. Hence courses for potential athletics coaches in Kenya are conducted by various uncoordinated local and international organizations and institutions. Since coaches are the technical people responsible for the success or failure of the athletes, it is necessary to find out if they are adequately professionally prepared by the various uncoordinated

organizations that are concerned with their certification. The extent of homogeneity and standardisation of the coaches' education curriculum is also a question that needs attention. Issues relating to course content, competence of course instructors, extent of coverage of the content and duration of courses all need to be addressed.

1.3.0 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya. Demographic information on Kenya's athletics coaches was obtained. The other variables that were evaluated included the content of the coaching courses, assessment of coach trainees, methodology of instruction, coaches' accessibility to relevant coaching literature, competency of instructors and adequacy of duration of the coaching courses. Details concerning to the frequency of the pre-service and in-service courses, as well as coaches' knowledge of their roles were also addressed.

1.4.0 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to:

- (i) To seek demographic information of athletics coaches in Kenya.
- (ii) Establish the strengths and weaknesses of the procedures and processes of training athletics coaches in Kenya.
- (iii) Establish the professional training needs and problems of athletics coaches in Kenya.

1.5.0 Research Questions

This study addressed the following questions:

- (i) What are the demographic details of athletics coaches in Kenya?
- (ii) What are the areas in which Kenya's athletics coaches have specialized through their professional preparation?
- (iii) What is the rating of athletics coaches ,AK(Athletics Kenya) officials and government sports officers of the level of effectiveness of the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya?
- (iv) What is the rating of athletics coaches of the adequacy of duration of athletics coaching courses in Kenya?
- (v) What are the content areas covered during the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya?
- (vi) What are the coaching roles taught to Kenya's athletics coaches during their professional preparation?
- (vii) Do Kenya's athletics coaches take written and practical examinations during their training?
- (viii) What is the frequency at which athletics coaches in Kenya access pre-service and in-service courses as part of their professional preparation?
- (ix) What is the frequency at which athletics coaches in Kenya access relevant coaching literature during their professional preparation?
- (x) What is the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the extent to which Kenya needs to train coaches in various areas of athletics?

- (xi) What is the rating of athletics coaches of the level of competence of the instructors involved in the professional preparation of Kenyan athletics coaches?
- (xii) What is the extent to which athletics coaches in Kenya receive cooperation and assistance from Athletics Kenya in matters of their professional preparation?
- (xiii) What are the professional training needs and problems of athletics coaches in Kenya?

1.6.0 Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were formulated to guide the conduct of the study:

- H₀₁ The coaches' opinions with regard to competence of their course instructors will not be significantly influenced by their academic qualifications.
- H₀₂ The coaches' views concerning the extent to which athletics coaches in Kenya access relevant coaching literature will not be significantly influenced by their academic qualifications.
- H₀₃ The rating of athletics coaches AK officials and government sports officers of the frequency of coaching and in-service courses and clinics organized for athletics coaches each year will not differ significantly.
- H₀₄ There will no be significant difference in the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the extent to which Kenya needs to train coaches for the following events:
 - (i) Sprints
 - (ii) Middle and distance races.
 - (iii) Throws and jumps (field events)

- H₀₅ The athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers' rating of the adequacy of training of Kenya's athletics coaches will not differ significantly.
- H₀₆ The extent to which athletics coaches consider the cooperation and assistance they receive from Athletics Kenya in matters of professional preparation would not significantly depend on their years of experience as coaches.
- H₀₇ The rating of the effectiveness of athletics coaches in Kenya by athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers will not differ significantly.
- H₀₈ There will be no significant correlation between the athletics coaches' and managers' (AK officials and government sports officers) identification of the professional training needs of athletics coaches in Kenya.
- H₀₉ There will be no significant correlation between the athletics coaches' and managers' identification of the problems faced by athletics coaches in Kenya.

1.7.0 Conceptual Framework

Coaching is widely recognized as a profession (Seefeldt, 1992; IAAF, 1995; Digel, 2001). As a profession, it has its own unique and systematic body of knowledge, professional authority based on that body of knowledge, approval of society, code of ethics and professional culture based on shared values (Nsengiyunva, 1997; Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999). The field of coaching has indeed become increasingly complex and sophisticated involving both conceptual and applied knowledge which has been translated into a systematic body of knowledge found in books, research journals and popular literature (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999). Hence, people who seek grounding and employment in the field of coaching must undergo highly specialized academic preparation and obtain

credentials by becoming licensed or certified by relevant sports professional organizations, or government agencies (IAAF, 1995; Mills & Dunvely, 1997).

Seefeldt (1992) emphasizes that coaching certification is an essential step and ingredient for professionalism. Nebiolo (1991 and O' Conner (2002)) also point out that certification and licensure are the essential ingredients of coaching legitimacy. The need for both pre-service and frequent in-service training for sports coaches has been emphasized by many authors (Lopez, 1986; Goslin, 1996; Digel, 2001). Digel (2001) asserts that coaching as an academic profession involves the need for, and even the expectation of, scientifically based continuing education. It is through such education and training that coaches are armed and updated with knowledge to effectively deliver coaching services and operate within the confines of the requirements and varying environments of the profession (Goslin, 1996). Knowledge therefore is the foundation of the beginner or the already practicing coach who seeks improvement (Thompson, 1991). Milne (1991) suggests that coaches should be trained, and content areas to be covered should include: Sports medicine; human growth and development, psychosocial aspects, biophysical elements of coaching (kinesiology and physiology), sports techniques and tactics and practicum in coaching. Lopez (1986) also emphasizes the inclusion of sports kinesiology, psychological, physiological, sociological, health and safety aspects in coach education.

Dean of Sports Science and Fitness Studies Division at Endicott College (2003) points out that coaching certification programmes should provide trainee coaches with knowledge on care and prevention of injury, principles of coaching, nutritional

guidelines, sports medicine, personal health issues and role of sports in society. The IAAF Coaches' Certification Programme, on its part, emphasizes on the teaching of coaching philosophy, anatomy and physiology, biomechanics, growth and development, training theory, sport psychology, nutrition, injuries and first aid, skills, and organization and administration of athletics (IAAF, 1995). In addition to these sport-specific content areas, other areas that are important in enhancing coaching skills and abilities that should be stressed include: planning, organization, communication, time management and performance analysis techniques (Jones, 1992; O' Conner, 2002). The coverage of these content areas should be followed by administration of both practical and theory examinations for trainee coaches to determine the extent of their grasp of the content, and as criteria for their upgrading (IAAF, 1995; Mills and Dunlevy, 1997).

In addition to the theoretical content, supervised coaching practicum is recommended for trainee coaches (Thompson, 1991; Mills & Dunlevy, 1997; Dean of Sports Science and Fitness studies Division of Endicott College, 2003). Indeed, according to Thompson (1991), coaching is a craft that is best learned by practical experience, development of effective relationships with athletes and fellow professionals through the application of knowledge. A practicum for trainee coaches is, therefore, an important aspect of enabling them to acquaint themselves with the challenges, needs and problems of coaching in actual coaching situations (Nash, 2002; O' Conner, 2002).

Seefeldt (1992) and Mills and Dunlevy (1997) stress on the need for facilitation of pre-service and in-service coaching courses by acknowledged experts. In recognition of this

necessity, the IAAF, for instance, has not only set up a certification programme for athletics coaches but also for its coaching instructors (IAAF, 1995). The main purpose of providing competent coaching instructors or lecturers is to ensure not only that trainee coaches are thoroughly professionally prepared and made familiar with techniques and skills of their sport, but also that they know how to effectively teach those skills and strategies to athletes (O' Conner, 2002).

Figure 1 shows the main procedures and processes of training competent sports coaches.

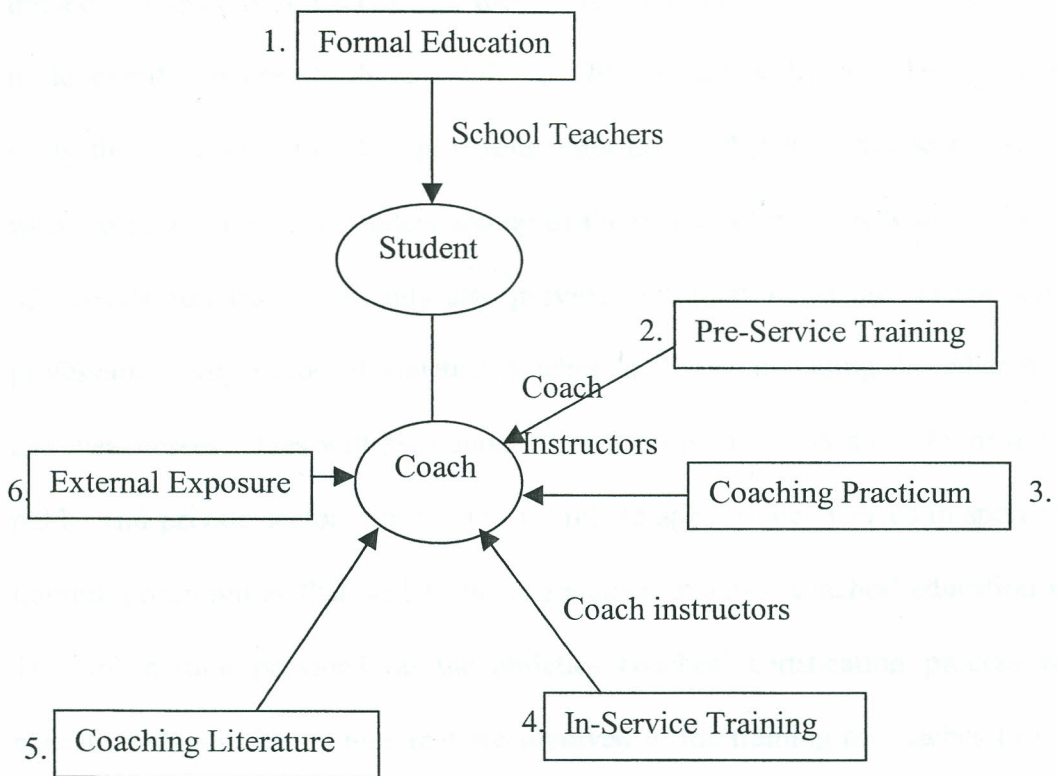


Figure 1: Procedures and Processes of Training Sports Coaches

Adapted from Milne (1991), Thompson, (1991), Seefeldt (1992), Mills and Dunlevy (1997) and Digel (2001).

It is against the concept and perspective of coaching as a profession whose practitioners must be thoroughly trained that the present study was designed to evaluate the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya.

1.8.0 Significance of the Study

Coaches play important roles in assisting young athletes to improve their performance and in influencing and shaping their behaviour (Beashel & Taylor, 1992; Jones, 1992). It is, therefore, necessary that coaches should be people with credible backgrounds, well-trained, adequately prepared for their roles and effective in the delivery of their professional services (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997; Wuest & Bucher, 1995). The present study therefore was aimed at providing information that will enable Kenyans and the world at large to have an understanding of the quality of coaches who handle the cream of Kenya's athletes. The study also provided information on the current status of the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya, including the inherent strengths and weaknesses. This will help athletics and sports managers and administrators in the public and private sectors, in general, to initiate appropriate changes in sport policy and training programmes that will further strengthen athletics coaches' education in Kenya. The information provided on the athletics coaches' certification process will assist educationists and institutions that are involved in the training of coaches to re-examine and possibly revise their curricula and training to meet contemporary challenges of sport coaching.

The present study has reviewed the main roles of a coach and also highlighted instructional coaching behaviour, all of which are important to coaching effectiveness (Nebiolo, 1991; Frost et al., 1995). Furthermore, the findings of the study will contribute to the body of knowledge in the broad areas of coach education, coaching behaviour and effectiveness. These will assist athletics coaches in Kenya to gain a deeper and broader understanding of what is expected of them as coaches. Knowledgeable and well-informed athletics coaches will be best equipped to guide their athletes towards improved performance, and thereby make Kenya more competitive in major international competitions.

The study highlights some of the training and professional needs of athletics coaches in Kenya. This will form the basis from which sports employers, administrators and managers will be able to motivate athletics coaches by solving some of their disturbing needs and problems.

1.9.0 Assumptions of the Study

The study assumed that the respondents were honest and trustworthy in their responses to the questionnaires. In addition, it was assumed that their emotional and physical conditions did not adversely affect their responses.

1.10.0 Delimitations of the Study

The data for this study were collected only from three groups of sports personnel:

Kenya's athletics coaches who coach the provincial and national team(s) that participate

in national and international level competitions respectively, government sports officers/administrators at the national and provincial offices and the executive officials of Athletics Kenya at the national and provincial levels. Ten of the athletics coaches from the Armed Forces Athletics Association were involved in the pilot study, and were therefore excluded from the main study. The study also gathered data only on the following broad areas: coaches' demographic information, their professional training and certification, and their professional needs and problems.

1.11.0 Limitations of the Study

The task of collecting data from the provincial officials of Athletics Kenya (AK) who are scattered in the various corners of the country required much time and financial resources, which were not readily available to the researcher. However, the researcher endeavoured to overcome this shortcoming by reaching to a substantial number of the officials during the annual provincial athletics championships.

1.12.0 Operational Definitions of Terms

The following terms are defined as used in the context of the study:

Athletes – Those who take part in track and field events at Kenya's provincial and national levels. These also include those who represent Kenya in international competitions.

Athletics - Track and field events. These include sprints: 100 metres, 100 x 100 metres relay, 100 metres hurdles, 110 metres hurdles, 200 metres, 200 metres hurdles, 400 metres hurdles, 400 metres and 400 metres. Middle distance races which

include 800 metres, 1,500 metres, 3,000 metres steeplechase. Distance races include 5,000 metres, 10,000 metres, marathon and cross country. Field events include long jump, triple jump, pole vault, short put, discus, javelin and hammer. (IAAF, 1995).

Athletics Managers – Kenya's Commissioner of Sports, Deputy Commissioner of Sports, Assistant Commissioners of Sports and Provincial Directors of Sports. These also include elected officials of the national and provincial offices of Athletics Kenya, i.e. the chairmen, secretaries-general, treasurers, assistant treasurers, public relations officers and committee members.

Athletics Kenya - National organization that governs athletics in Kenya.

Certification - Process of providing standardized coaching education and training, and the award of related credentials to Kenya's athletics coaches.

Coaching Behaviour - Refers to athletics coaches' leadership styles, level of effectiveness in coaching and nature of relations with their athletes and athletics managers (Jones, 1992)

Coach - One who professionally guides and leads athletes towards the achievement of their maximum athletic potential (Beashel & Taylor, 1992). They include Kenya's national and provincial level athletics coaches.

Coaches' Needs – Professional-related requirements of Kenya's athletics coaches.

Field Events - Refers to athletics activities which include: long jump, high jump, triple jump, pole vault, short put, discus, javelin and hammer (IAAF, 1996).

Professional Preparation – The process of providing coaching education and training that include: level of education of the coaches, their training organizations and

institutions, areas of specialization, content of coaching courses, methods of assessment of trainee coaches, competence of course instructors, adequacy of durations of coaching courses, and coaches' frequency of accessibility to in-service courses and coaching literature (Mills & Dunlevy, 1986; IAAF, 1995).

Province/Branch - Athletic organization and/or institution that is directly affiliated to Athletics Kenya, which include Nairobi, Coast, North Eastern, Central, Rift Valley, Western, Nyanza, Eastern, Armed Forces Athletics Association, Kenya Universities Sports Association, Kenya Police Sports Organization, Kenya Prisons Athletics Association and Kenya Communications Sports Organization.

Provincial Team - Athletics teams that represent their respective provinces or sports organizations and institutions at annual national athletics championship. These include Nairobi Province, North Eastern Province, Coast Province, Eastern Province, Rift Valley Province, Armed Forces Athletics Association, Kenya Universities Sports Association, Kenya Police Sports Organization, Kenya Prisons Amateur Athletic Association and Kenya Communications Sports Organization.

Track Events - Running activities that are carried out on the official surface and facility recommended by the IAAF. These include 100 metres, 100 metres hurdles, 110 metres hurdles, 200 metres, 400 metres, 400 metres hurdles, 4x100 metres relay, 4x400 metres relay, 800 metres, 1500 metres, 3000 metres steeplechase, 9000 metres, 10 000 metres, 20 km walk and 50 km walk.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to the study. The areas covered under this section include: roles of a coach, instructional coaching behaviour, coaching knowledge, drawbacks in coaching, need for trained coaches, certification programmes, related studies and summary of literature review.

2.1.0 Roles of a Coach

The coach has been identified as the most influential force in the development of the youth within the sports environment (Beashel & Taylor, 1992; Jones 1992). According to Nebiolo (1991) and Frost et. al. (1995), the work of qualified coaches is vital in the development and success of sports programmes. This is because coaches have the responsibility to offer the necessary technical guidance and assistance to their athletes (Bull, 1991; Beashel & Taylor, 1992). They also serve as role models, counsellors and teachers to athletes (Bucher & Krotee, 1993; Wuest & Bucher 1995). Coaches take care of the safety and health of athletes, providing first aid, at times, treatment in the event of injuries or illness and emphasize proper hygiene and nutrition for them (Arnheim & Prentice, 1993; Bucher & Krotee, 1993; Wuest & Bucher, 1995). Every coach, therefore, should be a person worth being emulated by his/her knowledge of athletes, knowledge about sport and roles and be competent and effective in executing his/her professional roles.

Above everything else, a coach has been described as a leader who influences and guides athletes (Straub, 1980; Cratty, 1981; Terry, 1991). As a role model and leader, he/she must operate in a highly ethical manner. (Frost, Lockhart & Marshal 1995; Wuest and Bucher, 1995). He/she must exercise the kind of leadership behaviour or style that is effective and that makes him/her compatible with his/her athletes (Straub, 1980; Thompson, 1991). According to Thompson (1991), a good leadership style comes from one's coaching philosophy and personality that allows one to communicate effectively with one's athletes. Coaching philosophy defines the coach's knowledge of himself/herself, reasons for his/her involvement in coaching and what he/she desires to achieve as a coach (Thompson, 1991). It is, therefore, desirable for every coach to have a well-defined coaching philosophy.

Thompson (1991) and Nebiolo (1991) summarize the roles and functions of a coach to include the following:

- Teacher- imparts new knowledge, skills and ideas.
- Trainer- improves and evaluates fitness
- Instructor- directs activities and practices
- Motivator- generates a positive and decisive approach
- Disciplinarian- determines a system of rewards and punishments.
- Manager- organizes and plans
- Administrator- deals with the paper work
- Publicity agent- works with others interested in what he/she does.
- Social worker- counsels and advises

- Friend- supports his/her athlete
- Scientist- analyses, evaluates and solves problems
- Student- listens, learns and looks for new knowledge
- Assessor- assesses athletes' performance in training and competition.
- Advisor- advises athletes on the training to be conducted, on suitable kit and equipment.
- Role model- sets a good example to be emulated by his/her athletes.

Every coach should, therefore, be well equipped to carry out these numerous roles. However, this cannot be possible unless coaches undergo rigorous professional preparation. They need to be exposed to the relevant content that covers all the roles expected of them.

2.2.0 Instructional Coaching Behaviour

Jones (1997) reviewed literature on what constitutes effective instructional coaching behaviour. In his review, Jones (1997) reports observations and findings of various studies that have been carried out to establish effective coaching practices. He points out that the core of any examination concerning effective coaching practice lies in the complex inter-relationship between the coach, athlete and the sport, and paramount within this structure is the interaction that exists between the three variables. Underpinning the rational approach to coaching is the belief that the ultimate goal of the process is competitive success, with the role of the coach being to attempt to control and manipulate the large number of variables that influence performance.

The role of communication in coaching effectiveness is emphasized. Verbal, non-verbal, body language and paralanguage are all important within the context of wider communication. The development of clear and realistic objectives coupled with interpersonal and interactive skills are additional behaviours generally acknowledged to facilitate achievement in others (Jones, 1997).

A further area acknowledged as critical in determining of organization and team success is that of leadership style and behaviour. This area has had a long tradition of research. The Managerial Grid, in which team management, incorporating the facilitation of high production and morale through an emphasis on quality performance, responsibility and effective interpersonal relations, is striven for (Jones, 1997).

Stewart and Carbin (1982) and Petruzello and Corbin (1988) emphasize the value and quality of feedback in determining effective teaching and coaching behaviour. Carreiro Da Costa and Pieron (1992), in qualitatively comparing the actions and behaviours of more and less effective teachers, found that the most effective teacher differed from the least effective one in terms of class time management related to practice time and duration of instruction, quality and appropriateness of feedback and the specificity of student motor engagement task. Effective coaching behaviours include frequently providing feedback incorporating numerous prompts, the provision of high levels of correction and re-instruction. Emphasis is also placed on the use of high levels of instructional behaviour and management of the training environment to achieve considerable order. "Good" coaching behaviours include much active practice, generous

use of praise and scolds, as long as the latter is accompanied by some specific re-instruction related to the problem and the reduction of unproductive and waiting time within the coaching session. In recommending the systematic usage of feedback through interaction to create a positive environment, it is concluded that effective instruction should include 1 to 2, feedback statements per minute and 2:1 or 3:1 ratio of positive to negative statements. Hence, "effective coaching must be whatever is done by coaches who get good results" (Locke, 1979:4). To at least partially answer this question there is need to find out in detail exactly what good coaches do, and to what extent they do it.

Jones (1997) reviewed the findings of other researchers on the question of what constitutes effective instructional coaching behaviour. Whereas no statistical back-up is included in the review, the study addressed only two variables: the importance of communication skills and leadership behaviour in coaching. However, this study is concerned with many variables relating to the professional preparation of Kenya's athletics coaches besides the two that were addressed by Jones (1997).

2.3.0 Coaching Knowledge

Arising from the diverse tasks involved in coaching and the many expectations associated with it, a coach must, above all other things, be professionally trained and knowledgeable in all aspects of the sport that he/she coaches (Dougherty & Bonanno, 1985; Frost et al., 1995). Since there is tremendous growth and expansion of knowledge in the field of sports, it is imperative that coaches also concentrate their attention on keeping abreast with any new information by being accessible to the latest reading materials and in-

service programmes by attending workshops, clinics, seminars and refresher courses (Beashel & Taylor, 1992; Wuest & Bucher 1995).

The pre-service and in-service courses, which must be facilitated and conducted by acknowledged experts, should acquaint the coach with the necessary knowledge on the foundations of coaching theory and technique, which shall include knowledge on sports kinesiology, psychological, physiological, sociology, health and safety aspects (Bull, 1991, Nebiolo, 1991). Under these broad areas of coaching knowledge, every coach must be adequately equipped with the relevant technical, tactical, managerial and interpersonal communication skills to lead his/her athlete to the desired goals (Bull, 1991; Nebiolo, 1991).

2.4.0 Drawbacks in Coaching

Since many responsibilities are associated with coaching, Bucher & Krotee (1993), Frost et.al. (1995) and Wuest & Bucher (1995) point out that those involved in the work inevitably face many drawbacks. Coaches are often placed under tremendous pressure to produce winning athletes and or teams and failure to live up to this expectation often leads to their being fired by employers (Wuest and Bucher, 1995). They also spend many hours on the various aspects associated with their basic roles such as preparing and conducting practices. In doing so, they often encounter interpersonal conflicts with some of their athletes and other interested persons and groups (Frost et. al., 1995)

2.5.0 Need for Trained Coaches

According to Milne (1991), training is a pre-requisite to certification. He, therefore, suggests that coaches be trained and given certificates on completing the training in which the following essential elements and competencies are emphasized: sports medicine, knowledge of human growth and development, psycho-social aspects of coaching, biophysics, theory and techniques of coaching, and practicum in coaching. These areas of knowledge are core to the functions and duties of coaches.

The professional preparation of coaches and their subsequent coaching work is crucial to the development of sport in any country (International Amateur Athletic Federation, 1995; Mills & Dunlevy, 1997). Every country concerned with sport must develop a well-organised pre-service and in-service coach education and certification programme. The certification programme should provide a standard curriculum, suitable course materials, qualified instructors, standardized evaluation procedures and adequate course duration including in-service training (Stewart & Sweet, 1992; Mills & Dunlevy, 1997). The necessity for coaches to acquire coaching knowledge is based on the premise that coaching involves a wide range of technical activities and responsibilities. Coaching, in general terms, involves teaching, instructing, training, motivating, counselling, advising, assessing and managing athletes (Thompson, 1991). Therefore, coaches must be well versed if they are to carry out their activities and responsibilities competently (Thompson, 1991; Bucher & Krotee, 1993; Wuest & Bucher, 1995).

Many countries have well-developed coaching certification programmes (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997). The certification programmes are coordinated by organizations that ensure that the criteria laid down for the certification of coaches in their respective countries are observed (Chu, 1984; Mills & Dunlevy, 1997). For instance, the United States of America has many public and private certification organizations whose basic objective is to educate America's potential coaches. In Britain, the National Coaching Foundation brings together all the coaching groups in the different sport disciplines and provides sponsorship for the coaching courses that it offers at various levels up to diploma qualification (Beashel & Taylor, 1992). The Germans have a coaching certification programme that has five levels; the lower levels are delivered outside a university structure and the top levels are presented as university level courses (Campbell, 1993). Countries such as Canada and China have also had strong certification programmes because of their early work to develop minimum standards for individuals involved in sport (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

Kavuma (1995) reports that Article 4 of the International Charter on Physical Education and Sports (1978) states that, "Teaching, coaching and administration of physical education and sport should be performed by qualified personnel". Section (1) of the same article states that, "All personnel who assume professional responsibility for physical education and sports must have appropriate qualifications and training. They must be carefully selected in sufficient numbers and given preliminary as well as further training to ensure that they reach adequate levels of specialization". Lopez (1986) recognizes coaching as an essential requirement of a top-level training programme to develop high

quality athletes. The quality of coaching and the athlete-coach relationship are the essential features in developing top-level athletes. Training of coaches is thus important in order to clearly emphasise to those who train as coaches, such essential knowledge and skills about what coaching is and what is expected of them for effective coaching outcomes.

Preparation of coaches enables society to know who to employ as a coach, since coaches operate at a defined level on which they are trained to operate. In this way, Wangemann and Glad (1992) suggest three-level certification structure viz-Basic Local courses (Level I), Intermediate course (Level II) and Advanced course (Level III). Those who attend the courses within their respective countries deal with local teams, clubs and junior teams and basic skills of sport are emphasized. The intermediate level focuses on coaches dealing with national calibre athletes. These coaches promote specialization and in-depth coverage of the sport. Level three deals with coaches that work with elite athletes at national and international levels. Such a hierarchical system enables continuous building of knowledge base on one another.

2.6.0 Coaches' Certification Programmes

Apart from the coaches' certification programme conducted by the IAAF, various countries have their homegrown programmes which conduct coaching courses and certify their potential athletics coaches. This section, therefore, highlights the IAAF Coaches Education and Certification System and the programmes offered in Canada and U.S.A.

2.6.1 IAAF Coaches' Certification Programme

The IAAF Coaches Education and Certification System provides a standard curriculum, course materials, trained lecturers and standardized evaluation procedures for the training of athletics coaches. The Coaches' Education and Certification System features three levels of courses plus opportunities for further education. Entry to the system is at level I, followed by level II and lastly, level III. Successful completion of all the three levels leads to the award of IAAF Diploma in coaching, granted with the authority of the world governing body for athletics.

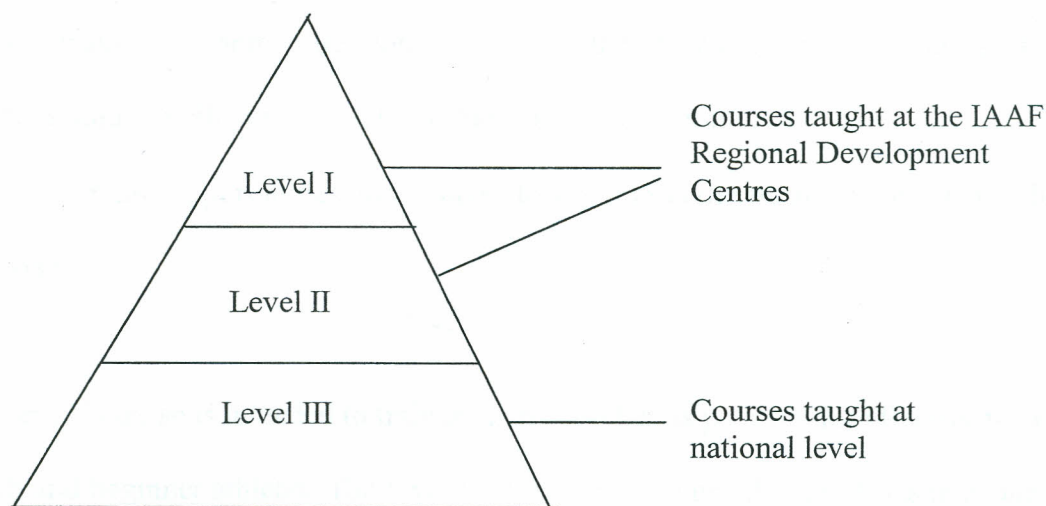


Figure 2: Levels of IAAF Coaches Education Certification System (Adapted from IAAF, 1995)

The goals and objectives of the IAAF Coaches Education Certification System are:

- ◆ To ensure that each country has sufficient coaches, qualified according to international standards, to enable its athletics programmes to function as effectively as possible,

- ◆ To ensure that each region, and in turn each country, is eventually capable of educating its own coaches to the same international standards without dependence on foreign lecturers,
- ◆ To provide knowledge and understanding of the theory and practice of athletics to coaches in order to equip them to provide opportunities for all athletes, regardless of age, sex or ability to reach the potential,
- ◆ To provide a standard curriculum with a worldwide application leading to a professional qualification for coaches,
- ◆ To make an appropriate contribution to the development of athletics in each community while respecting the values of that community,
- ◆ To increase opportunities for women to become certified and to work as athletics coaches.

The level I course is intended to train as many coaches as possible for effective work with youth and beginner athletes. The level I courses are conducted at locations in countries of the member federations, using IAAF accredited lecturers and standard course materials. Each course is expected to last 16 days. The course provides athletics events, and emphasizes the practical aspects of coaching. On completion of the course, the level I certified coach is expected to be able to introduce athletes to the rough form of each event covered on the course. The coach is also expected to apply the concept of long-term planning of training and implement effective training sessions.

Entry requirements for level II include a specified profile of achievement on level I examinations, completion of a minimum of one year of practical experience and nomination for the course by the coach's member federation. These courses are conducted at the IAAF Regional Development Centres, using IAAF accredited lecturers. The level II courses are designed to enable coaches specialize in any of the four fields of athletics: sprints and hurdles; middle, distance and race walking; jumps, and throws. The course contains coaching theory which is common in all events. On completion of level II course, a coach is expected to be able to identify and coach the basic competition model for each event within an event group. The coach is also expected to be able to plan and implement a training cycle within the context of a long term training plan.

The IAAF level III coaching courses are conducted at the IAAF Regional Development Centres. Entry to level III is open to coaches who have achieved a specified minimum achievement on the level II examinations, have completed further practical experience and have been nominated by their member federations. The level III course provides coaches with advanced level instruction in the event group they have chosen for the level II course. As with the level II, level III syllabus includes event specific elements and common coaching theory. Coaches who successfully complete the evaluation procedures of this course are awarded the IAAF Diploma in coaching, and will be expected to identify high level and advanced competition models for the specific event or events. They will also be expected to be able to plan and implement macro cycles of training for high level athletes within the context of a multi-year plan.

The content areas emphasized in the IAAF coaches education and certification system include coaching philosophy, anatomy and Physiology, biomechanics, growth and development, injuries and first aid, and organization and administration of athletics.

2.6.2 Canada's Coaches' Certification Programme

Thomson (2002) presents Canada's National Coaching Institutes (N.C.I.) and the various coaching programmes that they offer. Established in 1986 on the campus of the University of Victoria in British Columbia, the N.C.I. is now a network of eight coaching education institutes across the country. This expansion has generally been in line with the growth of National Sport Centres and an N.C.I. is usually at the site of one of the training facilities. The British Columbia N.C.I. however, was the "flagship" of a model which was in hindsight developed to provide a professional training programme for aspiring elite coaches in advance of the general levels 1-3 of the 3M National Coaching Certification Programme (3M N.C.C.P.). These programmes are developed and implemented by the Provincial Sport Organizations. The mission of the N.C.I. is to develop world-class professional coaches who are capable of preparing athletes for podium performances in sport and for outside sport.

The N.C.I. offers a nine-month residential or a two-year part-time coaching apprenticeship. The Institute puts together coach trainees in a coaching environment with a "Master" coach at their side to consult, and assist in applying classroom work in daily coaching activities. This is a unique opportunity to work with Canada's top sport scientists and elite coaches. The traditional N.C.I. (1986) role of the master coach acting

as the model coach, source of all knowledge and evaluator of the “apprentice” coach, is slowly changing to that of mentor. In this regard, the Canadian experience is still a “work in progress”. By definition, there are three types of mentoring: -

- Supervisory mentoring
- Informal mentoring
- Facilitated mentoring

The location of the N.C.I. full-time programme at the University of Victoria offers access to a respected faculty of sport scientists, many of them working in high performance sport and in an approved National Laboratory and Field Testing Facility. The National Sport Centre of Greater Vancouver enjoys a similar relationship in Vancouver where the N.C.I.-B.C. implements a two year part-time Diploma Programme. This partnership has resulted in the congregation of a number of national programmes and consequently, national coaches. Most of these elite coaches serve as “master” coaches in the N.C.I. programme and some of the graduates have become assistants in the national team programmes.

2.6.3 Coaches' Certification Programmes in the U.S.A

Mills and Dunlevy (1997) reviewed literature on the coaching certification and education programmes in the United States and compared them with those in some countries in North America, Europe and Asia. In their review, they noted that there were many bodies across the United States that provide credentials/certification in sport. There are certification programmes run by public and private organizations. The basic premise behind these organizations is to educate America's coaches, from the youth sports level to

the high school level. However, the various certifying bodies that train or educate potential coaches have different ideas about how best to educate the potential coach. The three certification organizations explored in the review of Mills and Dunlevy included the National Youth Sport Coaches Association (NYSCA), Programme for Athletic Coaches Education (PACE) and American Sport Education Programme (ASEP) formerly known as the American Coaching Effectiveness Programme (ACEP) (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

The National Youth Sport Coaches Association (NYSCA) has been a proven front-runner in the development of a national training system for volunteer youth sports coaches in the United States. In 1992 NYSCA had almost 450,000 coaches who participated in the three-year, three-level programme to qualify for membership and certification. Other programmes have comparable numbers of individuals participating in similar programmes across the country. The NYSCA programme tries to help volunteer coaches to understand the important psychological, physical and emotional impact they have on children who participate in organized sports. The programme stresses the importance of safety to the coaches by showing them how to prevent injuries and administer first aid (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

The main focus of the first year of the NYSCA programme is to inform the coaches on the subject of maximizing athletic performance in order to help coaches understand how strength development, flexibility, and nutrition can enhance an athlete's performance, particularly as they grow older and become more serious about athletic competition. The coaches are informed on how to conduct an effective practice session and teach proper

techniques of the particular sport. The volunteer coaches, in the first year, participate in a six-hour workshop using videos and experts from several disciplines in sport psychology, sports medicine and exercise physiology to emphasize that sports for children should be developmental and be void of the pressure to "win at all costs" . In order for the coaches to complete year one, and years two and three, they must pass an examination and sign the NYSCA National Coach's Code of Ethics Pledge. For coaches to maintain their membership status and continue to be considered "certified", they must attend the programmes for the second and third years (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

The second year of the programme is aimed at helping the coaches to understand the different physical and psychological characteristics of children from ages 6 to 12 and develop strategies for dealing with the parents of the young athletes. The third year of the programme includes a segment on the mechanics of sport skills so that coaches can effectively help athletes to learn and practice skills such as running, catching, throwing, striking and kicking. After completing all three years of the course, the coach must then take a comprehensive examination based on the entire programme (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

The NYSCA is a good organization for coaches who are getting started at the youth level and may have aspirations of coaching at the high school level. However, if the coaches decide that they do not aspire go a higher level of coaching, the certification of these coaches becomes far too simple. For these coaches to be considered certified after they

pass the third year examination and the comprehensive examination, they need only to sign the NYSCA's National Coach's Code of Ethics Pledge.

It is too dangerous to allow persons to coach young athletes if they are not informed on how to deal with first aid or parents of the young athletes. For this reason, the Programme for Athletic Coaches Education (PACE) and the American Sport Education Programme (ASEP) are natural extensions of NYSCA's basic coaching instruction. The Programme for Athletic Coaches Education (PACE) is a branch of the Institute for the Study of Youth Sports, located at Michigan State University. It was started in 1978, and began operation due to state legislature. The state legislature mandated that the Institute for the Study of Youth Sports examines three objectives. These were: a) conducting research pertaining to the beneficial and detrimental effects of sports on children and youth; b) providing educational materials for coaches, administrators, officials, parents, and athletes; c) promoting the education of its clients through workshops, clinics, and courses. Throughout the first couple of years, the individuals in charge of the institute for the Study of Youth Sports had first-hand knowledge of the problems coaches face concerning the educational materials. Hence, after eight years, the Institute for the Study of Youth Sport developed written materials and oral presentations that were sports specific (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

The Youth Sports Coaches Achievement Programme was an educational programme delivered in a 12-hour format over four evenings. This programme was the forerunner of the Programme for Athletic Coaches Education (PACE). The PACE programme was

initiated in response to incredibly low turnout for the Youth Sports Coaches Achievement Programme. Attendance in 1987-88 (first year) averaged 20 enrollees per site, far short of the anticipated numbers of non-faculty coaches expected to attend. As a result, the course content and promotion of the course were reviewed. The course content was redefined to address the specific needs of interscholastic coaches. The basic manual was rewritten to conform to the recommendations of the Joint Committee on Coaching Certification. The Programme for Athletic Coaches Education (PACE) was adopted as the official name of the programme and much of the responsibility for promotion of PACE was given to the respective school districts. The redesign of the coaches' education programme brought immediate results: average attendance increased to 45 per class; athletic directors began budgeting for their coaches' education; several school districts enacted policies that required all subsequently hired coaches to complete the PACE class, and colleges and universities began offering PACE within certification requirements (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

The materials used for the PACE programme consist of the PACE Reference Manual and the PACE supplement materials. The writing committee for the PACE instructional materials translated the most current information into practical, user-friendly information into concepts, procedures, and explanations designed to enhance coaches' competencies. These materials were of great help to individuals who could take time away from their respective positions to attend the programme. However, many individuals could not set aside the amount of time necessary. This prompted the PACE developers to design

coursework that could be conducted away from the classroom setting (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

Although there was greater independence for individuals to fulfil the course requirements at their own pace, another concern was revealed, that is, the certification of PACE instructors. It was discovered that course instructors were having difficulty in completing the courses that they were teaching. In 1991, a 26-hour course provided instructors with information on how to use the various teaching styles in conjunction with PACE materials). (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

As with most programmes, PACE has gone through some growing stages. The developers of PACE have been refining content while creating ways to make PACE available via electronic technology, including interactive video. Currently, the PACE delivery system is designed to increase learner involvement. However, the rate of learner progress is still a determined system by an externally imposed schedule implemented by an instructor in a classroom setting (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

Another programme that has both the education of the coach and the benefits to the athlete is American Sport Education Programme (ASEP) (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997). It is designed to provide leadership in the area of coaching effectiveness. Since its inception in 1976, the American Sport Education Programme. (ASEP) has been working to increase the national awareness regarding the importance of coaching education. ASEP has developed a strong effective instructional method-the three-phase approach: a) Clinic

phase. The objective of this phase is not to profess everything the coaches need to know; rather, it is to raise the coaches' awareness of their need for the information. b) Self-study. Studying the course textbook using individual pace, lowering learner anxiety, and promoting lasting retention of the coaching concept. c) Self-test. Although valuable as an assessment tool, the self-test primarily enhances learning by requiring coaches to recall and apply learned principles (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

Along with the three-phase approach to learning, ASEP has also developed three different levels of instruction for coaches. These are the volunteer level, leader level, and the master level. These levels are designed to be specific to the coaching level the coach deals with. An example, the volunteer level deals primarily with volunteer coaches and some junior high-level coaches. The master level pertains more to college level coaches or the individual who is pursuing coaching as a profession. ASEP wanted to establish coaching principles like motivation and management, and has been able to redefine coaching education in a more comprehensive scope. Through ASEP, coaches learn how to teach skills and strategies, build programmes, plan effectively for their season, and prepare athletes for competition. ASEP's comprehensive approach to coaching education allows the continuation of teaching coaches the critical general principles, and how to apply these principles to their specific sport (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

Mills and Dunlevy (1997) reviewed literature in which they compared the National Association for Sports and Physical Education (NASPE) programme of the United States and other countries of the world. They reported that many countries around the world

have developed and maintained their own national coaching standards for years. Countries such as Canada, China, and England have strong programmes for athletes because of their early work to develop minimum standards for individuals involved in athletics. The NASPE programme is set up very similarly to those of other countries around the world. The European programmes are set up on a three to five level instruction compared to other countries around the world. The European programmes are set up on a three to five-level programme like the PACE and ASEP programmes. For example, the German programme is a five level programme and the ACEP programme is a three-level programme. The lower levels are delivered outside a university structure and the top levels are presented as a university level course. Almost all programmes deal with a code of ethics and three main areas of training. The three main areas of training deal with sport-specific knowledge, performance related core knowledge, and practical experience. The balance of these three aspects and the relative importance placed on the particular needs of the sport and the level at which the coach operates are critical. As with the American programmes, the ones established in other countries require a minimum amount of time spent at each level in order to continue progressing. In England, as in other countries, including the United States, there are numerous ways to deliver programmes to individuals. The United Kingdom has four components:

- a) Coaching Studies Workshops
- b) Coaching Studies Projects
- c) Foundation Supporting Studies; and
- d) Elective Supporting Studies

The review of Mills and Dunlevy (1997) showed that it appears that there are many similarities between programmes established in the United States and other countries around the world. The main difference between many of the programmes concerns how the subject is viewed in various countries. In the United States, athletes are viewed as incredible individuals, along with the coaches who guide these athletes through their respective sports. However, in many Eastern block countries, athletes and coaches are treated like diplomats. They receive funding from the government and many other benefits, such as room and board, transportation, and expenses. In England, there is a long tradition of amateurism. Many of the individuals who participated in sports were upper or middle class individuals. The coaches were mainly working class people who were paid by the individuals who played the sports. According to Mills and Dunlevy (1997), who the coaching education will be delivered to is a big area which needs to be looked at when developing standards. It is important to understand that a national coach education strategy is largely determined by the culture, politics, and traditions of the nation concerned.

In 1995, the United States National Association for Sports and Physical Education (NASPE), with the help of other organizations, developed a set of standards. The National Standards for Athletics coaches are the result of a consensus project facilitated by NASPE. The purpose of these standards was to provide direction for administrators, coaches, athletes, and the public regarding the skills and knowledge that coaches should possess. The NASPE standards are similar to those of many of the other programmes such as PACE, ASEP or NYSCA. National Standards for Athletics Coaches (1995) were set up in a five-level programme that consists of 37 standards grouped into eight domains

and appropriate competencies that help to determine the meaning of each domain. The eight domains of the National Standards for Athletics Coaches (1995) include:

- a.) Injuries: prevention, care, and management
- b.) Risk management
- c.) Growth, development and learning
- d.) Training, conditioning and learning
- e.) Social/psychological aspects of coaching
- f.) Skills, tactics, and strategies
- g.) Teaching and administration
- h.) Professional preparation and development

To provide a progression of qualifications, the competencies associated with the standards were divided into five levels with each domain represented at each level. The first level is seen as the introductory, or beginner level. This level represents the minimum entry level qualification for any individual who begins to coach. According to individuals who developed the standards, the standards were viewed as a means whereby additional individuals especially women and minorities will be encouraged to enter the ranks of coaching. Rather than be exclusive, these competencies should encourage individuals, particularly at the volunteer level, to aspire to the qualifications that are appropriate for coaching athletes at various levels of achievement (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

According to Mills and Dunlevy (1997), NASPE as an organization expects that the standards that it has developed should be used as a guide for the recreation departments or programme directors in the selection of coaches for their respective athletic teams. NASPE however, points out that these standards are not intended to be a certification programme or be the basis of a single national assessment for all coaches. The standards are put forth to help organizations and agencies who currently certify coaches, provide coach education training, evaluate/select coaches, and/or design programmes to meet the needs of perspective and practising coaches.

The need for colleges and universities to offer courses in coaching and provide an advanced degree based on the guidelines set forth by various national organizations in the United States has also been an area of focus. The ability of coaches to continue their education beyond a five-level certification programme is essential. The United States Sports Academy therefore, has offered a masters degree in sports coaching for over 20 years. The graduate-level degree in sport coaching requires the completion of 60 quarter hours and has 11 required courses in the area of: coaching methodology, care of injuries, conditioning, sport psychology, research, drug education, sport sociology, biomechanics, marketing, sport law, and administration/finance (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

The United States Sports Academy also offers an advanced certification in sports coaching that has six required courses in the area of coaching methodology, conditioning, sport psychology, public relations, and the administration/finance. This certification has been delivered in over 40 countries to date. In addition, these courses

can be completed through the distance learning delivery method. The need for quality degree programmes in coaching is evident from the research. Colleges and universities need to play a vital role in the delivery of quality programmes and make efforts to collaborate with other national and international sports organizations (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

The Sport Science and Fitness Studies Division at Endicott College has a Coaching Certification programme that provides students with coaching knowledge and practical experience (Dean- Sports Science and Fitness Studies Division, 2003). The programme adheres to the requirements and guidelines of the American NASPE. The certification programme emphasizes care and prevention of injury, principles associated with coaching, basic nutritional guidelines, personal health issues, sports medicine and sports role in society. Specific sports coaching workshops are held to assist in the development of practice organization, coaching techniques and strategies. In addition, students undergo a monitored practicum during which they should demonstrate competence in planning, implementing and evaluating athletic practices and contests.

2.7.0 Related Studies

2.7.1 Coaches' Profiles, Certification and Role Performance

Kavuma (1995) carried out a study on the profiles, certification and role performance of athletics coaches in Uganda. A questionnaire was used to collect data. The study showed that there were more male coaches, (14; 77.8%) than female coaches, (4; 22.8%). Out of the 18 coaches, (14; 78%) were full-time teachers, the least number, (2; 11%) were

district sports officers, and only 2 (11%) were full-time professional coaches. Most of the Ugandan coaches had professional experience of less than two years. Uganda's coaches were rated significantly below the International Association of Athletics Federations level 1 coaches' certificate course. A majority of the coaches, (14;78%), were found to have the minimum general educational qualification recommended by the International Association of Athletics Federations, that is, the 'O' level certificate. A significant number of Uganda's coaches, (14; 78%), were schoolteachers and only 2(11%) were full-time coaches. Many of the coaches, (21; 41%), were noted to be engaged in coaching of the running events; 20(34 %) coaching of jumps, and throws were given less attention, (15; 15%). The responses received in the study indicated that not all the necessary equipment and facilities were available to the coaches.

According to Kavuma (1995), the main tasks performed by Uganda's athletics coaches included designing training programmes, effecting training sessions, assisting other coaches and creating competition programmes. The remuneration for Uganda's coaches was generally very low. Most of the coaches attributed their inadequacy to too short duration of the coach education courses they had attended. A majority of the trained coaches asserted that courses organized locally were very few. A large number of them indicated that they lacked exposure to the international events, and this retarded their progress as they lacked comparisons with international standards.

Jones (1992) carried out a study which focused on analysing the background, certification process and personal role perceptions of thirty-six English Football Association

preliminary certified coaches. The coaches provided responses to a questionnaire containing both specific and open-ended questions. These data were gathered over a two-year period.

The results of the study by Jones (1992) showed that the thirty-six English football coaches ranged from 19 to 54 years of age ($x = 27.5$ years). While all the coaches had the Football Association Preliminary Coaches Award, 8(22.22%) coaches had other football certification including further football Association Awards, and United States Soccer Federation and National Coaches Association of America Licenses. The coaches had from 1 to 28 years of Football Association Preliminary certified coaching experience ($x = 6.1$ years), while only 9(25.00%) coaches had experience of coaching either primary (3) or secondary school (6) children. According to the data, almost two-thirds of the coaches 23(63.89%) had experience of teaching both age groups. Only half i.e., 18(50.00%) of the coaches had experienced instructing post-secondary/adult players, and even fewer, (7; 19.44%) reported having college player coaching experience. All the study coaches, or 36(100%) had permanent occupations to return to: a quarter of the coaches 9(25.00%) were recreational/activity organizers; another quarter of the coaches, (9; 25.00%) occupied "other" occupations (such as postman, baker and computer operators); there were 8(22.2%) schoolteachers; 6(16.67%) full-time coaches; and 4(11.11%) coaches were attending college. Based on frequency of responses, the coaches perceived communication (13; 36.5%) and management (9; 25.6%) skills as the most important criteria of practical football coaching ability. In terms of the length of time it took to complete a Football Association Preliminary course, there were 10 variations in

the time-lines; the shortest being 5 days of full-time attendance within a week, and the longest lasted 10 sessions over a ten-week period.

The study by Jones (1992) was carried out in America. It focused on collecting data related to the background, certification process and roles of English football coaches. The sample size that was used in the study was very small. In addition, the coaches' training and professional needs and problems were not included in the study.

Mills and Dunlevy (1997) reviewed existing coaching certification and education programmes in the United States and compared them with those of other countries in Europe and Asia. They noted that there are many public and private coaching certification programmes across the United States whose main objective is to educate America's coaches from the elementary level to elite level. The certification programmes were developed because most of the states of the United States of America require certification for people involved in coaching. With the many coaches' certification bodies in the United States, there have not been uniform standards for the preparation and training of potential sport coaches. However, the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) has gone ahead and developed a set of national standards for athletics coaches. The purpose of the standards is to provide direction for administrators, coaches, athletes and the public regarding the skills and knowledge that coaches should possess. The eight domains of the national standards for athletics coaches as specified by the (NASPE) include: injury prevention, care and management; risk management; growth, development and learning; training, conditioning and learning,

social/psychological aspects of coaching; skills, tactics and strategies, teaching and administration, and professional preparation and development. To provide a progression of qualifications, the competencies associated with the standards are divided into five levels with each domain represented at each level. As it is in America, programmes established in other countries require a minimum amount of time spent at each level in order to continue progressing. Campbell as quoted by Mills and Dunlevy (1997), points out that England has four major components in its certification programme, which emphasize coaching and elective supporting studies. Mills and Dunlevy (1997) concluded their study by emphasizing that there is need for colleges and universities to play a vital role in the delivery of quality coaches' certification programmes and make efforts to collaborate with other national and international organizations in sport.

The study by Mills and Dunlevy (1997) is a review of the literature, which provides secondary information on coaching, certification and education programmes in the United States. The study does not address other coaching variables such as coaches' needs and problems. The study at hand therefore collected data from the athletics coaches and managers to establish the certification process, coaching behaviour, needs and problems of Kenyan athletics coaches.

The study by Nsengiyunva (1997) focused on surveying coach education programmes in selected national sports associations in Uganda. A questionnaire was used for data collection. The findings of the study showed that majority of the national sports associations in Uganda, (11; 91.67%) offered national type of coach education. The

duration of the courses was very short, lasting only one or two weeks. The findings also indicated that coach-training programmes were conducted periodically, that is, annually, biannually and quarterly, (12; 100%). The ordinary level of education was the minimum education requirement for selection to any coaching courses. More men, i.e., 9(75%) took part in the courses than women, (3; 25%). Candidates with interest and long-term involvement in sports and with teaching skills were preferred for selection to train as coaches. The sources of finance for the courses included international federations, government, indirect solicitation, donations/fund-raisings and personal sponsorships.

The areas of emphasis in the coaches' education programmes in Nsengiyunva's (1997) study included officiating, (12; 100%), designing training plans, strategies and theory of coaching and administration, (11; 91.67%). There was less emphasis on the areas of kinesiology/ biomechanics, (2; 25%), growth and development, (4; 33.33%) and psychology of sport/coaching, (4; 33.33%). The major problems faced by national sports associations in conducting coach-training programmes are financial and lack of adequate/necessary equipment and facilities.

Nsengiyunva (1997) concentrated his study on Ugandan coaches in the various sports disciplines. However, the present study was concerned specifically with Kenya's athletics coaches. In addition, the current study went beyond addressing the coaches' certification processes by also investigating their training, needs and problems.

Chen and Wu (2001) studied selected characteristics of Division I boys' Junior- High School basketball coaches in Taiwan. The purpose of their study was to examine the demographic characteristics and coaches' qualification in coach education.

Out of the target population of 16 coaches, 11 of them filled in the survey questionnaire. The questionnaire used in the study was developed by Polmer (1997) with slight modification based on the need for adaptation to cultural specificity. The principal researcher and assistant personally administered the questionnaire. Out of the 11 coaches who participated in the study, only one was a woman. Their ages ranged from 24 to 57 years, with mean age of 32.7 years. The average coaching experience was 7.0 years. Nine of the eleven coaches had a baccalaureate degree, one had associate degree, and one possessed only a high school diploma. Five of the nine coaches graduated from the National Normal University. Overall, two coaches graduated with a degree in Physical Education, with seven taking Physical Education courses during the study or as a minor. Six of the eleven coaches had participated in intercollegiate athletics before playing for the college basketball team. Six of the eleven coaches indicated that they coached boys' teams while the other five coached both boys' and girls' teams.

Five coaches in the study by Chen and Wu (2001) indicated that the Bureau of Education of the countries or cities required coaches to be certified. However, out of the five coaches, only one had the required coaching certificate. Either the Chinese Taipei Basketball Coaching Association or the Municipal Bureau of Education certified three of the coaches. Seven of the coaches taught at the school where they coached with four

coaches hired out of the campus. Of these four, only one was paid for his coaching duties. Only one faculty coach was paid for coaching. This means that only 2(18.18%) out of the eleven coaches were remunerated for their coaching duties. Despite this fact, coaches were willing to volunteer due to their personal interest in Basketball. Among the eleven coaches, seven had attended one or two-day coaching clinic the previous year. However, in terms of a comprehensive coaching course that includes instruction in sport-psychology, injury prevention, and health education, only five of the coaches had not attended a comprehensive coaching course, four of them stated that they did not have any information or access regarding that type of course.

One of the recommendations of the study by Chen and Wu (2001) was that since there was only one female basketball coach, there was need to have more female coaches in the sport. In view of the small number of coaches who had undergone comprehensive coaching course, it was recommended that the Bureau of Education in Taiwan should come up with a strong certification programme to enhance the quality of its sports coaches. Since nearly 82% of the subject coaches were working on a volunteer-basis and nearly half of them coach both boys and girls' teams at the same time, there was need to establish a method of rewarding or reimbursing them. There was also need to hold more coaching courses in Taiwan.

The study by Chen and Wu (2001) was conducted in Taiwan and involved basketball coaches. However the present study was based in Kenya and addressed the professional preparation of athletics coaches in the country.

O'Conner (2002) reviewed literature on concepts that enhance a coach's effectiveness and provide a smooth transition from elite player to elite coach in Australia. The review noted that knowledge is a very motivating force and an essential ingredient for successful coaching at any level. Athletes expect their coaches to be up to the mark with modern coaching techniques, sports specific information and safety conditions. It is therefore suggested that the artistry of the most successful coaches should be incorporated into coach education programmes. The review also highlighted that winning is one of the aspects of successful coaching. However, a successful coach was much more than a winning coach. Successful coaches are those who are not only familiar with the techniques and skills of their sport but also know how to effectively teach skills and strategies to athletes. A good coach is self-directed, passionate, and has strengths in areas of planning, organizing, communicating, giving responsibilities, handling problems, maintaining pressure, analyzing of opposition, building of team spirit and looking forward to excellence. An ideal coach should therefore, be knowledgeable, diligent and willing to learn, prepared to listen and flexible, consistent and honest.

The review paper by O'Conner (2002) also pointed out that many elite players were being recruited into professional coaching roles specifically in rugby and rugby union in Australia. Hence, the knowledge of their sports skills and tactics, their ability to "read the game" and their first-hand experience at competing at elite level formed the foundation of their coaching. However, their playing ability did not necessarily translate into coaching aptitude. Putting their knowledge and experience into action required them to use an effective mix of organizational skills, teaching strategies, communication skills and

planning practices. Hence, mastery of the concepts of planning, organization, time management, effective instruction, communication, effective feedback to athletes and analysis of coaching sessions was necessary to allow for a smooth transition from an elite player to an elite coach.

Nash (2002) conducted a study in which the views of coaches from the USA and Scotland were compared on whether a variety of coach education programmes fulfilled their needs. A questionnaire was administered to soccer coaches (n=142), from both USA and Scotland, who had completed a coach education course in their relevant countries. Background information to determine their coaching profile was gathered, including coaching commitment, type of programme, level of education, age and sex. The completed questionnaires were analysed to ascertain any difference between groups of coaches. To gain more detailed exchange of information and to allow more flexibility coaches were randomly selected (n=6) to participate in a semi-structured interview. All questions related to the aspects of coaching were concerned with the ease of implementation of new information within their coaching situation.

Similarities in the coaching profile between the groups of coaches were shown in the study by Nash (2002) despite the difference in the perceived status of coaching and the sport of soccer in the USA and Scotland. It appeared that both groups of coaches found the coach education courses to be both informative and enjoyable with the presentation formats generally appropriate to the situation. Coaches reported that the emphasis of these courses was on the scientific aspects of coaching; new training methods and recent

innovations in tactics and techniques. The coaches found the content interesting but not always able to be utilized within their coaching environment as the course tended to focus on the ideal situation which some coaches felt had little basis in reality. When asked to identify the skills necessary for effective coaching, the majority of coaches were in agreement. However, it was interesting to note that the skills that the coaches identified as necessary were also not felt to be included within the coach education courses that had been attended. There was a distinct difference in understanding of the term the “coaching processes” between the group of coaches from USA and those from Scotland but was explained by different terminologies in both countries.

2.7.2 Leadership Behaviour of Coaches

Swartz, as reported by Straub (1980) analyzed leadership styles of college level head football coaches from five mid-western states in USA. The researcher compared four types of leadership: *Laissez-faire*, democratic-co-operative, autocratic-submissive, and autocratic-aggressive. The subjects were 72 collegiate coaches in five mid-western states. He classified the coaches into successful and unsuccessful (won-lost record over 50 per cent). The study concluded that successful and unsuccessful coaches employ basically the same leadership styles. The leadership style(s) applied varies with every situation. However, the democratic style of leadership was utilized most.

Whereas the study by Swartz was conducted in the USA, the current study was carried out in Kenya. In addition to analyzing the leadership styles of Kenya's athletics coaches, the study investigated the certification processes, other coaching behaviour, needs and problems of Kenya's athletics coaches.

Jowett and Gale (2002) carried out a study in which they examined the nature of the coach-athlete relationship in athletics. More specifically, they focused on whether a combination of the constructs of closeness, commitment and complementarity varies as a function of coaches' and athletes' role and longevity of the athletics relationship. The participants were 34 athletes and 19 coaches all of whom participated in athletics at national level. The longevity of relationship for the sample varied from 6 months to 9 years. Specifically, 17 athletes and 12 coaches had a newly developed relationship ranging from 6 months to 3 years and 17 athletes and 7 coaches had an established relationship ranging from 4 to 9 years. All participants were asked to respond to the 11-item Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire. Preliminary analyses showed acceptable internal reliabilities ($\alpha > .70$) and clear three-component structure for the variables under study. In the main analyses, a 2x2 (coaches versus athletes x newly versus established relationships) multivariate analysis of variance for the constructs of closeness, commitment and complementarity on the role and longevity of relationship showed significant main effects but not interactive effects. In terms of role (Pillai's criterion = 0.341; $F_{(3,47)} = 8.12$, $p < 0.000$), univariate analyses showed that coaches perceived a more committed athletic relationship. In terms of longevity of relationship (Pillai's criterion = 0.143; $F_{(3,47)} = 2.263$, $p = 0.061$), univariate analyses showed that individuals experienced

more commitment in established relationships. The pattern of results obtained indicated that the coaches (as opposed to athletes) and established (as opposed to newly developed) coach-athlete relationships are more likely to experience the relational aspect of commitment. Overall, the findings suggested that commitment is an important variable in the coach-athlete relationship and is based on coaches and athletes' previous experiences with one another.

Johnson and Jowett (2002) conducted a study whose main purpose was to examine gender differences in coach-leader behaviour preferences among university level of athletes in a variety of team sports in Britain. Forty-four male and twenty-three female British university level players from Football (N=26), Rugby Union (N=16) and Hockey (N=25) participated in the study. The mean age of the players was 20 years (SD=2). The study employed the preference version of the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The LSS consisted of 40 items. The items were preceded by the statement "I prefer my coach to..." and measured five dimensions of leader behaviour, namely, training and instruction, democratic behaviour, autocratic behaviour, social support and positive feedback. A 5-point likert scale that ranged from "Never" (1) to "Always" (5) was used. The LSS has acceptable reliability and validity properties and preliminary analyses showed acceptable internal reliabilities ($\alpha > .69$) for the five LSS dimensions.

A multivariate analysis of variance was performed in the study conducted by Johnson and Jowett (2002). The independent variables measured were gender and sport types and the

dependent variables were the five LSS dimensions of preferred leadership behaviour. Analysis showed significant differences for gender (Wilks' Lambda = 0.771; $F_{(5,57)}=1.63$, $p=0.010$) as opposed to sport type (Wilks' Lambda 0.776, $F_{(10,114)} = 3.39$, $p=0.108$). Univariate analyses of gender with the five LSS dimensions indicated a significant difference between gender on training and instruction ($F_{(1,67)}= 11.22$, $p=0.001$) and positive feedback ($F_{(1,67)} = 4.41$, $p=0.040$). More specifically results suggested that males preferred their coaches to provide more training and instruction ($M=4.00$, $SD=0.45$) and positive feedback ($M=4.25$ $SD =0.44$) than their female counterparts ($M=3.63$, $SD =0.41$; $M=3.97$, $SD=0.61$). The results of the study were consistent with previous research that has documented that males prefer and perceive their coaches to be more autocratic, whereas females prefer and perceive their coaches to be more democratic. It found that males indicated a preference for more positive feedback from the coaches than female athletes did either because male athletes received less positive feedback from their coaches or because their morale or motivation was low when the study was conducted. Hence, the conclusion of the study was that gender is an important determinant of coach leadership behaviour in team sports.

Jones *et. al.*, (2002) analysed the sociological insights into elite coaching. The purpose of the study was to demonstrate how lives, social and cultural contexts, personal experiences and philosophies as well as professional practice are all interconnected in ways which challenge traditional perceptions of the coaching process. According to them, the specific aim was to enable readers to understand the top-level coaches as individuals, relate their life stories to their philosophies on sport and coaching, and "see why they coach as they

do". The argument presented in the study was that it is not only technical and tactical knowledge that lay at the heart of instructional process in professional top-level sport but, also, "the personal relationship between coach (instructor) and athlete (student) which develops over matters of content.

The project conducted by Jones et. al., (2002) was centred around critical analysis of the life stories of eight practising top-level coaches, who operated at the very apex of their sport. The purpose of the interviews was to examine the coaches' attitudes, opinions, beliefs and values in respect of their coaching in particular and coaching effectiveness in general. The aim was not to search for universal truths regarding coaching or to generalize these accounts into what coaches should do, but to enable the reader to understand these coaches and their philosophies and then generalize them into the context of their own practice and wider lives. The data were then critically examined in an attempt to link theory with practice in the context of the coaches' stories and to illustrate the multi-faceted and interconnected nature of coaching as a profession. The specific areas addressed within the analysis were coaching pedagogy, coaches' roles, coaches' interactions and coaches' power.

One of the most clearly illustrated themes to emerge in the study by Jones at.al., (2002) was the belief in working with players and athletes to get the best out of them. This related to the need to know athletes as individuals and to view the world from their perspective. Additionally, although desiring a 'special' positive relationship with their athletes, many of the coaches also believed in the requirement to remain 'one-step away'

from them, thus respecting and using authoritative coaching role as a resource to direct and organize. Although the need for 'flexibility' was a recurrent theme for the coaches, it was also apparent that their ability to handle complex decisions remained subject to certain cognitive and social limitations. The coaches, however seemed aware of such limitations and were in a constant process of exploring and re-defining them. Hence, a very focused and reflective individual was seen to emerge. The findings also suggested that the pedagogical process of a practitioner are built from experimental knowledge and are linked to strong beliefs about a coach's 'role'. In this respect, it appears that the coaches needed to fulfil the expectations of their athletes as a first step in gaining their all-important 'respect'. To fulfil these demands they consciously attempted to present an idealized image of themselves to their athletes. Examining the findings at another analytical level, it could be argued that the dialectic of the coach's role and player expectation, and the need to be flexible within that framework, characterized the influence of both structure and agency on the coaches' working philosophies. This dialectic has implications for coach educators, more so in that more attention needs to be paid to the structural constraints on coaches, on role fulfilment and consequent knowledge generation. Coaches need to become more aware of the socialization processes acting upon them, so that they can become increasingly active in "role-using" as opposed to merely "role playing" while the flexibility demanded throws doubt on the rationality of current coach education programmes.

2.7.3 Problems of Coaches

Jonas (1983) reviewed the administrator's role in the teacher/coach role conflict. According to Locke and Massengale (1978), as reported by Jonas (1983), role conflict is used to describe problem situations in which there are multiple role obligations and situations in which a person occupies a single role for which different individuals expect incompatible behaviours. The teacher/coach experiences such a role conflict in attempting to fulfil the dual roles of teacher and coach. The unique occupational role in which the teacher/coach is placed subjects that individual to two or more contradictory role expectations whose stipulations a person cannot simultaneously meet in behaviour. The teacher-coach is caught in the midst of a complex situation and as a result experiences a great deal of conflict and strain in trying to deal with the situation. Such role conflict is apparent at both the high school and college levels.

According to Jonas (1983) school administrators, principals, department heads and the like, often assign individuals with responsibilities in both teaching and coaching without clearly defining the role expectations of either position. When the two occupational roles are linked together, the pressure to win may cause the teacher/coach to make a larger commitment to the coaching role, even at considerable cost of the fulfilling of the responsibilities of the teaching role. Unfortunately, most of the time administrators may undoubtedly prefer competent performance in all the roles the teacher/coach assumes. However, the same administrators must realize that they are in important leadership positions to help reduce the role conflict that so many teacher-coaches face. They must encourage the teacher/coach to make a commitment to teach and must expect them to achieve in teaching just as they do in coaching.

To get teacher-coaches committed to their teaching responsibilities, administrators must establish a rewards system for the teacher-coach in recognition of his/her teaching efforts (Jonas, 1983). Administrators must create an atmosphere that makes the teacher/coach feel that his/her teaching is of importance. Opportunities for advancement, increased responsibility and more challenging teaching situations must be fostered. Administrators must increase their public relations efforts to help build public support for the teacher, as well as for the coach. Public recognition of teaching performance, as well as public recognition of the problem of the teacher/coach will do much to help create a more challenging and rewarding working environment for the teacher/coach. Administrative leadership in this area will allow teacher/coaches to attend to both their teaching and coaching responsibilities, where role bargaining and fear are reduced, if not eliminated.

The other area in which the administrators can help reduce teacher/coach conflict according to Jonas (1997) is in the hiring process in which he/she ensures that a qualified teacher and coach is found. When such a candidate is selected, he/she should be thoroughly informed about their teaching and coaching responsibilities so that they know exactly what is expected of them. Evaluation of the teacher/coach is also an important administrative tool that can be used to reduce teacher/coach role conflict. Information obtained through an evaluation can help the administrator to direct the teacher/coach, so that teacher/coach role conflict is reduced.

The teacher-coach role conflict which is the centre of focus in the study by Jonas (1983) is only one of other problems faced by coaches who also carry out teaching roles.

However, the current study was designed to establish the certification of athletics coaches in Kenya and the nature of problems they face regardless of their other occupations.

Digel (2001) conducted a survey research in which he analysed the sociological situations of German coaches. A total of 111 questionnaires were used, with a return rate of 79(68.50%). Out of all the coaches involved in the study, 68(89.5%) of them were men and 8(10.5%) women. A majority of them 68(90%) held a university or technical college degree. The findings of the study indicated that 38(50%) of the coaches agreed that the payment they received for their job as coaches was either inadequate or totally inadequate. 33(42.8%) of the coaches indicated that they were either very dissatisfied or dissatisfied with the social security that was provided by their respective sports organizations. The frequency of the coaches' responses showed that the main problems faced by the German coaches included low remuneration, (38; 50%), lack of adequate free time to spend with their families, 64(84%), lack of frequent in-service courses, (73; 84%), and absence of coaches' union to enable them cooperate in articulating their interests, needs and problems, (55; 71.6%).

Arising from the findings of the study by Digel (2001) several recommendations were made. There was need for frequent vocational training not only in the areas of coaching but also in the fields of marketing/rehabilitation, staff management and electronic data processing. The establishment of a coaches' association or union was seen as an important step towards helping the coaches to lobby for professional support with respect to the every-day problems they faced in employment and in their search for employment.

An advertisement strategy in favour of the coaching profession was also necessary as a way of making talented young people aware of the profession so that they could be recruited for future instructional tasks in the realm of high-performance sport.

2.8.0 Summary of Literature Review

It is evident from the reviewed literature that athletics coaches play important roles of enhancing the performance of athletes. Their effectiveness in carrying out their duties and responsibilities depends on their personal attributes, levels of formal education, professional training, knowledge of coaching and working environments. It is, therefore, important that issues relating to their personal backgrounds, certification procedures, coaching behaviour and experiences are adequately addressed.

The literature so far reviewed on the roles of the coach, coaching knowledge, coaches' behaviour, the problems associated with coaching and the coach's role conflict not only lack information as to the settings in which the reported observations were made but also the necessary supporting data. The study by Jones (1992) on the background, certification process and roles of English football coaches' involved foreign coaches (English) in a foreign setting (i.e. in America). The study by Mills and Dunlevy (1997) focussed on outlining the coaches certification and education programmes in the United States. Kavuma (1995) researched into the profiles and role performance of athletics coaches in Uganda. Nsengiyunva (1997) investigated the coach education programmes not only in athletics but also in several other national sports associations in Uganda. Swartz, as reported by Straub (1980), analysed leadership styles of college level head

football coaches from five Mid-western states in U.S.A. The study by Chen and Wu (2001) did not focus on athletics coaches but on selected characteristics of division I boys Junior High School Basketball coaches in Taiwan. O'Conner (2002) reviewed literature on the need for coach education as the foundation for transition of athletes to elite coaches in Australia. Nash (2002) conducted a study in which the views of coaches from USA and Scotland were compared on whether the variety of coach education programmes fulfilled their needs. The study by Jowett and Gale (2002) focused on examining the nature of coach-athlete relationship in athletics but no mention was made of the setting in which the study was conducted. Johnson and Jowett (2002) examined gender differences in coach-leader behaviour preferences among university level athletes in a variety of team sports in Britain. The study by Jones et.al., (2002) analysed the sociological insights into elite coaching with the purpose of demonstrating how lives, social and cultural contexts, personal experiences and philosophies, and professional practice are interconnected in coaching. Digel (2001) analysed sociological situations of German coaches and noted that vocational training was one of the main areas of need.

It is noteworthy that all the studies reviewed in the study were conducted in foreign countries (outside Kenya) and are, therefore, not directly applicable to Kenya. Some of the studies did not specifically focus on athletics coaches but on coaches of other sporting disciplines. A proportion of the studies did not directly address the certification or professional preparation of athletics coaches but on related coaching issues. Some of the studies were based on review of literature, lacking statistical back-up. However, the current study was an empirical one and specifically focused on evaluating the certification process of athletics coaches in Kenya.

CHAPTER THREE

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.0.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was used in the present study. The areas covered in the chapter are location of the study, research design, target population, sample size, research instrument, procedure for data collection and data analysis.

3.1.0 Location Of The Study

Information from Kenyan AK officials and government sports officers (athletics managers) and coaches was sought at all their provincial offices and headquarters. The provinces included Nairobi, North Eastern, Western, Central, Nyanza, and Rift Valley. Other organisations involved in the study included: Armed Forces Sports Organisation, Kenya Universities Sports Association, Kenya Police Sports Organisation, Kenya Prisons Athletics Association and Kenya Communications Sports Organisation.

3.2.0 Research Design

A survey research design was considered appropriate in this study because it does not involve manipulation of the variables under investigation but seeks to establish the current status of the phenomena (Borg and Gall, 1983). The design, therefore, enabled the researcher to determine the current status of the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya without any special treatment of the variables under study.

3.3.0 Target Population

The study focused on gathering information on the professional preparation and certification of a target population of 134 athletics coaches recognized by the provincial and national athletics offices (see Appendix B). In addition to gathering data from the coaches themselves, 30 senior government sports administrators at the provincial and national offices and 140 executive officials of the provincial and national offices of Athletics Kenya were also sought for the same information. The three groups of provincial and national sports personnel were targeted in the study because they are the cream of management, administrative and technical officials who handle the top athletes in the country. National and provincial level officials of the government and Athletics Kenya were sought for information because they participate in the planning and coordination of coaches' education programmes and, at the same time, hire and supervise the coaches.

3.4.0 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

The stratified random sampling procedure was used to select a sample of 229 (75%) subjects out of the target population that is, 101 coaches, 23 government sports administrators and 105 athletics officials. Stratified random sampling procedure was used so that every category of subjects could be accorded equal opportunity of being represented in the study. The stratification was based on the three groups of subjects targeted in the study, that is, Kenya's' athletics coaches, government sports administrators and athletics officials of Athletics Kenya. Since this was a survey research design, a proportion of 75% of the target population was an adequate representative sample (Borg & Gall, 1983; Slavin, 1984).

3.5.0 Research Instruments

Questionnaires that were adapted from several previous related studies by Jones (1992), Kavuma (1995) and Nsengiyunva (1997) were modified and utilized for data collection. The questionnaires were adapted because they had been effectively and successfully utilized in the related studies.

Two questionnaires, one for the coaches and the other for the athletics managers were used to gather data. The questionnaires (see appendices C and D) contained closed-ended questions. The questionnaire for the coaches sought information about the coaches' demographic details, education background, professional training, knowledge of coaching roles, and their professional needs and problems. The questionnaire for the athletics managers sought data on their demographic details and their views and rating of Kenya's athletics coaches' education, training, needs and problems.

To ensure face and content validity of the research instrument, the researcher's three supervisors, who are specialists in the area under study, independently reviewed and assessed the questionnaire items. The instrument was then adjusted accordingly based on any common observations made by the three supervisors.

The test-retest method was utilized to determine the reliability of the questionnaires. The questionnaires were administered to the subjects targeted in the pilot study twice within an interval of two weeks. The Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed to show the reliability indices of the instruments. Acceptable reliability indices of 0.8 and 0.9 were found for the coaches and athletics managers' questionnaires respectively.

3.6.0 Pilot Study

Before the actual administration of the questionnaires to the respondents, a pilot test of the instrument was conducted involving identical groups of subjects who were not involved in the main study. Ten (10) coaches of the Kenya Armed Forces Athletics organization were used in the pilot test. The questionnaire for the sports managers was piloted using ten (10) district sports officers as subjects. The pilot test helped to determine the suitability, appropriateness and clarity of the questionnaire items in addressing the variables under investigation.

3.7.0 Procedure for Data Collection

Permission to conduct the study was sought from Athletics Kenya, the national sports organization that runs athletics in Kenya. A letter to the respondents (Appendix A) was written to request for data from the respondents. A permit to conduct the research was also sought from the government of Kenya.

The researcher personally delivered the questionnaires to respondents. Follow-ups were made to ensure that responses from the targeted sample were received. For each of the closed-ended questions included in the questionnaire, each respondent was required to check out (✓) the answer that best represented his/her views or opinions out of all choices provided. After the researcher received the returns of all the questionnaires, a comparison was made between the choices of the responses made by the respondents on each of the questions to determine the most preferred or favoured response in each of the cases.

3.8.0 Data Analysis

Demographic data and variables concerning certification process of athletics coaches in Kenya were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Frequencies, percentages and means were used to compute the data as appropriate. The computation of frequencies was used as a statistical method of grouping or organizing raw data into a meaningful way for ease of interpretation (Baumgartner & Jackson, 1975; Kirkendall et. al., 1980). Percentages provided a general summary of collected data (Sincich, 1990). Being the best measure of central tendency, the mean was used, in some instances, to provide a single measure that summarized the data obtained (Borg & Gall, 1983; Sincich, 1990). Tables were drawn to represent the collected data. Tables were useful in organizing and summarizing the data (Kirkendall et.al., 1980; Norusis, 1983). Pie charts on the other hand, conveyed information about the distribution of the data.

The chi-square and Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient computed at 0.05 level of significance were appropriately used as the statistical tools for testing the hypotheses that were formulated.

The chi-square is a non-parametric test of significance appropriate when the data are in the form of frequency counts; it compares proportions actually observed in a study with proportions expected to see if they are significantly different (Hinton, 1995). The chi-square formula that was utilized was:

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

E

Where Σ = Summation X^2 = Chi-square test score

O = Observed frequencies

E = Expected frequencies

The Spearman rank order correlation coefficient is a statistical tool that is useful in correlating ordinal data or data that is not measured on an interval scale (Omotayo, 1992; Hinton, 1995). It helps determine if there is a positive, negative or no relationship between sets of data that are worked. The formula that was utilized was:

$$\text{Spearman } r_2 = 1 - \frac{N \sum D^2}{N^3 - N}$$

Where N = Number of paired observations or rankings.

 Σ = Summation D^2 = Square of the difference between subjects' ranks on the variable

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study whose main purpose was to evaluate the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya. The major areas of focus included scrutiny of the coaches' demographic details and areas of coaching specialization. Coaches' nature and level of training, subject matter (content) of coaches' courses, level of adequacy of duration of coaches' courses, rating of competency of course instructors and assessment procedures of trainee coaches were evaluated. Other variables included frequency of coaching courses, availability of coaching literature, rating of the level of athletic coaches' education and factors relating to the level of effectiveness of the coaches. In addition, focus was also put on determination of the professional training needs and problems of athletics coaches in Kenya.

4.1.0 Demographic Information of Athletics Coaches, AK Officials and Government Sports Officers in Kenya.

Table 1 shows the gender of the respondents of the study

Table 1: Gender of Athletics Coaches, AK Officials and Government Sports Officers

Gender	No. of coaches	No. of AK Officials	Name of Government Sports Officials	Totals
Male	79 (78.22%)	69 (65.71%)	14 (60.87%)	162 (70.74%)
Female	22 (21.78%)	36 (34.29%)	9 (39.13%)	67 (29.26%)
Totals	101 (100%)	105 (100%)	23 (10%)	229 (100%)

It is evident from Table 1 that there were more male coaches, (79; 78.22%), than the female coaches, (22; 21.78%). Majority of the AK officials and government sports administrators. A similar observation that reflects minority female populations in the technical and management fields of sports was reported in the studies by Chen and Wu (2001) among junior high school basketball coaches in Taiwan, Nsengiyunva (1997) among sports coach-trainees in Uganda and Kavuma (1995) who analyzed profiles and role performance of athletics coaches in Uganda. Mazrui (1986) also points out that women continue to be grossly underrepresented in major sports in the world and in particular in Africa due to the inappropriate western-oriented games, the conflicting values of women's beauty and sporting competence, and the demilitarization of women in many African communities. Achola and Njororai (1999) concur with this observation, and argue that sport is still patriarchal in nature just as the larger society. They consider the under-representation of women in sports as a problem that should be addressed. The low level of involvement of females in athletics coaching and management can be attributed to a number of factors, which may include: lack of interest by women in taking up coaching and management roles in athletics; unbalanced selection and election of candidates for coaching courses and management positions that tend to favour men against women.

The age categories of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers are shown in table 2.

Table 2: Age categories of Coaches, AK Officials and Government Sports Officers

Age	No. of coaches	No. of AK officials	No. of Government Sports Officers	Total
25 years and below	0 (0%)	1 (0.95%)	2 (8.70%)	3 (1.31%)
26-29 years	3 (2.97%)	1 (0.95%)	1 (4.35%)	5 (2.18%)
30-34 years	13 (12.87%)	12 (11.44%)	5 (21.74%)	30 (13.10%)
35-39 years	25 (24.75%)	60 (57.14%)	8 (34.78%)	93 (40.61%)
40-49 years	42 (41.59%)	18 (17.14%)	6 (26.09%)	66(28.82%)
50 and above	18(17.82%)	13 (12.38%)	1 (4.35%)	32(13.97%)
Total	101(100%)	105 (100%)	23 (100%)	229(100%)
Mean Age	41.5	39.2	37.6	

It is evident from Table 2 that the age category of 35-39 years had the largest proportion i.e., 93(40.61%) of all the others for coaches, AK officials and government sports officers. However, a larger number of coaches, (42; 41.59%), belonged to the 40-49 age bracket, and none of the coaches was younger than 25 years. The mean ages for coaches, AK officials and government sports officers were much higher than the ones for the English Football Association certified coaches who had a mean age of 27.5 (Jones, 1992), and for basketball coaches for junior high school boys (mean 32.7 years) in Taiwan (Chen & Wu, 2001). This finding suggests that most of the athletics coaches in Kenya are in the older age brackets compared with the managers (AK officials and government sports officers). Most of the coaches were older either because majority of them take up coaching duties after retiring from long active participation and competition in athletics or because they take a lot of their time in their early age attending school, college and/or university before joining the coaching field. The observation that a large proportion of the

government sports officers are slightly younger than the coaches can be attributed to the fact that most of the sports officers in the public service are graduates who are deployed immediately after completing university education without being subjected to any further training.

Table 3 shows the marital status of Kenyan athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers.

Table 3: Marital Status of Coaches, AK Officials and Government Sports Officers

Marital status	No. of Coaches	No. of AK officials	No. of government sports officers	Totals
Single	6 (5.94%)	10 (9.52%)	6 (26.09%)	22 (9.61%)
Married	92 (91.09%)	83 (79.05%)	16 (69.56%)	191 (83.41%)
Divorced	0 (0%)	5 (4.76%)	0 (0%)	5 (2.18%)
Widowed	3 (2.97%)	7 (6.67%)	1 (4.35%)	11 (4.80%)
Totals	101 (100%)	105 (100%)	23 (100%)	229 (100%)

Table 3 shows that a majority of the coaches, (92; 91.09%), AK officials (83; 79.05%), and government sports officers, (16;69.56%), were married. The proportion of the married athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers comprised over three quarters of the total number of participants in the study. In addition, more coaches, (97; 96.04%) indicated that they were parents, with children, compared to those who did not have children accounting for only 3.96% of the total number of coaches (Refer to figure 3 below).



Figure 3: Parental Ownership of Children by coaches

The finding that the largest proportion of Kenya's athletics coaches were married people with children, puts them in an advantaged position, not only to assist their athletes in technical development, but also to advise, guide and counsel them in any other matters that affected them in their lives. This is because coaches are often described as surrogate parents to their athletes (Straub, 1980; Bucher and Krotee, 1993). The minority unmarried men and women would undoubtedly lack the practical experience of effectively handling the young athletes. The practical experience that a coach may derive from his role as a parent at home is likely to assist him in dealing with the young athletes under his care.

The levels of education of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers are reflected in table 4.

Table 4: Academic Qualifications of Coaches, AK Officials and Government Sports Officers

Level of education	No. of coaches	No. of AK Officials	No. of Government Sports Officers	Totals
Primary	11(10.89%)	2 (190%)	0 (0%)	13 (5.68%)
Form I-IV	51(50.50%)	40 (38.10%)	0 (0%)	91 (39.74%)
Form V-VI	8 (7.92%)	11 (10.48%)	0 (0%)	8 (3.49%)
Post-secondary college level	11(10.89%)	19 (18.09%)	2 (8.70%)	32 (13.97%)
University	20(19.80%)	33 (31.43%)	21 (91.30%)	54 (23.58%)
Totals	101 (100%)	105 (100%)	23 (100%)	229 (100%)

Table 4 shows that a higher proportion of athletics of coaches, (51 ;50.50%), and AK Officials, (40;38.10%), possessed the ordinary level (Form I – IV) education. However, a majority of the government sports officers, 21(91.30%) were university graduates. It is also observed that among the coaches, there were 11(10.89%) who were primary school leavers, possessing the lowest academic credentials. The revelation that there were few athletics coaches who possessed primary school qualification is a phenomenon that cannot be easily overlooked. This observation implies that Athletics Kenya does not adhere to the IAAF educational level criteria in the selection of personnel into coaching courses. The International Association of Athletics Federations recommends the Ordinary level certificate of education as the minimum educational requirement for admission into athletics coaching courses (IAAF, 1995; Kavuma, 1995). This level of

educational requirement is rightfully in conformity with the world-over acclaimed fact that coaching is highly science-oriented, and has become advanced in technology to the extent that only individuals with the capacity to understand the abstract scientific principles of coaching and related latest technologies can confidently venture into it. It is safe to assert, therefore, that primary school leavers may lack the necessary academic grounding to cope with the complexities involved in coaching of athletics in modern times.

A study by Kavuma (1995) involving 18 coaches from schools, institutions of higher learning, armed forces and athletics clubs in Uganda reported that a majority of coaches, (14;78%) possessed education qualification above the Ordinary level certificate. The educational level for the junior high school basketball coaches in Taiwan was extremely high as it ranged from high school diploma to degree level (Chen and Wu, 2001). The findings of Kavuma (1995), Nsengiyunva (1997) and Chen and Wu (2001) with regard to the educational levels of coaches were at variance with the findings of this study which indicates a majority of the athletics coaches in Kenya have lower educational credentials ranging from primary school certificate to ordinary level certificate. However, the finding that a majority of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers in Kenya possess academic qualifications above the ordinary level certificate is a positive phenomenon in the provision of quality instruction to Kenya's athletes.

Table 5 shows the coaching experience of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers in Kenya.

Table 5: Experience of Athletics Coaches, AK Officials and Government Sports Officers

Years	No. of coaches	No. of AK Officials	No. of Government Sports officers	Totals
Less than 1 year	4 (3.96%)	2 (1.90%)	0 (0%)	6 (2.63%)
1-5 years	24 (23.76%)	1 (0.95%)	4 (17.40%)	29 (12.66%)
6-10 years	32 (31.68%)	34 (32.38%)	2 (8.69%)	68 (29.69%)
11-20	24 (23.76%)	38 (36.19%)	15 (65.22%)	77 (33.62%)
Over 20 years	17 (16.83%)	30 (28.57%)	2(8.69%)	49 (21.40%)
Totals	101 (100%)	105 (100%)	23 (100%)	229 (100%)

A larger proportion of Kenya's athletics coaches, (32; 31.68%), had coaching experience that ranged from 6 to 10 years (Table 5) while many of the AK officials, (38; 36.19%) and government officers (15;65.22%) had experience ranging from 11 to 20 years. Coaches, AK officials and government sport officers with less than one year's experience comprised the lowest proportion of only 6(2.63%). This finding is not surprising because the scarcity of employment opportunities for coaches and managers, coupled with the irregular basis on which they are appointed in the various sports organisations might be responsible for the variations in their work experience. Whereas some qualified coaches for instance, take a short time after completing their training to get placed, others stay out of employment for a long time (Digel, 2001).

The observation that a majority of the coaches in Kenya had coaching experience of between 6 and 10 years does not concur with the findings of Jones (1992) and Chen and

Wu (2001) who reported an average of 6.1 and 7.0 years of experience for the English football coaches and junior high school basketball coaches in Taiwan respectively. However, the largest proportions of athletics coaches in Uganda's schools, institutions of higher learning, armed forces and athletics were reported to have professional experience of less than 2 years (Kavuma, 1995). The teams handled by athletics clubs in Kenya are presented in table 6.

Table 6: Teams Coached by the Coaches

Team	No. of Coaches	Percentage
School	11	10.89%
College/university	14	13.86%
Parastatal	10	9.90%
Athletics club/A.K province	24	23.76%
Uniformed forces, (armed forces prisons and police departments)	38	37.62%
Other	4	3.96%
Totals	101	100%

Uniformed forces teams topped the list of teams that were handled by athletics coaches in Kenya, with a proportion of 37.62%, followed by various athletics clubs, (23.76%) (Table 6). The lowest proportion i.e., 3.96%, of 'other teams' included national team, individual athletes and others who were not attached to any one specific team. This implies that the largest number of coaches in Kenya were available within the uniformed forces' athletics organizations which include the police, armed forces and prison departments than in the non-uniformed organizations which include the parastatal bodies, athletics clubs, schools, colleges/universities and branches of Athletics Kenya at the

provincial levels. This shows that either more training opportunities for coaches were accorded uniformed forces' athletics organizations than the non-uniformed and parastatal organizations or that more coaches were appointed in the concerned uniformed forces athletics organizations. It may also be argued that the strong emphasis placed on sports in the uniformed forces has created the need for more coaches to take charge of the many sports programmes in the forces. However, this observation is at variance with the situation in Uganda where, according to Kavuma (1995), a majority of the coaches, (14; 78%) were full-time teachers. This may be justified on the premise that since teachers are knowledgeable in the areas of teaching methodology and psychology of education, they are bound to make better coaches because coaching also involves to a large extent the processes of teaching and psychology.

The other forms of employment for the athletics coaches are shown in Table 7 below.

Table 7: Type of Other Employment of the Coaches

Other employment	Number of coaches	Percentage
Teacher/educationist	16	15.84%
Civil servant	20	19.80%
Military/soldier	18	17.82%
Police/prison officers	17	16.83%
Parastatal employee	5	4.95%
Local government employee	7	6.93%
Other occupations	3	2.97%
Not applicable (Not in other employment)	15	14.85%
Totals	101	100%

Apart from coaching, most of the coaches, (86; 85.15%), had other regular or permanent employment. The coaches who did not have any other occupation apart from coaching were a minority, 15 (14.85%). Based on the responses received, the occupations were categorized into 6 main groups: teachers/educationists, civil servants, military officers/soldiers, police/prisons officers, parastatal employees, and local government employees. A higher proportion of the coaches, (20; 19.80%) were civil servants, next proportion of 18(17.82%) were military officers, 17 (16.83%) were police and prison officers, and teachers/educationists totalled 16 (15.84%). The coaches who belonged to occupations designated as 'other' comprised of electrician, engineer and clerk. The coaches who were not engaged in any other form of employment apart from their coaching duties constituted a proportion of 15(14.85%), compared to the summative total of 86 (85.15%) who had permanent jobs elsewhere.

It is possible that coaches looked upon the coaching career as one lacking security of tenure. Indeed, Digel (2001) notes the vulnerability of coaches to getting sacked especially after the athletes' dismal performance as one of the major problems faced by coaches in Germany. The other inference that could be drawn from the findings of this study is that coaching athletics is not regarded as full-time employment. Most of the coaches involved in coaching of athletics in Kenya are volunteers who do so mainly because of their interest in the sport. This phenomenon seems also to mirror the one in Taiwan among junior high school basketball coaches, majority of whom were volunteers (Chen and Wu, 2001) and in the United States where a large proportion of youth sports coaches were volunteers (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997).

The study by Jones (1992) on the background, certification process and personal role perceptions of 36 English Football Association preliminary certified coaches also revealed similar results in which all the 36 (100%) coaches had other permanent occupations other than coaching. In the analysis of the profiles and role performance of athletics coaches in schools, institutions of higher learning, armed forces and athletics in Uganda by Kavuma (1995), it was found out that out of the 18 coaches a majority, (14 ;78%) were full-time teachers.

As in the case of the findings of this study, the study conducted by Jones (1999) found that all the football coaches of the English Football Association preliminary class who were involved in the study had permanent jobs besides their coaching roles. Chen and Wu (2001) also reported a similar trend among junior high school basketball coaches in Taiwan in which only 2(18.18%) were employed as full-time coaches. The findings of the studies, therefore, concur with the results of the current study in which the highest proportion of athletics coaches in Kenya were noted to have other permanent jobs apart from coaching. This finding suggests that coaching either cannot be wholly relied upon as a lifetime career from which one can earn a living or that it is not well-paying to sustain the practitioners. Most of the coaches are, therefore, part-timers. This state of affairs also reveals that most of the sporting organizations are either not ready to offer full-time employment to coaches or do not have adequate financial resources to sustain coaches in full-time employment. Digel (2001) found that coaches' salaries in Germany for instance, were very unjust. The coaches' responses concerning the question of whether their

permanent occupations hindered or interfered with their coaching roles are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Extent to which Regular Employment Hinders/Interferes with Coaching Role of Coaches

Response	No. of Coaches	No. of Managers
Very much	11	12.79%
Much	11	12.79%
Not sure	7	8.14%
Little extent	35	40.70%
Not at all	22	25.58%
Totals	86	100%

In terms of whether the coaches' regular occupations hindered their coaching roles, some of them, (35;40.70%) indicated that the occupations interfered with their roles to a little extent (Table 8). Those who found their permanent occupations a hindrance to their coaching duties were 22(25.58%), and another 22(25.58%) were categorical that there was no interference. These results do not appear to concur with the observation made by Jonas (1993) that coaches who are assigned multiple role obligations were bound to have role conflict. Jonas (1993) reviewed literature which shows that teachers who bear the multiple responsibilities of teaching and coaching of games often face the problem of role conflict in which they give more attention to one of the responsibilities at the expense of the other.

In addition to giving their views about the other forms of employment that they engaged in other than coaching, an overwhelming majority of the coaches, (94;93.07%) indicated

that they were athletes in their teenage years as youth before they later became coaches. Only a few of the athletics coaches, (7;6.93%) had never competed before their involvement in coaching. This phenomenon appears to tally with the practise in Uganda where most of the athletics coaches were selected partly on the basis of their past involvement in athletics as competitors (Nsengiyunva, 1997). Although O'Conner (2002) notes that many athletes get recruited into coaching, he maintains that their ability and experiece in competitive sports did not necessarily translate into coaching aptitude. The transitions of any athlete from elite competition into coaching must be preceded and associated with professional preparation (Mills & Dunlevy, 1997; O'Conner, 2002).

Table 9 shows the highest levels at which the athletics coaches as athletes.

Table 9: Highest Level at which Coaches Completed as Athletes

Level	Number	Percentage
School/College/University/village	13	13.83%
District level/provincial	17	18.08%
National Level	36	38.30%
International level	28	29.79%
Totals	94	100%

Thirty six (38.30%) of the coaches had competed as athletes at national level and a minority of 13 (13.83%) at grassroot levels such as village, school, college and university levels. The coaches who competed as athletes at international level comprised the second

majority of 28 (29.79%). The implication of this observation is that individuals with a background of experience in athletes in athletics competition had more chances of becoming coaches or being selected for training in coaching than those who lacked such experience. According to O'Conner (2002), the coaches' firsthand experience at competing at elite level, their knowledge of competing skills and tactics and ability to read competition situations formed the foundation of their coaching.

4.2.0 Athletics Coaches' Professional Preparation

The results of the coaches' responses with regard to their specialisation in athletics coaching are presented in table 10.

Table 10: Coaches' Areas of Coaching

Area	Number	Percentage
A. Sprints	20	19.80%
B. Middle and distance races	67	66.34%
C. Field events	13	12.87%
D. No opinion	1	0.99%
Totals	101	100%

Among the participants, coaching specialisations covered all the three main areas of athletics, i.e sprints, middle and long distance races, and field events. The middle and distance races had the largest number of coaches, (67; 66.34%), followed by sprints, (20;19.80%), and lastly, field events with only 13 (12.87%) as shown in Table 11. This observation concurs with the findings of Kavuma (1995) that indicated that majority of athletics coaches in Uganda engaged in coaching of running events while little attention

was given to coaching field events. The involvement of a majority of the coaches in the middle and distance races than other events can be attributed to the athletics tradition in Kenya which puts more emphasis on the middle and distance races because of the country's past successes in these events. More medals have certainly been won in middle and long distance races which account for the country's dominance in international competitions. Outstanding athletes in these events have become role-models for many young Kenyan runners, most of whom join the middle and distance races. Indeed, Ndoe (2000) notes that Kenya's successes in athletics over the years have been registered mainly in the middle and distance races but not in the sprints and field events.

The coaches' responses concerning the type of training that they had undergone in their professional preparation are shown in table 11.

Table 11: Coaches' Training

Types of training	No. of responses	Percentage
Knowledge from experience as athletes and reading of coaching literature	5	4.95%
Training as physical education teacher	6	5.94%
Training under IAAF	56	55.45%
Training in foreign university/college	8	7.92%
Training through clinics/seminars	26	25.74%
Totals	101	100%

Table 11 shows that the largest proportion of athletics coaches, (56;55.45%), were trained under the International Association of Athletics Federations Coaches Education

Certification System. A total of 26 (25.74%) coaches had trained through clinics and seminars, 8(7.92%) in foreign universities and colleges, and 6(5.94%) from their experience as former athletes and reading coaching literature. It is important to note that the IAAF trains majority of athletics coaches in Kenya because its Regional Development Centre which is based in Nairobi gives the country an advantage over the rest of the countries in Africa. Kavuma (1995), unlike the findings of this study, reported that a significant low number of athletics coaches, i.e. 5(17.24%) out of 29 (100%), trained under IAAF in Uganda. Mills & Dunlevy (1986) reported that the existence of several coaches' certification programmes in the United States as it obtains in Kenya. However, unlike the case in Kenya, the National Association for Sports and Physical Education (NASPE) of the United States has developed a set of national standards for the training of sport coaches for various institutions and programmes. Arising from this, the Science and Fitness Studies at Endicott College, as other programmes in the United States, has developed a certification programme that adheres to the requirements and guidelines of the National Association for Sports and Physical Education (NASPE) of the United States (Dean of Sports Science and Fitness Studies Division, 2003).

O'Conner (2002), points out that although many athletes are recruited into professional coaching roles, they need to undergo thorough training in organizational skills, teaching strategies, communication skills and pedagogy of imparting athletic knowledge and skills. Their experience in sports skill and tactics, coupled with their ability to "read the game" was inadequate in transforming them into effective coaches. This implies that 5(4.95%) athletics coaches in Kenya who relied on their experience as athletes and

reading of coaching literature were not well- equipped to take up coaching duties. In addition, the 26(25.74%) coaches who had trained through clinics and seminars be viewed as adequately trained. This is because clinics and seminars take place over very short durations within which all the necessary content is hardly adequately covered. Clinics and seminars are meant for keeping the practising coaches abreast of new knowledge but not for full-time training (Beashel & Taylor, 1992; Wuest & Bucher, 1995).

Table 12 shows the levels of training attained by the athletics coaches who trained through the International Association of Athletics Federations Certification System.

Table 12: Level of Training for Coaches who Trained through International Association of Athletics Federations Programme.

Level	Number of Responses	Percentage
Level I	42	43.58%
Level II	9	8.91%
Level III (Diploma)	5	4.95%
Not applicable (Those not trained through IAAF)	45	44.55%
Totals	101	100%

Out of the 56 coaches trained through the IAAF certification programme, a large proportion, (42;43.58%) had attained level I, followed by 9(8.91%) at level II, and 5(4.95%) at level III (diploma level). The implication of these results is that majority of Kenya's athletics coaches who were trained under the International Association of

Athletics Federations Certification System operated at basic and general level of coaching, lacking specific grounding in coaching of specific events of athletics. This observation is based in the fact that specialization in coaching of specific areas of athletics commences at level II of the International Association of Athletics Federations Coaches Education and Certification System (IAAF, 1995). In addition, the results which show that there were very few Kenyan athletics coaches with the IAAF level II and III qualifications implies that either very few courses were conducted for certification at levels II and III or very few coaches were offered opportunities to train at these levels since the IAAF Regional Centre based in Nairobi caters for the training of coaches for the entire of the English-speaking countries in Africa, many of these countries, including Kenya, are accorded very limited number of training opportunities (Ndoo, 2002). The high cost of running the courses also limits the number of participants and number of courses held each year.

The coaches' responses with regard to the content areas covered in the process of their professional preparation are presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Responses of Athletics Coaches on Content Areas Covered in their Professional Preparation.

Content	No. of Responses	
	Yes	No
A. Coaching theory and practice-techniques and tactics	85(84.16%)	16(15.84%)
B. Biomechanics	58(57.43%)	43(42.57%)
C. Human anatomy & exercise physiology	64(63.37%)	37(36.63%)
D. Officiating of athletics	83(82.18%)	18(17.82%)
E. Principles of training/conditioning	58(57.43%)	43(42.57%)
F. Psychology of sports	22(21.78%)	79(78.22%)
G. First Aid & safety/sports medicine	60(59.41%)	41(40.59%)
H. Sports nutrition	58(57.43%)	43(42.57%)
I. Organization & administration of athletics	58(57.43%)	43(42.57%)
Other	3(2.97%)	98(97.03%)

From the responses, it is evident that coaching theory and practice of athletics techniques and tactics received most attention, (85; 84.16%), followed by officiating of athletics, (83; 82.18%) and then, human anatomy and exercise physiology received a proportion of 64 (63.37%). Psychology of sports received least emphasis, (22; 21.78%). Other areas, which were mentioned but given very little attention, (3; 1.03%), included philosophy of coaching and massage.

The observation that the area of sports psychology was least emphasized in the process of athletics coaches' professional preparation concurred with the findings of Nsengiyunva (1997) among Uganda's sports coaches in various sports disciplines. In addition to putting less emphasis on sports psychology in the coaches' courses in Uganda,

kinesiology/biomechanics, growth and development and exercise physiology were also less emphasized.

A study by Nash (2002) on content of coaches' courses compared the views of sports coaches from the USA and Scotland on whether the variety of coach education programmes fulfilled their needs. The results of the study showed that the coaching courses mostly emphasized the scientific aspects of coaching; new training methods and recent innovations in tactics and techniques. The results were in agreement, to some extent, with the findings of this study: coaching theory and practice of techniques and tactics ranked highest, human anatomy and exercise physiology was third, and First Aid and sports medicine, biomechanics, principles of conditioning and sports nutrition followed in that order. The implication of these findings is that scientific principles are crucial to athletic performance and hence every coach needs to be well-equipped in this field. However, the less emphasis placed on sports psychology shows either that the curriculum that is in force is not comprehensive enough or that there is a limited number of instructors who are specialised in some of the areas.

The Sport Science and Fitness Studies Division at Endicott College has a Coaching Certification programme that provides students with coaching knowledge and practical experience (Dean of Sports Science and Fitness Studies Division. 2003). The programme adheres to the requirements and guidelines of the National Association for Sports and Physical Education (NASPE) of the United States. The certification programme emphasizes on care and prevention of injury, principles associated with coaching, basic

nutritional guidelines, personal health issues, sports medicine and the role of sports in society. Specific sports coaching workshops are held to assist in the development of practice organisation, coaching techniques and strategies. In addition, students undergo a monitored practicum during which they are expected to demonstrate competence in planning, implementing and evaluating athletic practice and contests.

Table 14 shows the frequency of responses on the question regarding the coaches' country of professional preparation.

Table 14: Country of Coaches' Professional Training

Country	No. of responses	Percentage
Kenya	74	73.27%
Abroad (outside Kenya)	16	15.84%
Not applicable (those not professionally trained)	11	10.89%
Totals	101	100%

Out of the targeted sample of 101 coaches, only 90 of them who had undergone professional coaching courses provided responses with regard to the country of professional training. The results show that the largest proportion of the coaches, i.e 74 (73.27%) were trained locally, and a few, i.e 16(15.84%) were trained abroad. Though the practice of training coaches locally is less expensive, it tends to deny the coaches the necessary external exposure. External exposure enables coaches to learn and borrow new ideas from their experiences in the host countries, and it is therefore important that they are given opportunities to undergo some training outside their own countries, especially in countries known for commendable performances in sports. Mills and Dunlevy (1997),

for instance, note that the United States of America, Canada, China and England have strong coaches training programmes because they have developed minimum standards for those involved in coaching. Hence, Kenyan athletics coaches can gain a lot if they are afforded opportunities to learn from these countries in addition to training locally.

Table 15 shows the coaches' responses with regard to the duration of their coaching courses.

Table 15: Duration of Coaches' Courses

Duration	No. of responses	Percentage
One week and less	25	24.75%
Two to four weeks	55	54.46%
Several months (2-11 months)	8	7.92%
One year and more	2	1.98%
Not applicable (Those not professionally trained)	11	10.89%
Totals	101	100%

The frequency of the responses indicated that the largest number of courses, (55; 54.46%) lasted between two to four weeks. Coaching courses that lasted for a period of one week or less accounted for a proportion of 25 (24.75%). From the frequency of the responses, only 2(1.98%) of the coaches took part in courses that lasted for a period of one year and above. Jones (1992) reported that the shortest soccer coaching courses in the United Kingdom lasted 5 days of full- time attendance within a week, and the longest 10 sessions of over a ten-week period. The coaching courses for sports coaches across various sports disciplines lasted only one to two weeks in Uganda (Nsengiyunva, 1997), thus being a

shorter period of time compared to the largest proportion of coaching courses organized for athletics coaches in Kenya. The United States National Youth Sports Coaches Association (NYSCA) has a longer training programme, compared to Kenya, lasting up to three years. Canada's National Coaching Institutes (N.C.I) run part-time diploma coaching programmes that stretch over a period of two years (Thomson, 2002), being a much longer duration than the one taken on the training of athletics coaches in Kenya, and is a structure that can be explored for possible implementation in the country. This is because Diploma courses involve a very high level of coaching and, hence, the need for this length of time. The finding that the largest proportion of coaching courses for Kenya's athletics coaches lasted 2 to 4 weeks is however, consistent with the duration of the IAAF courses, which are held over 16 days. Admission into IAAF levels II and III courses which also last 16 days is preceded by unsupervised practical experience of at least one year in between each of the courses.

Table 16 indicates the frequency of coaches' responses pertaining to their rating of the adequacy of the duration of coaching courses for athletics coaches in Kenya.

Table 16 Rating of the Adequacy of the Duration of each Coaching Course.

Rating	No. of Responses	Percentage
Very adequate	5	4.95%
Adequate	40	39.60%
No opinion	2	1.98%
Inadequate	36	35.64%
Very inadequate	7	6.93%
Not applicable (Those not professionally trained)	11	10.89%
Totals	101	100%

Although many of the coaches, (45;44.55%), indicated that the duration of each course was adequate, a very close proportion of them, (43;42.57%), indicated otherwise. Only 2(1.98%) coaches, had no opinion as to whether the duration was adequate or not. Since a majority of the coaches, (55;54.46%) (Table 15) indicated that the coaching courses lasted 2 to 4 weeks, it can be inferred that this is the duration that coaches generally supported as being adequate.

The results indicating that a majority of the athletics coaches found the duration of coaching courses adequate did not agree with Uganda's sports coaches' rating which showed that the one to two weeks duration of their coaching courses was grossly inadequate (Kavuma, 1995; Nsengiyunva, 1997). Although the athletics coaches in Kenya rated the duration of the coaching courses, most of which lasted between 2 to 4 weeks, as adequate, this was inconsistent with the practice at Canada's National Coaching Institutes and the National Youth Sports Coaches Association of the United States where some of the coaching courses lasted up to two and three years respectively (Mill & Dunlevy, 1997; Thomson, 2002). It would appear that the coaches therefore, made their rating based on the lack of information about the duration(s) of coaching courses in the foreign institutions and organizations concerned with the training of coaches. Since coaching is a profession, those who aspire to become coaches need to undergo rigorous training over a period of time that is adequate to cover all the necessary content in detail, including practical experience. A period up to and exceeding six months for each level as it is standard practice in the United States, Canada and Germany would be adequate.

The results of the coaches' responses about the countries of origin of the instructors who conducted their coaching courses are presented in Table 17.

Table 17: Country of Origin of Instructors of Coaching Courses.

Country	No. of Responses	Percentage
Locally (Kenya)	36	35.64%%
Abroad (outside Kenya)	16	15.84%
Both Kenya and outside Kenya	32	31.68%
No opinion	6	5.94%
Not applicable (Those not professionally trained)	11	10.89%
Totals	101	100%

Based on frequency count of their responses, the largest percentage of the coaches, (36;35.64%) indicated that their course instructors were locals (Kenyans), while 32(31.68%) had instructors from both Kenya and abroad (outside Kenya), and only 16 (15.84%) had their coaching courses facilitated by instructors from abroad (outside Kenya). Since the IAAF Regional Development Centre for the English - speaking countries in Africa is based in Nairobi, Kenya, it is logical to assume that majority of the lecturers who facilitate coaching courses especially at the IAAF level I at the Centre are drawn mainly from Kenya. The IAAF Regional Development Centre however, also contracts a number of foreign instructors to conduct some of the courses, particularly the level II and III courses. The coaching clinics and seminars that are organized for the athletics coaches are mainly meant to serve local manpower development needs and hence, are facilitated by local instructors.

Table 18 presents data on the ratings of athletics coaches in Kenya of the level of effectiveness and competence of instructors of their athletics coaching courses.

Table 18: Rating of the Level of Competence of Course Instructors

Rating	No. of responses	Percentage
Very competent	50	49.50%
Competent	24	23.76%
No opinion	10	9.90%
Incompetent	4	3.96%
Very Incompetent	2	1.98%
Not applicable (those not professionally trained)	11	10.89%
Totals	101	100%

Chi-square analysis of views of athletics coaches in Kenya with regard to the competence of instructors of coaching courses per the coaches' academic qualifications.

Level of education	V. competent/ competent	No opinion	V. incompetent/ incompetent	Totals
Primary school level	5	4	1	10
"0" - "A" level	50	4	2	56
Post-secondary college level	6	1	2	9
University level	13	1	1	15
Total	74	10	6	90

$X^2=76.94$, $df=6$; $p<0.05$ (significant)

The largest proportion of the coaches, (50;49.50%) and (24;23.76%), rated the instructors as either very competent or competent, while only 2(1.98%) and 4(3.96) rated them as either very incompetent or incompetent respectively (Table 18). The Chi-square test indicated that there was a significant difference in coaches' rating of the competence of instructors of athletics coaching courses for Kenya's athletics coaches on the basis of

their academic qualifications. Hence, the null hypothesis (Ho1) that academic qualification will not significantly influence the coaches' rating of the competence of their coaching courses' instructors was not upheld. This implies that coaches' level of education was a significant factor in the way they rated the competence of the instructors who conducted their courses. Coaches with various levels of academic credentials rated the competence of the instructors differently, most likely because what they rated as competent depended on the instructors' abilities that they assessed in the following areas: their grasp of content, their methods of instruction, communication skills and the degree to which they covered required content.

The observation that instructors for athletics courses in Kenya are rated as effective and competent is a very positive factor in the professional preparation of the coaches in the country. Nash (2002) conducted a study in which the views of coaches from the U.S.A and Scotland were compared on whether the variety of coach education programmes fulfilled their needs. The study revealed that the courses were informative and enjoyable arising from use of appropriate presentation formats by instructors. Indeed, the International Association of Athletics Federations also puts strong emphasis on the need for knowledgeable course instructors and has therefore, a well-developed education programme for all its potential instructors (IAAF, 1995).

A large proportion of the coaches, (45;50.00%) indicated that practical examinations were administered during their coaching courses. However, a smaller proportion of 38(42.22%) coaches indicated otherwise and the least, (7;7.78%) were not sure if they

were assessed practically. The frequency of responses also indicated that 59(65.55%) of the coaches, took theory examinations during their coaching courses, while only 26(28.89%) gave a contrary response, and only 5(5.56%) were not sure if they took any theory examinations.

Administration of examinations in a learning process is an important activity that should never be omitted or overlooked. It is a vital tool for determining the extent to which learners have retained knowledge that has been disseminated to them. Results of examinations for coach- trainees are also necessary in determining their areas of strength and weakness, and as criteria for upgrading them to higher levels of coaching (Mills & Dunlevy, 1998; Nebiolo, 1994).

Many of the Kenyan athletics coaches alluded to taking examinations in the course of their professional preparation, thereby indicating that examinations were treated as an important feature in their professional certification process. It is possible that the small proportion of the coaches who indicated absence of examinations during coaching courses are those who had trained through clinics and seminars because such fora take a very short time and assessment is hardly incorporated.

Table 19 shows the data on responses about the coaching roles for which athletics coaches in Kenya receive professional preparation.

Table 19: Coaching Roles for which Athletics Coaches Receive Professional Preparation.

Role	No. of responses		Total
	Yes	No	
Planning and conducting athletics training programmes	80(79.20%)	21(20.80%)	101(100%)
Conducting fitness assessment of athletes	27(20.735%)	74(73.27%)	101(100%)
Giving psychological and mental support to athletes	55(54.465%)	46(45.54%)	101(100%)
Organizing and officiating of athletic events	60(59.41%)	41(40.59%)	101(100%)
Other	5(4.955%)	96(95.05%)	101(100%)

Based on frequency of responses, planning and conducting of athletics programmes was the role that received most emphasis, (80;79.20%), while conducting fitness evaluation for athletes received least attention, (27;26.73%) compared to proportion of 74(73.27%) who indicated otherwise. The roles designated as 'other', which accounted for 4.95% of the coaches compared to a proportion of 95.95% included management of athletics teams, physiotherapy and identification of athletic talent. These results which indicate that the coaches viewed planning and conducting athletics programmes as their main role imply that they emphasized most on development of athletes' techniques and tactics but also viewed other roles either as subsidiary or out of their jurisdiction.

The rating of the coaches about the frequency at which they access coaching literature is presented in table 20.

Table 20: Rating of Frequency at which Athletics Coaches Access Coaching Literature

Rating	No. of responses	Percentage
A. Very frequently	23	22.77%
B. Frequently	17	16.83%
C. No opinion	4	3.96%
D. Infrequently	43	42.57%
E. Very infrequently	14	13.86%
Totals	101	100%

Chi - square analysis of the views of athletics coaches about the frequency at which they access coaching literature according to their academic qualifications is presented as follows:

Level of education	Responses		
	Very frequently / frequent	Very infrequent /infrequent	Total
Primary school	1	10	11
'O' level (form I-IV)	24	27	51
'A' level (form V-VI)	5	3	8
Post-secondary college level	3	8	11
University level	7	13	20
Total	40	61	101

$X^2 = 8.10$, $df = 4$, $p > 0.05$ (not significant)

Based on the coaches' frequency of responses, a higher proportion of them, i.e 43(42.57%) indicated that their accessibility to necessary coaching literature was infrequent, while the second largest proportion, (23;22.77%) had a contrary view. Only 4(3.96%), had no opinion as to the frequency at which they laid their hands on relevant coaching literature.

The Chi-square analysis showed that the views of athletics coaches with regard to the extent to which they accessed relevant coaching literature was not significantly

influenced by their academic qualifications. Hence, there was sufficient evidence to uphold the hypothesis (H_{02}) that academic qualifications of the coaches did not significantly determine their views on the extent to which they accessed coaching literature. This shows that education level of the athletics coaches in Kenya did not matter in their desire to access and read coaching literature. However, the result which shows that a many of them did not access the necessary literature (Table 20) implies that the literature might be scarce.

The importance of constantly preparing and providing relevant and most recent literature to beginners and practising coaches has been emphasized by those concerned with coaches' education (Nebiolo, 1991; Mills & Dunlevy, 1997). Coaches are described as students who must keep abreast by reading relevant literature such as textbooks, journals, bulletins, magazines and newspapers (Beashel & Taylor, 1992; Wuest & Bucher, 1995; Mills & Dunlevy, 1997). The International Association of Athletics Federations encourages its Regional Development Centres all over the world, for instance, to compile, publish and distribute recent coaching materials to the countries which they serve (Nebiolo, 1991).

The unending changes in the science and technology of developing athletic talent all over the world, coupled with the high competitiveness in sports calls for engagement of coaches who are up-to-date with current knowledge and practice. Hence, the observation that a majority of athletics coaches in Kenya did not access coaching literature is retrogressive. The fact that the International Association of Athletics Federations

Regional Development Centre based in Nairobi, Kenya, produces a bulletin on athletics matters of athletics in the English-speaking countries of Africa, on a regular basis, appeared to be overwhelmed by the need for variety of coaching literature among athletics coaches in Kenya.

Table 21 shows the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers in Kenya of the frequency at which athletics coaches access coaching in-service courses, including coaching clinics.

Table 21: Rating of Coaches, AK Officials and Government Sports Officers of the Frequency at which Athletics coaches Access In-Service/Coaching Courses/Clinics.

Respondents	Responses					Total
	Very frequently	Frequently	No opinion	Infrequently	Very infrequently	
Athletics coaches	9(8.91%)	31(30.69%)	9(8.91%)	35(34.65%)	17(16.84%)	101(100%)
Athletics officials	8 (7.62%)	10(9.53%)	14(13.33%)	50(47.62%)	23(21.90%)	105(100%)
Government sports officers	3(13.04%)	2(8.70%)	2(8.70%)	11(47.83%)	5(21.73%)	23(100%)
Totals	20(8.73%)	43(18.78%)	25(10.92%)	96(41.92%)	45(19.65%)	229(100%)

$X^2 = 18.34$, $df = 8$, $p < 0.05$ (significant)

Out of the 229 athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers, most of them, i.e. 96(41.92%), stated that their opportunities for in-service courses and coaching clinics are infrequent, followed by a proportion of 45(19.62%) who rated it as very infrequent, and 43(18.78%) as frequent. A few of them, (20;8.73%) rated the coaches' frequency of access to in-service coaching courses and clinics as very frequent.

The Chi-square analysis showed that the rating of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the frequency of coaching and in-service courses differed significantly. Hence, the null hypothesis (H_{03}) that the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the frequency of coaching and in-service courses organized for athletics coaches each year is not significantly different was not upheld. It is evident that whereas a larger proportion of the coaches than AK officials and government sports officers indicated that the courses were frequent, a higher proportion of the AK officials and government sports officers than coaches on the other hand indicated that the courses were infrequent. This significant difference implies that the AK officials and government sports officers appear to be aware that more courses should be conducted each year than the ones that were being offered. This is particularly true because the AK officials and government sports officers are directly responsible for the organization of the courses (Mills & Dunlevy, 1986; Thompson, 2002). The various coaches certification programmes such as the IAAF and those of the National Youth Sport Coaches Association in the United States, the Programme for Athletic Coaches Education of the US and Canada's National Coaching Institutes emphasize on continuing education for coaches (Mills & Dunlevy, 1986; Thompson, 2002).

The attendance of regular in -service or refresher courses for sports coaches is an invaluable process of enhancing their competence (Beashel & Taylor, 1992: Wuest & Bucher, 1995). O'Conner (2002) emphasizes that in-service training is the main avenue through which coaches are put up to the mark with the modern coaching techniques, sports-specific information technology and safety considerations. Results indicating that

athletics coaches in Kenya have limited opportunities for in- service or refresher courses is not a supportive factor in the effort of developing and ensuring commendable output for the coaches. A coach who relies on knowledge that is not up-to - date could as well be regarded as irrelevant and unsuitably qualified in the ever- changing world of sports.

The athletics coaches' views in terms of sponsorship of the coaching courses in which they participated are shown in table 22.

Table 22: Sponsorship of Coaching Courses for Athletics Coaches

Name of sponsor	Number of responses	Percentage
Self	11	10.89%
Employer/employing institution	20	19.80%
IAAF/Athletics Kenya	25	24.75%
Olympic Solidarity	26	25.74%
Other	8	7.92%
Not applicable (those not professionally trained)	11	10.89%
Total	101	100%

The highest proportion of the coaches, (26;25.74%), were sponsored for the courses by the Olympic Solidarity, followed by those sponsored by International Association of Athletics Federations and Athletics Kenya, (25;24.75%). Coaches sponsored for coaching courses by their employers were 20 (19.80%) and self-sponsored coaches were only 11 (10.89%). The inference that is drawn from these data is that the Olympic Solidarity has been playing a very significant role in making it possible for most athletics coaches in Kenya to access coaching courses through its sponsorships. The Olympic Solidarity channels its sponsorships through its affiliate international and national sports federations to make it possible for them to conduct pre-service and in-service courses for required

manpower. This explains why majority of the coaches (Tables 11 and 12) indicated that they had trained under the IAAF or through clinics and seminars, which were sponsored mainly by the Olympic Solidarity.

The data on the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the extent to which Kenya should train coaches for the sprint events are presented in table 23.

Table 23: Rating of Athletics Coaches, AK officials and Government Sports Officers of the Extent to Which Kenya Needs to Train Coaches for Sprints

Respondents	Responses				Total
	Very much	Much	No opinion	No/Not at all	
Coaches	85(84.16%)	6(5.94%)	5(4.95%)	5(4.95%)	101(100%)
AK officials	91(86.67%)	8(7.62%)	5(4.76%)	1(0.95%)	105(100%)
Government sports officers	19(82.61%)	2(8.69%)	1(4.35%)	1(4.35%)	23(100%)
Total	195(85.15%)	16(6.99%)	11(4.80%)	5(2.18%)	229(100%)

$X^2 = 3.21$, $df = 6$, $p > 0.05$ Not significant

Table 23 shows that the highest proportion of the athletics coaches and AK officials and government sports officers i.e., 195 (85.15%), indicated that there was dire need to train coaches for the sprint events in the country. Only 7(3.06%) did not see the need to train more coaches for the sprints. The chi-square analysis showed that the rating of the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the extent to which the country should train more coaches for the sprints events did not differ significantly. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{04(i)}$) that the rating of the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the extent to which Kenya needs to train coaches for the sprint events will not differ significantly was upheld. It is hence, clear that the majority of the athletics

coaches and AK officials and government sports officers rated highly the need to train more coaches for sprint events on the basis of information that there were very few coaches who had specialized in the events. These results also concur with the findings of Kubai (1992) who attributed poor performance in sprints by Kenya's male athletes in international competitions to inadequate number of coaches for the events.

Table 24 shows the frequency of responses on the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers in Kenya of the extent to which coaches for middle and distance races should be trained.

Table 24: Rating of Athletics Coaches, AK officials and Government Sports Officers of the Extent to which Kenya should Train Coaches for Middle and Long Distance Races.

Respondents	Responses					Total
	Very much	Much	No. opinion	No	Not at all	
Athletics coaches	24(23.76%)	49(48.51%)	10(9.90%)	10(9.90%)	8(7.92%)	101(100%)
AK officials	22 (20.95%)	57(54.28%)	4(3.81%)	16(15.24%)	6(5.71%)	105(100%)
Government Sports Officials	5(21.74%)	13(56.52%)	1(4.35%)	3(13.04%)	1(4.35%)	23(100%)
Total	51(22.27%)	119(51.97%)	15(6.55%)	29(12.66%)	15(6.55%)	229(100%)

$X^2 = 5.45$, $df = 8$, $p > 0.05$ (Not significant)

Table 24 shows that a majority of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers responded in favour of the need for training of more coaches for middle and distance races. Although responses on the question of their areas of coaching (Refer to Table 11), indicated that more than half of the coaches handled the middle and distance races, there was still need to train more coaches for these events. Based on these results,

it was also inferred that Kenya's domination of the middle and distance races in international competitions is faced with serious challenges by other African countries, particularly by Ethiopia and Morocco due to insufficient number of qualified coaches in the of athletics events.

The Chi-square analysis showed no significance difference in the rating of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the extent to which Kenya needs to train coaches for the middle and distance races. They were in agreement that the available number of coaches for these events was inadequate to cater for the large number of athletes in the country. Hence, the null hypothesis ($H_{04(ii)}$) that there was no significant difference in the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the extent to which coaches for the middle and distance races should be trained was upheld. This finding was not surprising because the need for every country interested in developing sports to train sufficient number of coaches has been emphasized (Nebiolo, 1991; Mills & Dunlevy, 1997)

The views of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers on the extent to which coaches for field events (throws and jumps) should be trained in Kenya are presented in Table 25.

Table 25: Rating of Athletics Coaches, AK officials and government Sports Officers of the Extent to which Kenya should Train Coaches for Throws and Jumps (Field Events)

Respondents	Responses				
	Very much	Much	No. opinion	Not at all	Total
Athletics coaches	81(79.12%)	9(8.91%)	6(5.94%)	5(4.95%)	101(100%)
AK Officials	79(75.24%)	13(12.38%)	10(9.52%)	3(2.86%)	105(100%)
Government Sports Officers	17(73.91%)	3(13.04%)	2(8.69%)	1(4.35%)	23(100%)
Total	177(77.29%)	25(10.92%)	18(7.86%)	9(3.93%)	229(100%)

$X^2 = 2.32$, $df = 6$, $p < 0.05$ (Not significant)

The largest proportion of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers, (177;77.29%) responded in favour of the need to train more coaches in field events. The results of the coaches' responses about their areas of specialization (Table 10) also showed that the proportion of the coaches who specialized in coaching field events was the least of all the other categories of athletics events. The Chi-square analysis of the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers' rating of the extent to which Kenya needs to train coaches for the fields showed no significant difference. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{O4(iii)}$) that the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the extent to which more coaches for the field events should be trained would not differ significantly was upheld. This implies that the three groups of personnel concurred that the number of trained coaches for the field events was inadequate.

The inadequacy in the number of coaches for field events, as evidenced from the views of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers, is likely to be one of the factors that accounts for Kenya's poor performance in the events in international

competitions. These results concurred with the findings of a study conducted by Kavuma (1995) who also reported an insufficient number of coaches for field events in Uganda's schools, institutions of higher learning, armed forces and athletics clubs. The inadequacy in number of coaches for field events could be attributable to either lack of role models in this area of athletics, lack of interest of potential coaches in these events or limited opportunities for those who wish to specialize in the same activities as coaches. This is because Kenya has registered very limited successes in these events over the years (Ndoo, 2000) and due to the evidence availed in Table 21 that very few coaching and in-service courses are organized each year for athletics coaches in the country.

Table 26 below shows the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the level of adequacy of training of athletics coaches in Kenya.

Table 26: Rating of Athletics Coaches, AK officials and Government Sports Officers of the Level of Adequacy of Training of Athletics Coaches in Kenya.

Respondents	Responses					
	Very adequate	Adequate	No. opinion	Inadequate	Very inadequate	Total
Athletics coaches	13(12.87%)	30(29.71%)	7(6.93%)	45(44.55%)	6(5.94%)	101(100%)
AK officials	4(3.81%)	26(24.76%)	8(7.62%)	55(52.38%)	12(11.43%)	105(100%)
Government Sports Officers	1(4.35%)	5(21.74%)	2(8.69%)	12(52.17)	3(13.04%)	23(100%)
Total	18(7.86%)	61(26.64%)	17(7.42%)	112(48.91%)	21(9.17%)	229(100%)

$X^2 = 9.37$, $df = 8$, $p > 0.05$ (Not significant)

It is evident from table 26 that a larger proportion of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers, (112;48.91%), rated the level of training of athletics

coaches in Kenya as inadequate, followed by a proportion of 61(26.64%) who indicated it was adequate. On the whole, those who responded to indicate that the training was very inadequate/inadequate accounted for the largest proportion of 133(58.08%) and those who indicated the contrary were the least, (79;34.50%). The Chi-square analysis of the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers' responses showed no significant difference. This implies that the three groups were in agreement that the level of training of Kenya's athletics coaches was inadequate. Hence, the null hypothesis (HO5) that the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers' ratings of the level of adequacy of training of athletics coaches in Kenya will not differ significantly was upheld.

The overall observation indicating inadequacy in the quality of training of athletics coaches in Kenya is a phenomenon that is of great concern. The results arising from the data presented in Tables 13, 20 and 21 seem to support the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers' responses in this regard. Table 13 comprises data showing that the coaches were in adequately exposed to all the critical content areas. In addition, the coaches had limited access to in-service courses, coaching clinics and relevant coaching literature (Tables 20 and 21). These factors could explain for the overall rating of the respondents of the adequacy of the training of athletics coaches in Kenya as inadequate.

The inadequacy in the training of coaches appears not to be unique to Kenya. Kavuma (1995) reports that the athletics coaches in Uganda attributed their inadequacy to too short a duration of coach education courses that they attended and lack of exposure to

international events. Chen and Wu (2001) also note that a majority of the Division 1 Boys' Junior-High School basketball coaches in Taiwan who had undergone comprehensive coaching courses were not given any instruction in sport psychology, injury prevention and health education. This implies that for any coaching courses to be adequate, they should be offered over ample time, have standard curriculum, standard course materials, standard examination and should be facilitated by qualified and competent instructors (Nebiolo, 1991).

The coaches' rating of the level of cooperation received from Athletics Kenya in matters of their professional preparation is shown in table 27.

Table 27: Coaches Views about the Level of Cooperation Received from Athletics Kenya in Matters of Professional Preparation

Rating	No. of responses	Percentage
Very much	23	22.78%
Much	42	41.58%
No opinion	7	6.93%
Little	18	17.82%
Not at all	11	10.89%
Total	101	100%

Chi-square analysis of coaches' rating of the extent of cooperation received from Athletics Kenya by Kenya's athletics coaches in matters of professional preparation per the respondent coaches' years of experience.

Experience	Coaches' responses			
	Very much/much	No opinion	No/not at all	Total
Less than 1 year - 5 years	15	4	9	28
6-10 years	21	1	10	32
11-20 years	17	1	6	24
Over 20 years	12	1	4	17
Total	65	7	29	101

$X^2 = 4.38$, $df = 6$, $p = >0.05$ (Not significant)

Based on frequency count of responses, majority of the coaches acknowledged that Athletics Kenya gave much cooperation for their professional preparation. The Chi-square test indicated that the coaches' views concerning the extent to which they received cooperation from Athletics Kenya in matters of professional preparation was not significantly determined by their lengths of experience. Many of the coaches, irrespective of their lengths of experience were in agreement that Athletics Kenya was impartial in the support it accorded them for their professional preparation. Hence, the null hypothesis (HO6) that the rating of athletics coaches of the extent of cooperation received from the Athletics Kenya by athletics coaches was not significantly dependent on their years of experience was accepted.

Athletics Kenya, like any other affiliate of the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF), is vested with the responsibility of managing and developing of athletics in its country of operation. Management and development of Coaches Education Programmes is one of its noble responsibilities (IAAF, 1995; Ndo, 1997). Hence, the

results of the current study which indicate recognition of athletics coaches of the important role played by Athletics Kenya in their professional preparation confirms that the athletics federation recognizes, carries out and appreciates this specific responsibility to the extent of its capability and capacity. However, the frequency to which the athletics organization conducts in-service courses and clinics is an issue of concern to the athletics coaches as shown in the results of the coaches' responses in Table 21. The coaches rated the frequency at which in-service courses and coaching clinics are organized by Athletics Kenya as infrequent.

The athletics coaches' frequency of responses on the question of the extent to which they received cooperation from their athletes is presented in table 28.

Table 28: Athletics Coaches' Rating of the Level of Cooperation Received from their Athletes

Rating	No. of coaches	Percentage
A. Very much	61	60.40%
B. Much	35	34.65%
C. Opinion	3	2.97%
D. Little	2	1.98%
E. Very little	0	0%
Total	101	100%

Table 28 shows that the highest proportion of coaches, i.e. 61 (60.40%) and 35 (34.65%), received cooperation from their athletes, and the rest, i.e 3 (2.97%) and 2 (1.98) coaches responded otherwise.

The extent to which a coach is able to influence the behaviour and performance of his/her athletes may be judged partly by his/her ability to control and direct their activities in and out of training. Indeed, Jones (1997) points out that the core of any examination concerning effective coaching practice lies in the complex inter-relationship between the coach, athlete and the sport, and paramount within this structure is the interaction that exists between the three variables. Lack of cooperation between the coach and athlete, for instance, would lead to a breakdown in communication and adversely affect the athletes' training and performance.

From the exploratory study into the nature of the coach-athlete relationship in track and field athletics by Jowett and Gale (2002), it was found that commitment and cordiality are important variables in the coach-athlete relationship which must be based on coaches' and athletes' experiences with one another. Jones *et al.* (2002) also emphasize that the establishment of a 'special' positive relationship between coaches and their athletes is worthwhile but add that there is need for the coaches to remain at least "one-step away" from them, thus respecting and using authoritative coaching role as a resource to direct and organize. Hence, the present data which indicated that the majority of athletics coaches received much cooperation from their athletes was a positive factor in the development of athletes' potential. It is also an illustration of the coaches' professional preparedness to cultivate and sustain meaningful relationships with their athletes for the sake of enhancing the latter's performance.

The views of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers with regard to the level of effectiveness of athletics coaches in Kenya in their coaching roles are presented in table 29.

Table 29: The Rating of Athletics Coaches, AK Officials and Government Sports Officers of the Level of Effectiveness in Coaching of Kenya's Athletics Coaches

Respondents	Responses					
	Very effective	Effective	No. opinion	Ineffective	Very ineffective	Total
Athletics coaches	17(16.83%)	60(59.41%)	15(14.85%)	8(7.98%)	1(0.99%)	101(100%)
AK officials	5(4.76%)	60(57.14%)	5(4.76%)	34(32.38%)	1(0.96%)	105(100%)
Government sports officers	1(4.35%)	13(56.52%)	1(4.35%)	8(34.78%)	0(0%)	23(100%)
Total	23(10.04%)	133(58.08%)	21(9.17%)	50(21.83%)	2(0.88%)	229(100%)

$X^2 = 31.02$, $df = 8$, $p > 0.05$ (Significant)

In the rating of the effectiveness of athletics coaches, the largest proportion of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers, i.e. 133 (58.08%), indicated that the coaches were effective in their coaching roles. The proportion of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers, who rated coaches in Kenya as either ineffective or very ineffective accounted for less than a quarter of the total respondents. However, the Chi-square analysis revealed significant difference in the rating of the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the effectiveness of athletics coaches in Kenya. Out of the responses which rated the coaches as ineffective (Table 29), the largest proportion were from the AK officials and government sports officers, and only 8(16.00%) from the coaches. Hence, the null hypothesis (H_{07}) that the rating of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the effectiveness of Kenya's athletics coaches will not differ significantly was rejected.

This finding shows that whereas a majority of the coaches rated themselves as effective, the AK officials and government sports officers gave their independent evaluation of the coaches' performance as ineffective. It is therefore possible to argue that the coaches rate the performance of Kenya's athletics coaches as effective on the basis of the past glory of Kenya's commendable performances in the middle and distance races in various international competitions between the late 1950s and mid 1990s. A larger proportion of managers than coaches on the other hand rated the coaches as ineffective most likely in the light of the unimpressive performances of Kenya's athletes in international competitions especially in the sprints, field events and women's competitions.

Availability of effective and competent coaches in any sporting environment is a crucial factor to the development of the standards of sports performance (Beashel & Taylor, 1992; Jones, 1992). The International Association of Athletics federations also emphasizes the need for the management of athletes by competent coaches (Nebiolo, 1991). Effective coaches are those who help to enhance the competition skills and tactics of their athletes through application of appropriate body of knowledge and support (Thompson, 1991; Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999; Digel, 2001).

Table 30 shows the frequency count of the views of the coaches and those of the AK officials and government sports officers (Athletics managers) with regard to the professional training needs of athletics coaches in Kenya.

Table 30: Views of Athletics Coaches and Managers (AK Officials and Government Sports Officers) on the Training Needs of Kenyan Athletics Coaches.

Training need	No. of coaches responses	Rank	No. of managers responses	Rank	Total
Coaching clinics/seminars/ refresher courses	40(39.60%)	1	57(44.53%)	1	97(42.30%)
Coaching facilities and equipment	25(24.75%)	2	18(14.06%)	4	43(18.78%)
Literature on coaching	16(15.84%)	4	21(16.41%)	3	37(16.16%)
External exposure	17(16.83%)	3	31(24.22%)	2	48(20.96%)
Other	3(2.98%)	5	1(0.78%)	5	4(1.74%)
Total	101(100%)		128(100%)		229(100%)

Spearman's $r_s = 0.72$, $N=5$, $p < 0.05$ (Significant positive correlation)

It is evident from table 30 that the need for regular coaching clinics and refresher courses was the most crucial of all the other professional training needs. This need was supported by 97(42.36%) coaches in preference to others. In terms of proportions based on percentages, the need for external exposure of the coaches ranked second with a proportion of 48 (20.96%), followed by the need for coaching facilities and equipment, (43;18.78%), and provision of necessary coaching literature, (37;16.16%). The least 4(1.74%) designated as "other" include the need for coaching internships, more IAAF upgrading courses and sponsorships for coaching courses.

The Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient analysis showed a significantly positive relationship between the coaches' and managers' responses with regard to the training needs of athletics coaches in Kenya. There was no sufficient evidence therefore, to retain the null hypothesis (H_{08}) that there is no significant correlation between the athletics coaches' and managers' identification of the training needs of athletics coaches

in Kenya. This implies that the coaches and managers were consistent in agreement about the ranking of the training needs of athletics coaches in Kenya.

The results which indicated that the need for regular coaching clinics/seminars/refresher courses in Kenya ranked highest is a factor that must be addressed by Athletics Kenya and the government. Beashel & Taylor (1992), Wuest & Bucher (1995) emphasize that due to continuous growth and expansion of knowledge in the field of sports, it is imperative that coaches concentrate their attention on keeping abreast by accessing the to latest reading materials and in-service programmes through attendance of workshops, clinics, seminars and refresher courses. The need for knowledgeable and effective coaches is also emphasized in the Interaction Theory of Coaching propounded by Straub (1980). Knowledgeable coaches apply the kind of coaching behaviour that is acceptable and beneficial to their athletes. Wamwere (2000), for instance, calls on Athletics Kenya to hold more regular symposia as fora for charting out the future of athletics in Kenya.

A summary of responses of the athletics coaches and managers to the question about the problems that athletics coaches face, if any, are presented in table 31.

Table 31: Problem(s) of Athletics Coaches in Kenya

Nature of problem	No. of coaches responses	Rank	No. of managers responses	Rank	Total
Inadequate finances	16(15.84%)	1	21(16.41%)	1	37(16.16%)
Inadequate coaching equipment	16(15.84%)	1	20(15.63%)	2	36(15.72%)
Inadequate facilities	16(15.84%)	1	14(10.94%)	6	30(13.10%)
Interferences of foreign agents	10(9.90%)	6	19(14.84%)	3	29(12.66%)
Lack of professional association for athletics coaches	11(10.89%)	5	12(9.37%)	5	23(10.04%)
Low remuneration	8(7.92%)	7	15(11.72%)	4	23(10.04%)
Inadequate support from Athletics Kenya	12(11.88%)	4	10(7.81%)	7	22(9.61%)
Lack of employment for coaches	6(5.94%)	8	7(5.47%)	8	13(5.67%)
Insecurity of coaching positions/vacancies	4(3.96%)	9	4(3.12%)	9	8(3.49%)
Lack of cooperation from athletes	1(0.99%)	10	2(1.56%)	11	3(1.31%)
Other	0(0.00%)	12	3(2.35%)	10	3(1.31%)
No problem	1(0.99%)	10	1(0.78%)	12	2(0.87%)
Totals	101(100%)		128(100%)		229(100%)

Spearman $r_s = 0.57$, $N = 12$, $p < 0.05$ (Significant positive correlation)

The results of the responses of athletics coaches and managers (AK officials and government sports officers) in Table 31 show that the major problem faced by athletics coaches in Kenya is inadequate finances, with a larger proportion of 37 (16.16%) responses. In terms of ranking on the basis of percentage responses, inadequate coaching equipment, with a proportion of 36 (15.72%) responses, was identified as the second major problem of the coaches, and the third was inadequate athletics facilities with 30 (13.10%) responses. Interferences from foreign agents, with a proportion of 29 (12.66%), was the fourth major problem of athletics coaches in Kenya. The smallest number of

respondents, i.e. 2 (0.87%) coaches indicated that athletics coaches in Kenya did not have any problem.

An analysis of the responses of the athletics coaches and those of the managers using Spearman rank order correlation coefficient showed a significantly positive correlation between the two sets of data arising from the responses of the two groups. This means that the two groups of subjects concurred to a large extent on what problems the coaches faced from the main one to the least. Hence, there was no sufficient evidence to uphold the null hypothesis (H_{09}) that there will be no significant correlation between the athletics coaches' and managers' identification of the problems faced by athletics coaches in Kenya. It is therefore, glaringly evident that athletics coaches in the country are faced with problems that not only pose a hindrance to their professional growth but also to the performance of their duties.

Sport has become a big industry in the modern world. Due to the immense interest that people have vested in the sporting activities, such as athletics, enormous resources are required for the development and promotion of the activities (Wamukoya & Mwisukha, 2003). Coaches, like athletes, need adequate funds to run their training programmes, purchase equipment and sports gear, and meet cost of travel, accommodation and subsistence (Beashal & Taylor, 1992). Unfortunately, athletics coaches in Kenya have indicated (in the current study) that inadequate funds is the major stumbling block to their coaching work. Tuva (2003) concurs with the results of this study.

The results indicating that the athletics coaches encountered problems in the course of their professional preparation and coaching duties is a phenomenon that is not unique to Kenya. Digel (2001), also reports several problems faced by sports coaches in Germany: low remuneration, lack of job security, lack of time to spend with their families and infrequent in-service courses. The major problems faced in the training of coaches in Uganda include financial constraints and lack of adequate equipment and facilities (Nsengiyunva, 1997). In view of the various problems encountered by coaches, Digel (2001) suggests the need for the coaches to have professional unions or associations to enable them articulate their interests and address their disturbing needs and problems.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations for policy formulation and further research.

5.1.0 Summary of the Findings

The study set out to evaluate the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya. The main areas of focus in the study included scrutiny of the coaches' demographic information and areas of coaching specialization. Others were nature and level of training, subject matter (content) of the coaches' courses, adequacy of the duration of coaches' courses and rating of competence of course instructors. The study also evaluated assessment of coach trainees, coaching roles taught, frequency of coaching courses/clinics/seminars/refresher courses, availability of coaching literature and effectiveness of coaching courses. The level of support received by the coaches from their athletes and Athletics Kenya in matters of their professional preparation was also investigated. Professional training needs and problems of the coaches were also addressed.

The study was based on the following null hypotheses:

H₀₁ The coaches' opinions with regard to competence of their course instructors will not be significantly influenced by their academic qualifications.

- H₀₂ The coaches' views concerning the extent to which athletics coaches in Kenya access relevant coaching literature will not be significantly determined by their academic qualifications.
- H₀₃ The rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the frequency of coaching and in-service courses and clinics organized for athletics coaches each year will not differ significantly.
- H₀₄ There will be no significant difference in the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the extent to which Kenya needs to train coaches for the following events:
- i. Sprints
 - ii. Middle and distance races.
 - iii. Throws and jumps (field events)
- H₀₅ The athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers' rating of the level of adequacy of training of Kenya's athletics coaches will not differ significantly.
- H₀₆ The extent to which athletics coaches consider the cooperation and assistance they receive from Athletics Kenya in matters of professional preparation will not significantly depend on their years of experience as coaches.
- H₀₇ The rating of the effectiveness of athletics coaches in Kenya by athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers will not differ significantly.
- H₀₈ There will be no significant correlation between the athletics coaches and managers' (AK officials and government sports officers) identification of the professional training needs of athletics coaches in Kenya.

H₀₉ There will be no significant correlation between the athletics coaches' and managers' identification of the problems faced by athletics coaches in Kenya.

The findings of the study were as follows:

- i. The majority of athletics coaches in Kenya are males.
- ii. The largest proportion of athletics coaches were over 40 years of age.
- iii. The majority of the coaches are married, and are parents with children.
- iv. Many of the coaches had ordinary level of education. However, a few of the coaches are primary school leavers.
- v. The largest proportion of the coaches had coaching experience of over 6 years.
- vi. A larger proportion of the coaches handle teams belonging to uniformed forces, prisons and police departments.
- vii. Most of the athletics coaches in Kenya have other regular permanent employment apart from coaching. Majority of them are employees in Kenyan public service, i.e civil servants, soldiers, policemen, prison officers and teachers
- viii. The largest proportion of athletics coaches in Kenya were athletes before they became coaches.
- ix. Coaches for the middle and long distance races comprised a larger proportion than the ones who coached sprints and field events.
- x. Majority of athletics coaches in Kenya were trained through the IAAF Certification System, and a few had become coaches through knowledge and experience as athletes and reading of coaching literature.

- xi. The largest proportion of the coaches who had trained through the IAAF certification system had attained the lowest level of training, i.e the level I. Those who had attained the highest level (Diploma) of the IAAF certification were the least in number.
- xii. Out of all the content areas covered in the training of athletics coaches in Kenya, coaching theory and practice of athletics techniques and tactics received most attention followed by officiating. Psychology of sport received the least attention.
- xiii. More than half of the coaches indicated that their coaching courses lasted 2-4 weeks. The least number of the coaches were those who had trained for a period of one year and more.
- xiv. More athletics coaches indicated that the duration of coaching courses conducted for athletics coaches was adequate than those who indicated otherwise.
- xv. More coaches indicated that they had received their professional training locally (in Kenya) than those who trained abroad. In addition, a larger proportion of them indicated that their coaching instructors were locals (from Kenya).
- xvi. The coaches' rating of the competence of instructors for athletics coaching courses was significantly influenced by the level of their academic qualifications. Coaches with various levels of academic qualifications rated the competence of the instructors differently. However, majority of the coaches acknowledged that the instructors were competent.
- xvii. A larger proportion of the coaches indicated that they took both theory and practical examinations in the course of their coaching courses.

- xviii. The coaching role that received most attention in the professional preparation of coaches in Kenya was planning and conducting athletics training programmes. The next other role was organizing and officiating athletic events. However, conducting fitness tests and assessment of athletes was given the least attention.
- xix. The coaches' views with regard to the extent to which they accessed necessary coaching literature was not significantly influenced by the coaches' academic qualifications. A larger proportion of the coaches indicated they accessed to coaching literature infrequently.
- xx. There was a significant difference in the rating of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the frequency at which athletics coaches access coaching and in-service courses. Whereas a larger proportion of the coaches than AK officials and government sports officers indicated that the courses were frequent, a higher proportion of AK officials and government sports officers than coaches indicated that the courses were infrequent. However, the general observation from the responses showed that the courses were infrequent.
- xxi. A larger proportion of the coaches indicated that their coaching courses were sponsored by the Olympic Solidarity, followed by the IAAF/Athletics Kenya. The least number of the coaches sponsored themselves to attend the courses.
- xxii. A larger number of the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers were in agreement on the need for training of more coaches for sprints, field events, middle and long distant races.
- xxiii. A larger proportion of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers viewed the training of athletics coaches in Kenya as inadequate.

- xxiv. The coaches' opinions about the extent to which they received cooperation and assistance from Athletics Kenya did not significantly differ on the basis of their years of experience as coaches. Based on the frequency of their responses, most of the coaches indicated that they received much support from Athletics Kenya.
- xxv. More than 95% of the coaches acknowledged that they received much cooperation from their athletes.
- xxvi. The rating of the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers of the level of effectiveness of athletics coaches in Kenya differed significantly. Out of the proportion of the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers who rated the coaches as ineffective, the largest proportion was the one of the AK officials and government sports officers. However, the largest proportion of the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers indicated that the coaches were effective in their coaching roles.
- xxvii. There was a significantly positive correlation between the coaches and managers' (AK officials and government sports officers) responses with regard to the training needs of athletics coaches in Kenya. The need for regular coaching clinics/seminars/refresher courses ranked highest, followed by the need for external exposure.
- xxviii. There was a significant positive relationship between the coaches' and managers' identification of the problems of athletics coaches in Kenya. From their responses, the main problem of the coaches is inadequate finance followed by inadequate coaching equipment and facilities.

5.2.0 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study the following conclusions were made:

- (i) Male athletics coaches in Kenya outnumber the female coaches. The low level of involvement of women in athletics coaching may be attributed to their lack of interest in taking up coaching roles, biased selection of candidates for coaching courses that tends to favour men, effects of childbearing including domestic roles of women and the patriarchal nature of sport in the African society.
- (ii) Most of the athletics coaches in Kenya are over 40 years of age and have coaching experience of 6 years and above. This implies that most of the coaches are in the older age bracket. This could be because majority of them take up coaching duties after retiring from long active participation in athletics or because they take long time in school/college/university.
- (iii) Coaches who possess Ordinary level of education outnumber those with academic qualifications ranging from advanced school level to university. A few of Kenya's athletics coaches are primary school leavers. This implies that the IAAF regulation with regard to the level of education at which candidates can be selected for training as coaches is not adhered to. The IAAF recommends the ordinary level certificate of education as the minimum educational requirement for admission into athletics coaching courses.
- (iv) Most of the athletics coaches in Kenya are married and have children. This is an asset that puts them at an advantage in applying their experience as parents

to their coaching roles of taking care of young athletes, counselling and assisting them to enhance their performance.

- (v) The uniformed forces (armed forces, police and prisons departments) have a larger proportion of coaches than the rest of the provincial athletics organizations. The large number of coaches in the uniformed forces can be explained in terms of possible provision of more training opportunities to coaches in the uniformed forces than the other organizations and/or that more coaches are appointed in the uniformed forces. It is also argued that the strong emphasis put on sports and physical activities in the uniformed forces has created the need for and provision of many coaches to take care of the many sports programmes.
- (vi) Most of the athletics coaches in Kenya are not full-time coaches; they have other permanent occupations. This phenomenon implies that coaching cannot be wholly relied upon as a lifetime career or it is not well-paying enough to sustain the practitioners. Also the coaches see the coaching career as one that lacks security of tenure and has few opportunities for full-time employment.
- (vii) The largest proportion of athletics coaches in Kenya were former competitive athletes. The coaches' experience at competition level formed the foundation and equipped them with basic knowledge of skills and tactics, and stimulated their interest in taking up coaching roles.
- (viii) Kenya's athletics coaches who have specialized in the coaching of middle and distance races far outnumbered those who coach sprints and field events. The phenomenon is not surprising because of the athletics tradition in the country,

which appears to focus more attention on the middle and distance races because of the past successes that the country achieved in these events. In addition, the country has many role-models in the middle and long distance races, especially for those young athletes who are keenly interested in athletics.

- (ix) The IAAF is the organization that trains most of the athletics coaches in Kenya compared to any other local or foreign training organizations and institutions. This can be explained in terms of the fact that since the IAAF Regional Development Centre for the English-speaking countries is based in Nairobi, the country enjoys some benefit by having most of the coaches trained at the centre.
- (x) More athletics coaches who trained through the IAAF programme attained level I but only a few possessed levels II and III (Diploma). This implies that either very few courses are conducted for certification at levels II and III or very few coaches from the country are offered opportunities to train at these levels. In addition, the high cost of running the courses might be a hindrance to enrolment of many participants and restricts the number of courses held each year.
- (xi) The main subject matter for athletics coaches' course in Kenya is coaching theory and practice of athletics techniques and tactics, followed by officiating of athletics, and human anatomy and exercise, physiology. Psychology of sports received the least attention. In addition, supervised practicum on internship is not emphasized. It is therefore inferred that either the curriculum

does not cover all the necessary content areas or that there are limited number of instructors to teach some of the content areas such as psychology of sports.

- (xii) Most of the courses for athletics coaches in Kenya are conducted over a period of 2 to 4 weeks. This was explained in terms of the IAAF requirement whose courses last 16 days followed by unsupervised practical experience of at least one year.
- (xiii) Athletics coaches in Kenya view the duration over which coaching courses for athletics coaches are held as adequate. This was found to be the case most likely because the duration of 2 to 4 weeks conformed with the IAAF requirement. However, this rating is viewed as made by the coaches out of lack of information about the duration(s) of coaching courses in other foreign institutions and organizations, some of which are conducted over a period of two to three years.
- (xiv) Many of the coaches in Kenya were trained locally by instructors based in the country. Since the IAAF Regional Development Centre for the English-speaking countries in Africa is based in Nairobi, Kenya, it is logical to assume that majority of the coaches in the country are trained at the centre and that most of the instructors for the courses, especially level, I are drawn from Kenya. However, the IAAF Regional Development Centre contracts a number of foreign instructors to conduct some of the courses, particularly the level II and III, which are very limited in number each year.

- (xv) The instructors who facilitate coaching courses for Kenya's athletics coaches are considered competent by the athletics coaches. However, this perception differed significantly when analysed on the basis of the coaches' academic qualifications. Coaches with various levels of academic credentials significantly differed in the way they rated the competence of the instructors because the abilities and attributes that they assessed probably varied i.e knowledge of content, their methodology of instruction, communication ability and coverage of content.
- (xvi) Practical and written examinations are important features in the assessment of trainee athletics coaches in Kenya. This shows that instructors who conduct courses for coaches do recognise the importance of administering examinations as a tool of determining the extent to which their learners have retained knowledge that is disseminated to them. Results of examinations for trainee coaches are also necessary in determining their areas of strengths and weaknesses, and forms the basis for their upgrading.
- (xvii) The main coaching roles for which athletics coaches receive professional preparation include planning and conducting athletics training programmes, followed by organising and officiating athletics events. This implies that the instructors mainly emphasize on the coaches' role of developing athletes' techniques and tactics but view other roles such as fitness testing and assessment as either subsidiary or out of the coaches' jurisdiction.
- (xviii) Athletics coaches in Kenya do not access relevant coaching literature on a regular basis. Their levels of academic qualifications do not significantly

determine the extent to which they access coaching literature. This is attributable to the scarcity of literature on athletics coaching in the country.

- (xix) Athletics coaches in Kenya do not frequently access coaching and in-service courses/clinics. However, the rating of this frequency by the athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers differs significantly. Whereas more coaches than AK officials and government sports officers are of the view that the courses are frequent, a higher proportion of the AK officials and government sports officers than coaches on the other hand, view the courses as infrequent. Since the AK officials and government sports officers are directly responsible for the organisation of the courses, they are better placed to know that the courses that they organise each year are inadequate. More frequent in-service courses are particularly important in keeping coaches abreast of new developments in athletics coaching.
- (xx) The views of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers in Kenya indicated that there is need to train more coaches in all the areas of athletics: sprints, middle and distance races and field events. The rating of the coaches and that of the AK officials and government sports officers on the extent to which the country should train coaches in all the areas of athletics does not differ significantly because they generally agreed on the need to train more coaches. This implies that the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers view the number of available coaches for the various athletics events as inadequate to meet the high demand of coaching the many athletes in the country. The need for the training of more coaches in sprints and field

events can particularly be attributed to the country's poor performances in these events over the years; more coaches are required so as to improve performance in these events.

- (xxi) The extent of the cooperation and support that the coaches receive from Athletics Kenya in matters of their professional preparation is adequate. The coaches' rating of the extent of cooperation and support they receive from Athletics Kenya did not significantly depend on their years of experience as coaches. This implies that Athletics Kenya is impartial in providing the necessary assistance towards the professional growth of its coaches irrespective of the length of time that each of the coaches had been involved in coaching.
- (xxii) The views of athletics coaches, AK officials and government sports officers with regard to the effectiveness of the coaches in their coaching roles differed significantly. Whereas many of the coaches rated themselves as effective, a larger proportion of AK officials and government sports officers gave their independent evaluation of the coaches' performance as ineffective. The coaches' rating of their performance as effective might be based on the past glory of Kenya's commendable performance in the middle and distance races, while the AK officials and government sports officers' rating is most likely viewed in the light of the unimpressive performances of the country's athletes in the sprints and field events. However, based on the frequency of responses by the three groups, the coaches were rated as effective in their coaching roles.

- (xxiii) Kenyan athletics coaches and managers (AK officials and government sports officers) view the need for regular coaching and in-service courses and clinics as the main training need for athletics coaches in the country. There was a significantly positive correlation between the coaches' and managers' identification of the main professional training need(s) of athletics coaches in the country in which the need for regular coaching and in-service courses and clinics ranked first.
- (xxiv) In the order of severity, inadequate finances, inadequate coaching equipment and facilities are viewed by athletics coaches and managers as the main problems faced by athletics coaches in Kenya. There was a significantly positive relationship between the coaches' and managers' identification of these problems.
- (xxv) On the overall, the coaches, AK officials and government sports officers considered the level of training of athletics coaches in Kenya as inadequate. Their rating of the adequacy of the level of training of Kenya's athletics coaches did not differ significantly. Many of them rated the level of training offered to athletics coaches in Kenya as inadequate probably due to the inadequate coverage of content, limited access to literature on coaching and to infrequent in-service courses and clinics organized annually for the coaches.

5.3.0 Recommendations for Sports Policy and Practice

Arising from the findings of this study, the following are recommended for policy formulation and implementation:

- i. Athletics Kenya should follow the IAAF criteria for selection of personnel into coaching courses. Among any other important criteria, the Ordinary Level Certificate should be the minimum academic qualification for potential athletics coach trainees as prescribed in the IAAF regulations.
- ii. Athletics Kenya needs to consider hiring a few full-time qualified athletics coaches in its branches rather than relying on the services of volunteer coaches who have other fulltime permanent occupations. This will ensure availability of coaches who are committed to their coaching duties instead of those who pay lip service to coaching and pursue other forms of employment.
- iii. Athletics Kenya and the government should ensure gender balance in the selection of trainee coaches so that potential female coaches are given equal opportunities for training with the male ones. This would assist in availing the required number of female coaches who may be relied upon to enhance women's performance in athletics.
- iv. A centralized national academy, institute or organization should be set up by Athletics Kenya in collaboration with the Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services to train local athletics coaches rather than relying mainly on the IAAF which shoulders the responsibility of training coaches in many other parts of

the world. The coaching courses organized by IAAF each year are too few to meet the increasing demand for athletics coaches in the country.

- v. A standard curriculum should be drawn by Athletics Kenya in collaboration with the Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services to ensure that coaching programmes drawn and conducted for athletics coaches in Kenya do not only emphasize teaching of techniques and tactics, officiating and scientific aspects of coaching. The curriculum should also cater for all other critical content areas including psychology of sports, which appears to have been given very little attention. In addition, supervised practicum or internship should be introduced and emphasized as an important process in the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya.
- vi. There is need for Athletics Kenya and the government to continue ensuring that trainee coaches are instructed by competent and knowledgeable instructors.
- vii. Athletics Kenya should continuously uphold practical and written examinations as important tools of assessing trainee coaches as reported in the present study.
- viii. Athletics Kenya should ensure that education programmes drawn and conducted for the professional preparation of athletics coaches in Kenya incorporate fitness testing and assessment of athletes among the other roles for which the athletics coaches are prepared. This is because fitness assessment of athletes is one of the major roles that a coach should carry out yet it is given minimal attention. It is only through fitness testing and assessment that coaches would be able to establish the effectiveness of the training programmes.

- ix. Athletics Kenya, the government, Kenya National Sports Council and National Olympic Committee of Kenya should either set up learning resource centres or libraries in locations where athletics coaches in various corners of the country can easily and frequently access coaching literature, or put in place any other mechanisms through which variety of the literature can easily be relayed to them on a regular basis, especially via the internet.
- x. Athletics Kenya in collaboration with the Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services should plan and conduct coaching and in-service courses for athletics coaches more regularly than has been the case in the past. Training programmes or schedules should be drawn at the beginning of each year to ensure that coaches for the various athletics events are given equal and regular opportunities for training. In addition to training of the coaches locally, Athletics Kenya and the government should establish linkages with external institutions and organizations where the coaches can be enrolled for coaching courses. This is an important avenue through which the coaches can be given external exposure.
- xi. Athletics Kenya and the Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services need to consider setting up a national athletics coaches' licensing board comprising of highly qualified athletics coaches and sports managers to establish national standards that must be adhered to in the training and hiring of athletics coaches. This measure will ensure that coaches' education programmes are effective, and that only qualified and competent coaches are involved in the coaching of athletics in the country.

- xii. Athletics Kenya and the Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services should look for more alternative ways of raising funds to cater for the training needs of athletics coaches in the country. Raffles, lotteries and more sponsorship are some of the alternate sources of funds that may be exploited.

5.4.0 Recommendations for Further Research

It is suggested that further research be carried out to:

- i. Analyze the reasons for the dismal performances of Kenyan athletes in sprints and field events other than factors relating to the professional preparation of coaches who handle them.
- ii. Comparatively analyze coaches' certification programmes in Kenya with those of other countries that are renown for athletic excellence such as the United States, Cuba and Germany, with the aim of borrowing new ideas to strengthen the certification programmes in the country.
- iii. Investigate reasons for the under-representation of women in coaching with the view of determining ways through which many of them can be involved. More female coaches could assist enhance the participation and performances of female Kenyan athletes in international athletics competitions.

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APPENDICES**APPENDIX A****LETTER TO RESPONDENTS**

C/o KENYATTA UNIVERSITY,
PHYSICAL & HEALTH EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT,
P.O. BOX 43844,
NAIROBI.

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a doctorate student in the Department of Exercise, Recreation and Sports Science, Kenyatta University. I am carrying out a study entitled "Evaluation of the professional preparation and certification of athletics coaches in Kenya". The study is the main requirement for the course, and I hope to come up with findings that will promote the development of athletics in Kenya.

The purpose of this letter is to request your assistance in filling the attached questionnaire. Your information will be used only for the purposes of the study and will be treated with the highest degree of confidentiality. Your name is not required so as to ensure secrecy and maximum confidentiality of your responses.

I thank you most sincerely in advance, for accepting to respond to the questionnaire.

ANDANJE MWISUKHA

APPENDIX B

**STATISTICS OF KENYA'S NATIONAL AND PROVINCIAL ATHLETICS
COACHES (AS PER THE YEAR 2002)**

Rift Valley Province	-	16
Western Province	-	14
Nyanza Province	-	10
Central Province	-	12
Nairobi Province	-	9
Eastern Province	-	9
Coast Province	-	8
North Eastern Province	-	4
Armed Forces Sports Organization	-	21
Kenya Universities sports Association	-	9
Kenya Police sports Organization	-	10
Kenya Prisons Athletics Association	-	8
Kenya Communications Sports Organization	-	4
National Coach	-	1
Total	-	134

Source: Athletics Kenya and Provincial Affiliates

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ATHLETICS COACHES

SECTION A - PERSONAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION

For each of the items from below, indicate by ticking [✓] in the spaces provided the response or choice that best represents your view(s) or answer.

1. Please indicate your gender.

A. Male []

B. Female []

2. What is your age from the following age categories?

A. 25 years and below []

B. 26 - 29 years []

C. 30 - 34 years []

D. 35 - 39 years []

E. 40 - 49 years []

F. 50 and above years []

3. What is your marital status?

A. Single []

B. Married []

C. Divorced []

D. Widowed []

4. Indicate if you have any children (daughters/sons):

A. Yes []

B. No []

5. What is your highest level of education from the following:

A. Primary School level []

B. "O" level (form one to four) []

C. "A" level (form five to six) []

D. Post-secondary College level []

E. University level []

6. How long have you been involved in coaching athletics?

A. Less than one year []

B. 1 to 5 years []

C. 6 to 10 years []

D. 11 to 20 years []

E. Over 20 years []

7. Which athletics team do you coach regularly?

A. School []

B. College/University []

C. Parastatal []

D. Athletics Club/A.K province []

E. Uniformed forces team (Armed forces, prisons and police)

[]

F. Any other, specify _____

8. A part from coaching, do you have any other or permanent employment?

A. Yes []

B. No []

9. If your answer in 9 (above) is "Yes", please specify the name/nature of your other employment _____

10. Which of the following answers represents the extent to which your regular employment hinders or interferes with your role as a coach?
- A. Very much []
- B. Much []
- C. Not sure []
- D. Little extent []
- E. Not at all []
- F. Not applicable (those without other employment) []
11. Did you have any experience as a competitive athlete before you became an athletics coach?
- A. Yes []
- B. No []
12. If your answer in above (10) is "Yes" please specify the highest level that you competed as an athlete:
- A. School /College/University/village level []
- B. District/Provincial level []
- C. National level []
- D. International level []
- E. Not applicable (non-athletes) []

Section B - Training as a Coach

1. Which specific area of athletics do you coach?

- A. Sprints (short races) []
- B. Middle and long distance races []
- C. Field events []
- D. Not sure []

2. Which of the following statement(s) describe how you trained professionally as an athletics coach?

- A. Knowledge from previous experience as an athlete and reading of coaching literature []
- B. Training as a Physical Education teacher []
- C. Training under the International Association of Athletics Federations Coaches Educational and Certification System. []
- D. Attendance of coaches courses in foreign university and or college. []
- E. Attendance of athletics coaching clinics and seminars. []

3. If you trained under the International Association of Athletics Federations coaches educational and certification system, please indicate the highest level attained:

- A. Level I []
- B. Level II []
- C. Level III (Diploma level) []

D. None of the above (A - C) applies (For those who have not undergone the IAAF Coaches Certification). []

4. Where did you take your highest level of coaching course?

A. Locally (in Kenya) []

B. Abroad (outside Kenya) []

C. Not applicable (for those not trained) []

5. Which of the following content areas were adequately covered in the athletics courses you attended and/or in the course of your professional preparation as a coach?

A. Coaching theory and practice of athletics techniques and tactics

Yes [] No []

B. Biomechanics (study of human movement)

Yes [] No []

C. Human anatomy and physiology of exercise (structure and functioning of human body in exercise/physical activity)

Yes [] No []

D. Officiating athletics (rules and regulations of athletics)

Yes [] No []

E. Principles of training (development of physical fitness)

Yes [] No []

F. Psychology of sport.

Yes [] No []

G. First aid and safety in athletics/ sports Medicine

Yes [] No []

H. Sports nutrition

Yes [] No []

I. Organization and administration of athletics Yes [] No []

J. Any other? Please specify _____

6. How long did the highest coaching course you took last? Please indicate the length of time from the following:

- A. Less than a week []
- B. Two to four weeks []
- C. Two to eleven months []
- D. One year and more []
- E. Not applicable (for those not professionally trained) []

7. What is your rating of the adequacy of the length of time taken on your highest coaching course?

- A. Very adequate []
- B. Adequate []
- C. No opinion []
- D. Inadequate []
- E. Very inadequate []
- F. Not applicable (for those not trained) []

8. Where did the instructors/lecturers who conducted your highest level of coaching course come from?

- A. Locally (from Kenya) []
- B. Abroad (outside Kenya) []
- C. Both Kenya and outside Kenya []
- D. Not sure []
- E. Non of A - C above (for those who are not trained) []

9. In your own view, how competent and effective were the course instructors/lecturers?

A. Very competent []

B. Competent []

C. No opinion []

D. Incompetent. []

E. Very incompetent []

F. Not applicable (for those who are not trained) []

10. Who sponsored the athletics coaching courses that you have so far attended?

A. Self sponsored? []

B. Sponsorship by employer institution []

C. Sponsorship by the Athletics Kenya/International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF) []

D. Sponsorship from the Olympic solidarity []

E. None of the above (A-D) (for those who are not trained) []

F. If any other, please specify _____

11. Specify if you sat any written examination at the end or during the highest coaching course you attended.

A. Yes []

B. Not sure []

C. No []

D. Not applicable (for those who are not trained) []

12. Specify if you took any practical examination during or at the end of the highest coaching course you attended.

- A. Yes []
- B. Not sure []
- C. No []
- D. Not applicable (for those who are not trained) []

13. Which of the following statement describes the frequency at which coaching and in-service or refresher-coaching courses/clinics are organised for Kenya's athletics coaches?

- A. Very frequently []
- B. Frequently []
- C. No opinion []
- D. Infrequently []
- E. Very Infrequently []

14. How frequently do you access literature (books, magazines, journals e t c) on athletics coaching?

- A. Very frequently []
- B. Frequently []
- C. No opinion []
- D. Infrequently []
- E. Very infrequently []

15. Which of the following statements describes the level of cooperation and support you receive from your athletes in matters of professional training?

- A. Very much []
- B. Much []

- C. No opinion []
- D. No []
- E. Not at all []

16. Which of the following statements describe the level of cooperation and support you receive from Athletics Kenya and/or its agents in matters of professional training?

- A. Very much []
- B. Much []
- C. No opinion []
- D. Little []
- E. Not at all []

17. Which of the following coaching role(s) have you been adequately prepared for during your professional preparation as a coach?

- A. Planning and conducting training programmes for athletes
Yes [] No []
- B. Conducting fitness tests and evaluation of athletes performance
Yes [] No []
- C. Advising and giving psychological and mental support to athletes
Yes [] No []
- D. Organizing and officiating athletic competitions Yes [] No []
- E. If any other, please specify _____

18. What is your view about the adequacy of the level of training of Kenya's athletics coaches?

- A. Very adequately trained []
- B. Adequately trained []
- C. No opinion []
- D. Inadequately trained []
- E. Very inadequately trained []

19. Indicate the extent to which Kenya needs to train specialized coaches, if any, at all, in the following athletics events:

(i) Sprints (short races)

- A. Very much []
- B. Much []
- C. No opinion []
- D. No []
- E. Not at all []

(ii) Middle and long distance races

- A. A. Very much []
- B. Much []
- C. No opinion []
- D. No []
- E. Not at all []

(iii) Throws and jumps (field events)

- A. A. Very much []
- B. Much []
- C. No opinion []
- D. No []
- E. Not at all []

20 What is your rating of the level of effectiveness of Kenya's athletics coaches?

- A. Very effective []
- B. Effective []
- C. Not sure of level of effectiveness []
- D. Ineffective []
- E. Very ineffective []

21. What is your main professional training need from the following? (Tick only one)

- A. Regular coaching clinics/ seminars/ in service/ refresher courses
[]
- B. Relevant facilities and equipment for athletics coaching
[]
- C. Relevant literature (books, journals, magazines, e t c) on athletics coaching
[]
- D. External exposure []
- E. If any other, please specify _____

22. What main problem do you face as a coach, if any? (Tick only ONE of the following problems listed)

- A. Lack of cooperation from athletes []
- B. Inadequate support from Athletics Kenya []
- C. Inadequate sports facilities []
- D. Lack of adequate coaching equipment []
- E. Lack of employment opportunities for coaches []
- F. Low remuneration (salaries, allowances and other benefits) []
- G. Insecurity of coaching vacancies/ positions []
- H. Lack of national coaches Association to address coaches Professional issues []
- I. Interference of foreign athletics agents []
- J. Inadequate finances to cater for your activities []
- K. None of the above A-J (for those who have no problem) []
- L. If any other (s), please specify _____

APPENDIX D

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SPORTS ADMINISTRATORS AND ATHLETICS
OFFICIALS (ATHLETICS MANAGERS)**

For each of the items below, indicate by ticking in the spaces provided to show the response that best represents your view(s) or answer

1. Please indicate your gender

A. Male []

B. Female []

2. What is your age from the following age categories?

A. 25 years and below []

B. 26-29 years []

C. 30-34 years []

D. 35-39 years []

E. 40-49 []

F. 50 and above []

3. What is your marital status?

A. Single []

B. Married []

C. Divorced []

D. Widowed []

E. If any other, please specify _____

4. What is your highest level of education from the following?

- A. Primary school level []
- B. O level (form 1 - 4) []
- C. A-level (form 5-6) []
- D. Post - secondary college level []
- E. University level []

5. How long have you been involved in sports/ athletics management?

- A. Less than 1 year. []
- B. 1-5 years []
- C. 6-10 years []
- D. 11-20 years []
- E. Over 20 years []

6. What is your view about the general level of training of Kenya's athletics coaches?

- A. Very adequately trained []
- B. Adequately trained []
- C. Not sure []
- D. Inadequately trained []
- E. Very inadequately trained []

7. Indicate the extent to which Kenya needs to train specialized coaches, if any, at all, in the following athletics events:

(i) Sprints (short races)

- A. Very much []
- B. Much []

- C. No opinion []
- D. No []
- E. Not at all []

(ii) Middle and long distance races

- A. Very much []
- B. Much []
- C. No opinion []
- D. No []
- E. Not at all []

(iii) Throws and jumps (field events)

- A. A. Very much []
- B. Much []
- C. No opinion []
- D. No []
- E. Not at all []

8. What is your rating of the level of effectiveness of Kenya's athletics coaches?

- A. Very effective []
- B. Effective []
- C. No opinion []
- D. Ineffective []
- E. Very ineffective []

9. What is your view about the frequency to which athletics coaches in Kenya access coaching courses/ clinics/ refresher/ in-service courses each year?

- A. Very frequently []
- B. Frequently []
- C. No opinion []
- D. Infrequently []
- E. Very infrequently []

10. In your view, what is the most serious profession - related training need of Kenya's athletics coaches, if any, from the following (Tick only ONE):

- A. Regular coaching clinics/ refresher/ in-service course for them []
- B. Relevant literature (books, journals, magazines e t c) on athletics coaching []
- C. Need for athletics facilities and equipment []
- D. External exposure []

If any other, please specify _____

11. In your view, what is the MAIN profession-related problem of Kenya's athletics coaches, if any, from the following? (Tick only ONE)

- A. Lack of cooperation from athletes []
- B. Inadequate support from Athletics Kenya []
- C. Inadequate sports facilities []
- D. Lack of adequate coaching equipment []
- E. Lack of employment opportunities for coaches []
- F. Low remuneration (salaries, allowances and other benefits)[]

- G. Insecurity of coaching vacancies/ positions []
- H. Lack of national coaches' association to address coaches professional issues []
- I. Interference of foreign athletics agents []
- J. Inadequate finances to cater for coaches activities []
- K. None of the above A-J (if no problem) []
- L. Other problem? Please specify? _____