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**MANAGEMENT OF ELITE MIDDLE AND LONG DISTANCE
RUNNERS IN KENYA**

BY

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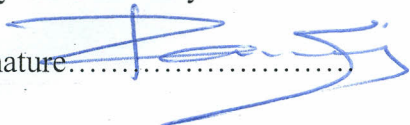
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DECLARATION

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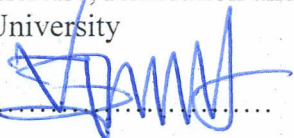


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DEDICATION

To my mom Regina Kanyiba Nyaga, the greatest athlete of her time and my dad Erastus
Bullet Nyaga, I dedicate this work to you

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My appreciation and honest gratitude goes to my University Supervisors, Dr. Andanje Mwisukha and Dr. Vincent O. Onywera for their assistance, guidance and being my inspiration to study harder.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AFAHPER-SD	Africa Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sports and Dance
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AK	Athletics Kenya
AKO	Athletics Kenya Official(s)
AM	Athletic Motivation
AMQ	Athletics Management Questionnaire
ARDI	Athletes' Retirement Decision Inventory
CAA	Confederation of African Athletics
CAM	Career Athletic Motivation
EPO	Erythropoietin
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
FMLA	Family Medical Leave Act
GCOS	General Causality Orientations Scale
GSO	Government Sports Officers
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IAAF	International Association of Athletics Federations
IAAFRDC	International Association of Athletics Federations Regional Development Center
IF	International Sport Federation
IOC	International Olympic Committee
KAAA	Kenya Amateur Athletics Association

KNSC	Kenya National Sports Council
NCAA	National Collegiate Athletic Association
NOCK	National Olympic Committee of Kenya
POSQ	Perception of Success Questionnaire
SAM	Student Athletic Motivation
SAMSAQ	Student Athletes' Motivation toward Sport and Academic Questionnaire
SAS	Sport Anxiety Scale
SCQ	Sports Climate Questionnaire
SIMS	Situational Motivation Scale
SMS	Sports Motivation Scale
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UCI	International Cycling Union
USADA	United States of America Doping Agency
VOA	Voice Of America
WADA	World Anti-Doping Agency

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms are defined as used in this study:

AK officials- Athletics Kenya's provincial chairpersons, their assistants, secretaries, public relations officers, and treasurers

Athlete- Kenya's provincial middle and long distance runner who has participated in national and/ or international competitions

Athletics Kenya- National body/ organization that governs athletics in Kenya

Elite Athlete- Kenya's middle and long distance runner who competes at national and international competitions

Government Sports Officers- Kenya's provincial public service sports officers.

International Competitions- These include All Africa Games, Commonwealth Games, World Athletics Championships and Olympic Games.

Management- Practice of taking care of athletes' concerns in terms of quality of training, guidance and counseling, motivation after good performance and provision of funds to cater for athletes' expenses. It also involves availing athletes of necessary facilities and equipment.

Middle and Long Distance Events- These are 800m, 1000m, 1500m, 2000m, 1 Mile, 3000m flat, 3000m-steeple chase, 5000m and 10000m races.

Motivation- Incentives which athletes and coaches get after successful competitions e.g. monetary reward, trophies, medals or any other material gifts. It also includes appreciation of athletes by giving them manageable workloads and public recognition.

Tort- A name given to a concept of law that creates and provides remedies for civil wrongs that do not arise out of contractual duties. A person who is legally injured is able to use tort law to recover damages from someone who is legally responsible, especially as a result of negligence.

Uniform Training Programs- Training schedules prepared by the same coach, for a certain population of athletes training together in a unified venue.

Anonymous- An elite runner so called for anonymity purpose

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the current study was to establish how effective elite middle and long distance athletes are managed in Kenya. The study took place at Nyayo National Stadium where provincial athletics teams together with their coaches had converged for the 2007 Provincial Championships. Athletics Kenya officials and government sports officers were accessed at their respective offices in provincial branches. The target population comprised of 355 middle and long distance athletes, 107 athletics coaches, 42 Athletics Kenya officials and 24 government sports officers. Random sampling method was used to sample 185 (52%) athletes, 49 (46%) athletic coaches, 34 (80%) Athletics Kenya officials and 12 (50%) government sports officers for the study. A questionnaire was used as an instrument for data collection. The questionnaire sought information on managerial practices of motivation, Kenyan coaches' adequacy and qualification, adequacy of equipment and facilities, athletes' selection procedures, uniform program-drawing, and effectiveness of guidance and counseling services offered to the Kenyan athletes. Descriptive statistics was used to summarize the data. One- way ANOVA was used to establish relationships between athletes', coaches' government sports officers' and AK officials' responses. The alpha level was set at 0.05. The results were then presented in tables, charts and graphs. The responses on ways used to motivate Kenyan athletes, extent of motivation given to athletes, provision of adequate funds for training and competition, drawing of uniform training programs and provision of guidance and counseling services showed a significant difference (.040, .003, .000, .012 and .000 respectively). On the other hand, the responses on adequacy and qualification of Kenyan coaches, provision of adequate facilities and equipment and methods used to select Kenyan athletes for international competition did not show any significant difference (.204, .317 and .737 respectively).

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the Problem

Athletics development in Kenya traces back to 1952 when the federation, Kenya Amateur Athletics Association (KAAA) governing athletics was set up by Sir Derek Erskine. Runners by then were mainly affiliated with governmental organizations like Army, Prisons and Police where quality training was offered. This being a colonial era, these institutions were well organized to come up with a consistent program for the athletes. KAAA was to change to Athletics Kenya in 2002 and the federation is affiliated to International Association of Athletics Federations and Confederation of African Athletics (CAA) (Wikipedia, 2008).

Kenya participated for the first time in international athletics at the 1954 Vancouver Commonwealth Games. Since then, the participation and performance of the country's athletes has been impressive especially in the middle and long distance races (Onywera, 2006; Simiyu, 2007). According to the International association of Athletics Federations (IAAF) top-fifty ranking in all middle and long distance individual events, Kenya leads with 51 athletes (25.5%), followed by USA, 19 (9.5%), and Spain, 16 (8%) (Appendix E).

In terms of athletics records registered in long and middle distance events according to nationalities of the holders, Kenya leads with 14 records (17.5%), followed by Australia,

10 (12.25%), and Qatar, 9 (11.25%) as shown in Appendix I. Among the record holders in various events, 9 (11.25%) records are held by Kenyan athletes who have changed their nationality (Appendix F).

In a sample of 20 Kenyan top athletes, only 6 out of 20 are based in Kenya, while the rest are based in foreign countries, mainly Europe (Manners, 2007). Among these athletes, all their managers are from Europe, especially Italy with only two of their coaches being Kenyans (Appendix G).

In order for Kenya to ensure sustained and effective performance of her athletes in international competitions, it is important that professionals who really know the subject of management and how to use resources effectively to produce timely and efficient results in a quality-oriented way should manage the athletes properly. Management is concerned with diverse factors that include the deployment of material, human and financial resources, within the design of sports organizations, their structure and development (Bennett, 1997). Management in sports further involves organizing for training and competition programs, controlling funds and number of competitions for individual athletes, guiding athletes on matters of investment and academics, motivating them and other athletics personnel, directing athletes on doping, nutrition and contract signing with various agents (Bridges and Libby, 1996). Other areas include relationships with media, coaches and family, decision-making regarding training schedules, and planning for athletes' retirement (Bridges and Libby, 1996; Honeybourne, 2003).

The organizational structure of sports in Kenya is headed by the Minister for youth affairs and Sports and the Commissioner of Sports who represent the government, Athletics Kenya (AK) as the federation that oversees athletics matters in the country, Kenya National Sports Council (KNSC) to which AK is an affiliate member with a role of linking the federation with the government, and National Olympic Committee of Kenya (NOCK) whose responsibility is to prepare Kenyan athletes for the Olympics and help in the promotion of sports. AK as the legitimate body that oversees athletics activities in the country has 15 branches (provinces) representing athletics organization spread throughout the country. The 15 branches include: North Rift, South Rift, Western, Nyanza South, Nyanza North, Central, Nairobi, Eastern, Southern, Coast, North Eastern, Armed Forces Sports Organization, Kenya Universities Sports Association, Kenya Police Sports Association, and Kenya Prisons Athletics Association. These branches under the umbrella of AK in collaboration with the government, KNSC, and NOCK are concerned with ensuring the development of athletics in Kenya and taking care of athletes' welfare (Mwisukha, 2006). In addition, each province has a government sports officer who represents the government in all sporting matters including athletics at the provincial level.

Decisions that lead to meeting the training and competition needs of the athletes should be made at all times. Such needs are varied, and include: provision of incentives (motivation), qualified coaches and personnel to handle athletes and athletics matters, training facilities and equipment and funding for athletes' training and competition. In addition, the processes and procedures used in the selection of athletes for competitions is

another important factor inherent in the broader sphere of athletes' management (Mwisukha, *et al.*, 2003).

Since a substantial number of Kenyan athletes are based in foreign countries and are managed by foreign managers, it is not clearly evident how they are managed. This phenomenon is further compounded by the fact that quite a good number of up-and-coming and elite athletes have continued to change their citizenship to other countries where they are taken care of by foreigners. However, another large proportion of the athletes are managed locally involving several foreign and local managers. Therefore, it is imperative to establish how Kenyan athletes are managed.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Over the last 5 decades, Kenya has been dominating world athletics especially in middle and long distance races (Onywera, 2006). Currently, according to the IAAF's top fifty rankings in middle and long distance individual events, Kenya leads with the largest number of athletes, 51 (25.5%), followed by USA, 19 (9.5%) and Spain, 16 (8%) (Appendix E). With regard to all records in middle and long distance races, Kenya has the highest number of athletes who are the record holders: 14 (17.5%), followed by Australia, 10 (12.25%) and Qatar, 9 (11.25%) as shown in Appendix I. However, despite this impressive performance, most of the top Kenyan athletes are managed and coached by foreigners, and a number of the athletes have been changing citizenship (Manners, 2007). Indeed, there are many Kenyan athletes running for other foreign countries in the diaspora especially in Arab Emirates (Qatar, Bahrain and Oman) where colossal sums of money and other forms of luxuries like homes and cars are offered in exchange for

citizenship (Njenga, 2007). This is definitely a disturbing factor that threatens the future of athletics in Kenya.

In addition to this phenomenon, several of the athletes have lamented about the manner in which they are managed. For instance, John Kipkemboi Kibowen, one of the star athletes in Kenya laments:

'After national team is selected, a totally new coach is imposed on athletes yet he has no idea how the athlete had been training'
(The Standard Newspaper, March 22nd 2007- Pg 14).

This study therefore, sought to establish the extent to which middle and long distance Kenyan athletes are effectively managed. The variables that were investigated included assessment of adequacy of incentives, athletic technical personnel, facilities and equipment for training and competition provided for Kenya's athletes. Other information that was sought included effectiveness of guidance and counseling services for the athletes, methods used in selecting athletes for international competitions and the extent of involvement of athletes in decision-making concerning issues that affect them.

1.2 Objectives of the study

Objectives of the study were to:

- i. To establish if Kenyan athletes are effectively managed by qualified coaches.
- ii. To investigate whether uniform training programs are drawn for middle and long distance runners in Kenya while preparing for national and international competitions.

- iii. To establish whether Kenyan athletes are provided with adequate athletics facilities and equipment.
- iv. To investigate the adequacy of funds provided for the training and competition of Kenya's middle and long distance athletes.
- v. To investigate strategies used to motivate Kenyan athletes and adequacy of the incentives.
- vi. To establish the effectiveness of the methods used to select athletes for international competitions are the most effective.
- vii. To determine if Kenya's athletes are provided with guidance and counseling services on investment, balance of family and career roles, HIV-AIDS, doping in sports and career transition.
- viii. To establish whether Kenyan athletes move to foreign countries in search of better management and care.
- ix. To determine whether athletics facilities and equipment abroad are more adequate and advanced compared to those in Kenya.

1.3 Null Hypotheses

H₀₁ There would be no significant difference in responses amongst AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on the quality of coaches who manage Kenya's athletes.

H₀₂ There would be no significant difference in the views of AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on the drawing of uniform training program for athletes in Kenya while preparing for national and international competitions.

- H₀₃ There would be no significant difference in the responses of AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on adequacy of athletics facilities and equipment provided to Kenyan athletes.
- H₀₄ There would be no significant difference in the views of AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on the adequacy of funds provided to Kenyan athletes to meet their training and competition expenses.
- H₀₅ There would be no significant difference in the opinions of AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on adequacy and ways in which Kenyan athletes are provided with incentives.
- H₀₆ There would be no significant difference in the views of AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on the method used by AK to select athletes for international competitions.
- H₀₇ There would be no significant difference in the responses of AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on provision of guidance and counseling services on investment, balance of family and career roles, HIV-AIDS, doping and career transition in Kenya's athletes.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The performance of Kenya's athletes in international competitions especially in middle and long distance races over the years has been commendable; thus making athletics part of Kenya's culture. This study was aimed at providing information on the ways and means by which athletes in Kenya are managed. The outcome of the study is of great importance to AK, ministry of youth affairs and sports, and KNSC in order to improve the welfare of athletes and athletics management in Kenya at

large. From the outcome of the study, an Athletes' Guide Manual may be compiled providing guidelines on athletes' welfare. Such life skill information guide would benefit athletes by monitoring managerial practices applied on them so that they can participate in making informed decisions on issues which affect their athletic careers and lives. The ministry of youth affairs and sports would use the findings of this study in formulating policy with regard to athlete management. The study also contributes to knowledge in the realm of athlete management.

1.5 Delimitations

The study was delimited to the following: -

- i. Use of questionnaires for data collection.
- ii. Athletes who were selected to represent their AK provinces (branches) in national championships, specifically in middle and long distance events.
- iii. Determining the way Kenya's middle and long distance athletes are managed on the basis of opinions of the athletes, government sports officers, coaches and officials of Athletics Kenya.

1.6 Limitation of the Study

The researcher was unable to secure the views of foreign agents who manage Kenya's athletes due to limited resources to access them. This shortcoming was covered by the secondary information from the athletes they manage other than managers themselves.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

The study was based on the assumption that the respondents were honest in providing answers to the questionnaires.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

This study was based on the *Open Systems Approach* Theory developed by Bennett (1997). The theory states that organizations consist of a number of interrelating sub-systems that jointly convert inputs of labor, materials, finance and other resources into outputs. These sub-systems include the psychosocial sub-system, technical sub-system, information and the managerial sub-systems.

The psychosocial sub-system has to do with the interactions of individuals and groups. In the case of athletics in Kenya, this is the interaction between the government, KNSC, AK officials, coaches and athletes over the matters concerning athletes' careers and welfare.

The technical sub-system of an organization is the one that determines the characters of the inputs, the nature of the process of transformation and output created. For instance, quality of coaches selected and the effectiveness of the program they draw for the athletes, the athletes selected, their capabilities, training and other managerial services they receive determines the quality of performance as output (Dushkin, 2008).

The information sub-system deals with collecting and analyzing of the information needed for decision-making. For instance, it is the duty of stakeholders in matters of athletics in the country to get feedback on effectiveness of programs used for athletes' preparation for various championships, nature of equipment and facilities available to

athletes, level of athletes' satisfaction economically, socially, and psychologically including other pertinent managerial duties deemed to them (Poczwardowski *et al.*, 2006).

The managerial sub-system is concerned with designing and administering the organization. For instance, the government, KNSC, and AK officials have a mandate to monitor and make changes administratively for the good of the federation and the athletes. This Open Systems Approach Theory is illustrated in Figure 1.1

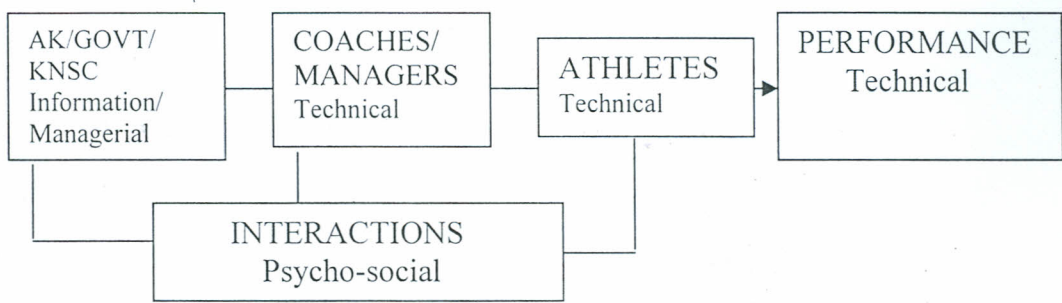


Figure 1.1: Open Systems Approach Theory (Adapted from Bennett, 1997).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents literature that is related to this study under the following headings: -

- i. Management in sport.
- ii. Administration in sports.
- iii. Athletes' selection.
- iv. Athletes' nationality switching
- v. Athletes' guidance and counseling.
- vi. Motivation and athletic performance

2.1.0 Management in Sport

The sector of sport management is divided into three broad segments of consumer, spectator and participant (Davis, 1994). The consumer segment is driven by purchase power mainly of sport products and services. A good example is the purchase of sport clothing, equipment, purchase of match tickets and hiring of sport facilities. The spectator segment is driven by team support/affiliation, while participant segment is driven by a person's need to achieve or accomplish a goal either as an athlete or an official. The work of sport managers entails a variety of management functions performed in the uniqueness of each sport setting. They plan, organize, control, lead, motivate, direct, and make decisions. They perform these functions both internally, within the confines of the sport organization, and externally, impacting social and cultural forces in the environment. Sports managers have the power to allocate resources, help impact healthy life-styles,

create new products and services, and organize sports events (ibid). Mwisukha *et al.*, (2003), for instance, note that ‘the personnel charged with the responsibility of managing the technical facets of sports must implement and formulate team selection formats that produce the most desired athletic performance’.

2.1.1 Tasks of Management

The management must be proficient in three broad tasks of managing work place, managing people and managing day-to-day operations. Managing work place is concerned with the management of a certain sport setting. The sport setting could be in the form of sport organizations or federations. Athletics Kenya’s organization and co-ordination of its 15 branches’ programs is an example of fulfilling this task.

Managing people entails welfare of employees. Motivated employees perform better and this translates into increased profit, improved performance and an avenue for organization’s expansion. Open lines of communication in an organization free of conflict coupled with learning how to handle interpersonal relations among employees leads them towards grater performance levels (Davis, 1994).

Managing day-to-day operations is daily effort by the management and staff to see to it that the set goals are met. Apart from setting standards, imposing budgets, planning, controlling, coordinating, leading, motivating and making decisions, the management monitors performance and initiates remedial action when plans are not achieved (Bennet, 1997).

In the realm of sports management, coaching staff and other executives must be flexible enough to meet the changing situations facing an athletic program in an effort to ensure that the athletic program survives and its continuity maintained (Bridges and Libby, 1996). Furthermore, administrators are responsible for organizing on-the-job or off-the-job training for the coaches.

In order to emphasize the importance of athletes' management, for example, Audas *et al.*, (2002) assessed the impact of managerial change on team performance in professional sports. Over a quarter-century of match-level data were used to examine the effect of managerial change on team performance in English Association Football, using ordered probit regression. On average, teams that changed their manager within-season were found to under-perform over the following 3 months. Managerial change also increased the variance of the non-systematic component of performance in the short term. The high incidence of within-season managerial change in English football may have been a consequence of team owners gambling that an increased variance may help produce an improvement in performance sufficient to stave off the threat of relegation. The study was on football managers. The current study is focusing on athletics managers. The results of the study by Audas *et al.*, (2002) therefore cannot be generalized to account for total management of athletes in Kenya.

Hogan and Norton (2002) exploratory study 'The 'Price' of Olympic gold' was attempting to show the role of Australian Government support towards sports and subsequent improvement in performance. From the background of their study, the Commonwealth Government established the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) in 1981.

The Australian Sports Commission (ASC) administers the AIS and has 2 objectives: (1) excellence in sports performances and (2) increased participation in sports and sports activities. State-based institutes of sports had also been established with the same or very similar objectives. Federal policy directs the bulk of the ASC budget to elite athlete programs. A smaller proportion goes towards community participation. The official reason is based on the notion of the 'trickle-down' or 'demonstration' effect. That is, a flow-on of benefits to the broader community in the form of increased participation as a direct result of elite sports success.

The aims of the study conducted by Hogan and Norton (2002) were to determine the (1) spending pattern to elite sports programs for the 5 Olympics 1976/77 to 1995/96, (2) evidence for the two ASC objectives having been met, and (3) expected medal tally at the 2000 Olympic Games. The results showed funding (in dollars), had accelerated from about \$1.2 million (1976/77) to \$106 million in (1997/98), particularly since the Games were awarded to Sydney. The total amount spent on elite athletes was \$0.918 billion. In the period 1980–96 Australia won 25 gold and 115 total Olympic medals. This equates to approximately \$37 million per gold and \$8 million per medal in general. There was a significant linear relationship between money spent and total medals won. This was also found when all medal types were analyzed independently. The predicted medal tally in 2000 (based on the cost per medal and the expenditure towards Sydney) indicated the medal count would be about 14 ± 1 gold, 15 ± 2 silver and 33 ± 4 bronze. Based on Australia's national record of international sporting achievement, there was little doubt that she had fulfilled the ASC's first objective. Current data on physical activity patterns of Australians suggested the second objective had not been met. Focusing attention on

and achieving the first objective did not appear to have any bearing on the second objective. To their conclusion, time was of essence to revisit the notion that elite sporting success leads to greater mass participation as a result of the so-called 'trickle-down' effect. The study took place in Australia and the current study has taken place in Kenya, the results cannot be generalized to apply to Kenya's athletes' management.

In an attempt to establish the availability of adequate and trained coaches who manage Kenya's athletes, Mwisukha (2006) evaluated the professional and certification of athletics coaches in the country. The variables included scrutiny of the coaches' gender, age, marital status, level of education, other employment, areas of coaching, nature and assessment of trainee coaches, frequency of refresher courses, adequacy of athletics coaches' education and availability of coaching literature. The data was collected from 229 respondents who included provincial and national executive officials of AK, government sport officers and coaches. Data was gathered using questionnaires. Chi-square and Spearman rank correlation coefficient were used for analysis. Coaches' views on their course instructors' competence on the basis of their academic qualifications yielded a χ^2 of 76.94 ($p < 0.05$). Coaches' access to coaching literature on the basis of their academic qualifications produced a χ^2 of 8.10 ($p > 0.05$). In spite of the findings that many coaches, governmental sports officers and AK officials indicated that coaching and in-service courses were infrequent, these views yielded a χ^2 of 18.34 ($p < 0.05$). The three groups' views on the need to train more coaches in sprints, middle and long distance races, and field events produced a χ^2 of 3.21 ($p > 0.05$), 5.45 ($p > 0.05$) and 2.32 ($p > 0.05$) respectively. There was 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 the 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 χ^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.

The study by Mwisukha (2006) focused on Kenyan coaches only. It did not highlight the contribution of foreign coaches behind the success of Kenya's middle and long distance runners. Also, coaching being a part of total management in sport, the findings of the study cannot be used to account for total management of Kenya's athletes.

Hagemann, *et al.*, (2008) studied the complex problem-solving competence of team coaches. The study was necessitated by the fact that the complexity and dynamics of team sports places high information-processing demands on coaches. The argument was that coaches can meet these demands by applying either domain-specific or domain-unspecific problem-solving strategies. The first phase of the study used a domain-unspecific computer-simulated scenario to measure domain-unspecific complex problem-solving strategies in 38 top-league coaches (first or second German national league in team handball or basketball) and 43 local-league coaches. Results showed that top-league coaches exhibited better problem-solving performance than lower-league coaches in an unspecific domain. The second phase recorded the real-life coaching behavior of some of these coaches 6 months later during competitions and analyzed the content of their utterances. The main findings were that top-league coaches ($n=14$) made fewer utterances in competitions, but gave relatively more concrete instructions compared with lower-

league coaches (n=13). Top-league coaches also criticized and motivated their players more frequently during play. Comparing intervention behavior across the two settings (computer-simulated scenario vis-à-vis competition) disclosed some general problem-solving strategies (For example, number of motivating utterances and strength of interventions). The conclusion of the study was that the achievement of sports coaches depends at least in part on their domain-general, complex problem-solving competence. With the current study focusing on total athletes' management, the above study highlights on the role of coaches in helping athletes to solve problems that face them. The study was conducted in Germany and focused on basketball and handball players. The current study however, focuses partly on how middle and long distance athletes are effectively managed in Kenya.

2.2 Administration in Sports

The science of administration consists of body of knowledge about the making and implementing of decisions by those who have responsibility for a total organization or for an important division, program or function within it (Bridges and Libby, 1996). It involves programming, operating, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. Administration and organizational theories as applied to Sport include:

- i. The administrative process as a cycle of action, which includes specific activities, e.g. decision making, programming, communicating, controlling and reappraising.
- ii. The administrative process functioning in the areas of policy, resources and execution.

- iii. The administrative process being carried on in the context of larger action system, dimensions being; the administrative process, the individual performing the administrative process, the total enterprise within which the individual performs the process and the ecology within which the individual and the enterprise function.
- iv. Administration as the performance of administrative process by an individual or a group in the context of an enterprise functioning in its environment.
- v. Administration and administrative process occurring substantially in the same generalized form in sport industry.

There has to be an equitable exchange of athlete's personal objectives for those of the athletic program (Coakley and Dunning, 2004). Exchange of athlete's personal objectives (skills and talent, effort, time, knowledge, loyalty, competitiveness, and others) and the program's objectives (recognition, responsibility to perform, opportunity to advance, acceptance by peers, salary, and others) has to be understood and practiced by any successful athletic administrator (Bridges and Libby, 1996).

Morakinyo (1997) analyzed the extent of compliance with the law of tort by interscholastic sports administrators with particular reference to facilities and equipment, using Oyo State of Nigeria as a case study. The background of his study was the fact that the level of sports awareness among secondary schools and the contributions of this level of sports administration to the over all development of sports in the schools and the country being continuously recognized by the sports administrators. A total of 625 games

teachers took part in the study. A structured questionnaire was used for data collection. Percentages and the chi-square at 0.05 level of confidence were used to analyze the data. The outcome of the study showed that the administration of interscholastic sports in Oyo State secondary schools, as it related to facilities and equipment infringed the law of tort. The study involved games teachers only. With the current study looking at athletes and officials in athletics management, the findings in Morakinyo's study cannot be used to summarize the state of athletes' management in Kenya.

2.3 Athletes' Selection

In coming up with a successful team, recruitment of the athletes is very necessary and follows certain steps; firstly, the coach determines the types of the athletes needed, secondly, position description and specification (personality of a winning athlete) is prepared, thirdly, the athlete is sought, fourthly, the athlete is screened (examining strengths and weaknesses), and finally, he/she is considered in a decision to have him/her in the team (Bridges and Libby, 1996).

To have well prepared athletes in the team assures good performance and vice versa (Mwisukha *et al.*, 2003). This is accomplished through the quality and quantity of personnel handling athletics matters and the athletes included in the program. In Canada for example, the North West Territories Youth Games Athlete Selection Protocol provides a guideline for the associate nations to follow when choosing athletes for respective games and sports to ensure quality competition (Rentmeister, 2006). In selecting athletes to participate in the Northwest Territories Games, the Community Selection Committee (Sport North) considers the following criteria:

- i. Where possible, the selection of athletes results in a balance of male and female athletes.
- ii. There must be a male and female coach identified.
- iii. The selection of athletes considers positive behavior, for example school attendance and performance, high level of participation in local events, evidence of volunteer activity and or tendency to demonstrate leadership qualities.
- iv. Athletes must be between the ages of 10-14 years of age.
- v. Athletes must not have previously participated in the Arctic Winter Games, Canada Winter Games, Canada Summer Games, Western Canada Summer Games or North American Indigenous Games.

Athlete Selection Process involves the following:

- i. Sport North makes preliminary contact with the community / school representing the 10-14 year age grouping and invites them to name a chairperson to oversee their Selection Committee. The Regional Staff will assist the chairperson in identifying Community Selection Committee members and assist in the overall community team selection process.
- ii. In the cases where more than one school of this type exists, all schools are invited to have a person represented on the Selection Committee.
- iii. The Chair contacts other representatives from the community and invites them to sit on the committee. The committee comprises of 3-5 people.
- iv. Committee members compile a listing of prospective students and forward that list to the Chairperson.

- v. Committee members meet to discuss the names, and reduce the list to the final approved number.
- vi. The Community Chairperson forwards this final list to Sport North by specified dates. The list includes 2 male and 2 female alternate names.
- vii. Sport North reviews the list of names against the athlete selection criteria.

2.4.0 Athletes' Switching of Nationality

IOC's major marketing tool is the idea that Olympic athletes are amateurs, competing for the love of sport. Though this maxim still holds, IOC has changed the rules to allow professional athletes to compete at the Olympics in sports such as basketball, tennis, and track (Mulhauser, 2004). During the opening ceremonies, all the athletes swear that they're competing "for the glory of sport and the honor of their teams/countries". This has been made close to impossible through athletes' nationality switch, an eminent phenomenon among athletes across Africa and in other developing regions of the world who are lured from their homelands to compete for richer nations (VOA, 2005). Mulhauser (2004) described it as switching citizenships in search of more money and better training facilities, a movement most noticeable in track, in which most of the top competitors are African and most of the top training facilities are not available. An Olympic charter rule bars athletes from competing for one country during the three years after they have last competed for another. The only way around the rule is through a special waiver process requiring the approval of the new and old countries, the international track federation, and the IOC itself (Mulhauser, 2004). On 3rd of August 2005, the rule-making Council of the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF) approved a three-year waiting period to tighten the procedures for athletes who

switch nationalities to compete for other countries. This followed after a proposal for a six-year waiting period was defeated by a vote of 90 to 80. The three-year waiting period is in line with the International Olympic Committee standards (VOA, 2005). Previously, athletes were allowed to compete as soon as they completed three years without representing their old country in any major IAAF competition (VOA, 2005). Now athletes must wait for three years after being granted citizenship to compete in a major international event - or one year if both countries agree. The country-switching rules and the Olympic Charter itself are based on the premise that the Olympics are a competition between countries, and that athletes represent not just themselves, but their countries. According to Matthew J. Mitten, the director of the National Sports Law Institute and a law professor at Marquette University, if the IOC relaxed the nationality rules, there will be more recruiting, and luring of athletes from third world countries (Mulhauser, 2004).

According to Voice of America (VOA, 2005) research on Kenyan athletes and nationality switching, about 40 Kenyan runners have defected to "greener pastures" abroad, mainly to oil-rich Gulf countries like Qatar and Bahrain, in exchange of citizenship, a life-long salary and generous perks. This follows the athletes being given new names to help them blend in their new home country (VOA, 2005). Following VOA's follow up on Kenyan parliament proceedings, the Kenya's president was quoted commenting on the issue,

*"Let us resist the temptation to change our citizenship for financial gains."
(VOA webpage, 10th October, 2008)*

This was in contrast with the reaction of Kenya's 3000m steeplechase record holder Moses Kiptanui who went ahead to say,

"I have won more than five medals, but I have got zero from the government, nobody knows who I am or what I did. The only people who know what I have done is my family. When an athlete retires he is forgotten for good. We have seen a lot of athletes who were running in the 1968 Olympics or 1974 until maybe last year, some of them, are living in a very, sparse state. They are very poor despite the fact they have done great things for this country."

(VOA webpage, 10th October, 2008)

2.4.1 Foreign Athletic Managers in Kenya

Kenya's top runners are known to be mainly managed by foreigners (Table 1.3). The effort, struggles and successes in ending up with their current managers need to be known. Once an athlete has an impressive record in his/her event, he/she writes to the manager through the website or an agent. Once the manager is satisfied, he signs in the athlete. The manager invests in the athlete in terms of hiring a coach who he believes will either keep the athlete in shape or improve his performance (Anonymous, 2007). Sometimes, these coaches (who could be Kenyans) are sent in Kenya with the runners or relocate to a desired country especially where there are state of the art facilities, during the track season. The manager, once satisfied with athlete's time, looks for a race suiting that time.

According to Anonymous (2007), the manager follows closely the nature of the event and can approximate athlete's fairing. He then assesses the allowances to the participants to see whether it is worthy sending an invitation. The allowances vary depending on the nature of event. In either track or road event, there is appearance fee, which depends on athlete's time on the specific event; this can go up to above the half winners price especially if the athlete is a record holder in that specific event. Then there is the start

money; a sum paid to the runner for starting ahead of the leading pack for at least one kilometers of the race. This amount can range from 500-1000 euros (Anonymous, 2007). This is the reason behind the manager to booking in athletes who can cope with this. All these earnings take care of race circumstances such as failing to win or complete the race. The invitation includes a return ticket to the athlete and the athlete pays for the ticket cost from either the money won in a competition or the allowances.

According to Anonymous (2007), to keep AK updated on Kenyans running abroad, the manager sends athletes' invitation to AK with their names, the race, period, place and time of competition. The athlete in return collects the letter signed from the AK offices. This letter is a copy as the embassy to the country that hosts the race has a copy too. The athlete has to produce the letter from AK to get a visa. Some embassies further request a photograph of the invited athlete in action either from the website, magazine or local daily. Duration of the visa varies but it is mainly three days before the first race and three days after the last race. Alongside air ticket, the manager takes care of, accommodation, catering and clothing and the athletes' job is to run. To the manager's return, he takes 15-17% of the total earnings excluding air ticket. An assurance to this deal is an agreement signed on paper between the athlete and the manager. Anonymous (2007) points out that it is safe when you sign the deal with the manager himself. The athlete's money is sent to his/her bank account after manager's deductions.

2.5.0 Athletes' Guidance and Counseling

Counseling services offered to athletes range from balancing their carrier and family, HIV and AIDS, investment both in country and offshore, preparation for retirement,

career termination Fernandez, *et al.*, (2005) concluded that counseling specifically is the ideal avenue for refining career termination. Very often in the early 2000 reports were all over media reporting of some of Kenyan athletes taken to Europe by some managers and end up receiving inhuman treatment of undesirable accommodation, and their visas being under the custody of the managers (Njenga, 2007). This would call for guidance to up-coming athletes on signing contracts especially to the managers who are not recognized by AK and the government.

2.5.1 Athletic Career and Family Balance

When the fever of winning vanishes among the citizens and supporters after a good performance, coaches' records looking good after a successful season and when everybody is disappointed after unsatisfactory performance, the family remains the last company that any athlete will settle for after either performance or athletic career termination. According to Harrison (2006), family support is necessary throughout and after athletic career. Professional athletes commit a lot of attention towards their career through traveling, training and competing which translates into denying their families, spouses and children quality time. Proper guidance and counseling is of essence to the athletes in order to keep their families intact as they need them for support during and especially after retirement from competitive sport. On her article, 'Elite performers and elite attitudes,' McQuaid (2008) points out that 'professional athletes would consider their own values, their family responsibilities, sponsor agreements and their country.' Coach-family relationship can also have significance effect on the training program and general performance of the athletes. In her study, 'The effects of starting a family on the professional lives of female athletic trainers', Amann (2007) concluded that job qualities

of traditional athletic training settings need alteration in order to be compatible with the career trainers. Her study suggested recognition and promotion of favorable job characteristics that would allow career and family balance in order to optimize the success of female athletic trainers after starting a family.

The need for guidance and counseling in an athlete's career is reflected in a study conducted by Fernandez, Stephan and Fouquereau (2005). The study assessed reasons for sports career termination with an objective to develop the Athletes' Retirement Decision Inventory (ARDI) questionnaire to assess the retirement decision process among competitive athletes. They used a two-step procedure to develop the scale. The first step involved creating a list of items leading to a preliminary version of the Athletes' Retirement Decision Inventory (ARDI), which assessed perceptions of the reasons for career termination. In their second study, 236 French competitive athletes (73.7% male; mean age 24.93 years) completed the ARDI. The second step aimed to test the factor structure of the ARDI, and to select the final items. The results indicated that the final 39-item version of the ARDI had a good psychometric basis. It comprised four factors: (a) antipull, (b) pull, (c) anti-push and (d) push, with adequate internal consistency and which explain a sufficient part of the total variance. This study had three conclusions; Firstly, it confirmed that the retirement decision process is complex and multifaceted, and secondly, it provided a new instrument to assess the process. Finally, it suggested some avenues for refining career termination especially through counseling. Owing to the fact that the above study did not involve Kenyan athletes and that counseling is a section of athlete management, the findings of this study cannot therefore be used to generalize the state of management of athletes in Kenya.

A study by Stambulovaa and Stephanb (2007) on athletic retirement focused on a cross-national comparison of elite French and Swedish athletes in terms of (a) pre-conditions for the athletic retirement; (b) coping and related factors; (c) perceived quality and long-term consequences of the transition. The study also examined the impact of retirement planning upon the transition process and outcomes. The design of the study was the Retirement from Sports Survey (Alfermann *et al.*, 2004). The sample composed of 157 former male and female international level athletes from France and Sweden, who represented different sports. ANOVA and MANOVA were used for the data analyses. From the findings, a common pattern and two nationally specific patterns in the process of the transition to the post-career were identified. The common pattern involved athletic retirement preconditions (e.g., retirement planning), coping and related factors. Cross-cultural differences related to reasons for termination, emotional reactions upon retirement (more positive in Swedish sample), perceived difficulty to start a new professional career, usage of emotion-focused/avoidance coping strategies (both higher in French sample), duration of the transition, current athletic identity, and professional choice/ career/life satisfaction nowadays (all higher in Swedish sample). Retirement planning, regardless of the nation, was associated with more favorable emotions and coping behaviors in the transition but was not associated with perceived quality and long-term consequences of the transition. The study showed that the transition out of elite sports is a dynamic, multidimensional, multilevel, and multifactor process in which nationality/culture plays an important role. The coach therefore, has a role to play in assisting athletes to adjust to life after athletic career. The study however, involved French and Swedish athletes. Since the current study involves Kenyan athletes, the

findings of Stambulovaa and Stephanb (2007) cannot be generalize to the management of athletes in Kenya.

Torregrosa *et al.*, (2002) carried out a study on Elite athletes' image of retirement. Their objective was to add a prospective view of retirement to the existing research in career transition based on retrospective data. A grounded theory approach was used for the study. 18 active athletes were interviewed and after the data was analyzed, three different stages related to athletes' view of retirement were conceptualized: (a) initiation/training stage; (b) maturity performance stage; and (c) anticipation of retirement stage. The findings showed that active elite athletes gradually build an image of retirement from competitive sports during their sporting career. The study concluded that systematic prospective studies on retirement contribute to a better picture of career transitions in sports and can assist in counseling top-level athletes. Researchers recommend that retirement from sport be viewed as relocation in sport. The current study thus seeks views from Kenyan athletes.

Stephana *et al.*, (2007) carried out a study on Psychophysical impact of retiring from elite sport. The purpose of their study was to assess the relation between the perception of bodily changes after retirement from elite sport and physical self and global self-esteem, in retired elite athletes. Sixty-nine French retired elite athletes answered the 6-item Physical Self Inventory, and questions related to bodily difficulties experienced after retirement, and reasons, moment and nature of retirement. Correlation analysis revealed that the difficulties experienced with the body were negatively related to global self-esteem, physical self-worth, perceived physical condition, sports competence, and bodily

attractiveness. Regression analysis revealed the mediating role of physical self-worth between the difficulties experienced with the body and global self-esteem. Conclusion of the study revealed that as well as social and professional changes, bodily changes might also be a source of potential distressful reactions. Preparation for retirement is one of many sections of athlete management. Since the study involved French athletes, its findings cannot therefore be generalized to the state of athletes' management in Kenya.

Wylleman and Zupan (2004) looked into the effect of athletic and non-athletic factors on the sports career termination process. The objective was to investigate the way in which the quality of sports career termination process is affected by athletic and non-athletic factors. Influence of athletic (voluntariness and gradualness of sports career termination, subjective evaluation of athletic achievements, post-sports life planning, and athletic identity) and non-athletic factors (age, educational status, positive and negative non-athletic transitions) on different aspects of sports career difficulties was presented. Participants comprised 85 former elite Slovene athletes (aged 21–44 years) who had been retired for less than 4 years, ending a sports career at international or national level in one of 16 Olympic sports. Participants were presented with two questionnaires, including the Sports Career Termination Questionnaire assessing participants' perceptions of the characteristics of the sports career process, and the Non-athletic Transitions Questionnaire assessing participants' perceptions of the influence of non-athletic events and transitions on the quality of life. The findings indicated that the quality of the sports career termination process depends on the voluntariness of career termination, participants' subjective evaluation of athletic achievements, the prevalence of athletic identity, educational status, and the occurrence of negative non-athletic transitions.

Athletes' retirement is a section on the present study and therefore, the findings of the study used to summarize management of athletes in Kenya.

Wuerth *et al.*, (2004) carried out a study on parental involvement and athletes' career in youth sport. The purpose of their study was to examine the pattern of involvement of parents in youth sport across career phases and career transitions, and to identify this pattern from the perspective of athletes and both of their parents. The parental involvement in sport questionnaire which measured perceptions of Active Involvement (AI), Praise and Understanding (PU), Directive Behavior (DB), and Pressure (PR), was administered to 193 young athletes, their mothers, and their fathers. In addition, athletes filled in the PISQ twice over a 12-month interval. They were classified into different career phases according to their level of performance and other criteria. The athletes perceived only low levels of pressure, but high levels of praise and understanding. Mothers saw themselves primarily as a source of praise and understanding; fathers gave a greater amount of directive behavior than mothers. Pressure was solely correlated with directive behavior. Athletes with successful career transition during the 12-month period report a higher amount of parental involvement than athletes with no transition. The results added confidence to the cross-cultural validity of the PISQ. They corroborated the assumption that both parents play an important though slightly different role in an athlete's career development.

Amann (2007) looked at the effects of starting a family on the professional lives of female athletic trainers. Her objective was to investigate the career and family choices made by female athletic trainers after starting a family and to examine the future

intentions of women without children in order to predict how they may act when they start a family. The respondents (834 female certified athletic trainers) received an email inviting them to complete the online survey. Online survey collected data regarding subjects' prior career and family choices, or future intentions, following the birth or adoption of a child. The predictions of future mothers compared closely to those choices made by current mothers, though future mothers desired more family-friendly jobs. Many women were not extending their maternity leave much beyond the FMLA standard of 3 months. Several favorable job qualities and home situations were identified which enabled women to keep their prenatal work positions while also including a family life. These attributes were generally the opposite of typical qualities of many traditional athletic training positions. The researcher recommended that the undesirable job qualities of traditional athletic training settings needed alteration in order to be compatible with the career of a new mother. Also, the favorable job characteristics that allowed career and family balance ought to be recognized and promoted in order to optimize the success of female athletic trainers after starting a family. The study used female trainers. With Kenyan runners' management involving both male and female personnel, the above findings cannot be applied in the current study.

2.5.2 Guidance and Counseling on HIV/AIDS

The AIDS epidemic was first recognized in the United States of America in the spring of 1981 and HIV, the virus that causes AIDS, isolated in 1983. The sporting world experienced HIV/AIDS with November 1991 Los Angeles Lakers basketball player Magic Johnson's announcement to the world that he was HIV-positive and 1995's diver Greg Louganis announcement that he knew he had the virus since 1988 (Jamaal, 2006).

Professional athletes are exposed to circumstances that can culminate to acquiring of the virus. Treatment after injuries and drug use, especially secretive doping can be the source of acquiring the HIV virus. Athletes mostly are separated from their families through training, competition and traveling. Being away from their families could put them into temptation of getting involved in outside marriage/relationship and sexual acts. Through guidance, athletes can be made to understand the dangers and ways of avoiding the contraction. If some athletes contract the disease, counseling should direct them that they can still continue with their career for some time. The stigma placed by other teammates could be eradicated by emphasis that HIV is communicable but not contagious (Jamaal, 2006).

2.5.3 Guidance on Investment and Athletic Career

In athletic profession, money is earned so abrupt that lack of proper planning or budgeting can lead to misuse of such earnings. An athlete enters the race with anticipation to win. Prizes go to the winners, and so declaration as a winner not only puts the athlete into excitement about the winning but also the prize (money) that comes with it. Unfortunately, there are many ways that can see an athlete out of the competition circuit and make him/her lose the benefits of the athletic career. These include illness/injury, political instability, unforeseen cases of doping, burn-out or retirement (Fernandez, 2005). Once these circumstances strike, the athlete's transition could be a difficult one due to the new lifestyle. An athlete that was used to enjoy fame, travel, high income as often as possible, and who has not developed relationship with the community may find it very hard to adjust to the new way of life. It is thus important that athletes make investments in any form either in the country or outside so as to have some funds or

business to keep them going during transition. Education is a good form of investment where athletes should be encouraged to complete school and take up courses that can offer them career to fall back to after athletic career is over. Good schooling will greatly help in management of ones' earnings and future planning. Eldoret town in Kenya is an example of outcome of athletes' investment where majority of buildings and businesses are owned by Kenya's top athletes. VOA (2005) quoted Moses Kiptanui, one of the Kenya's renowned athletes, explaining the living conditions of former champions in athletics as pathetic. Most athletes were poor despite the fact they have done great things for their country and earned substantial cash during their athletic career. Hence, for the continuity of athletics in any nation, a portion of money won by an individual athlete apart from taxation should be kept for their future upkeep.

2.5.4 Education on Doping

The word doping is derived from the Dutch word *dop*, an alcoholic beverage made of grape skins used by Zulu warriors of South Africa to enhance their prowess in wars (wada-ama.org, 2008). Around 20th century, the word referred to illegal drugging of racehorses (wada-ama.org, 2008).. In 1928 the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF) became the first International Sport Federation (IF) to ban the use of stimulating substances. Many other International Federations (Ifs) followed suit though restrictions were ineffective as no tests were performed. The problem was complicated by eminence of synthetic hormones after their invention in the 1930s. The death of Danish cyclist Knud Enemark Jensen during 1960 Rome Olympic Games increased the pressure for sports authorities to introduce drug tests as the autopsy revealed traces of amphetamine (wada-ama.org, 2008).. In 1966 UCI (cycling) and FIFA (football) were among the first

Knud Enemark Jensen during 1960 Rome Olympic Games increased the pressure for sports authorities to introduce drug tests as the autopsy revealed traces of amphetamine (wada-ama.org, 2008).. In 1966 UCI (cycling) and FIFA (football) were among the first IFs to introduce doping tests in their respective World Championships. In 1967, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) instituted its Medical Commission and set up its first list of prohibited substances. Drug tests were first introduced at the Olympic Winter Games in Grenoble and at the Olympic Games in Mexico in 1968. The IOC added anabolic steroids to its list of prohibited substances in 1976. Anti-doping work was complicated in the 1970s and 1980s by suspicions of state-sponsored doping practiced in some countries especially German Democratic Republic, where the doubts had been substantiated (wada-ama.org, 2008). The most famous doping case of the 1980s involved an American sprinter, Ben Johnson, who tested positive for anabolic steroid stanozolol at the Olympic Games in Seoul, 1988. Johnson's case focused the world's attention to the doping problem to a more serious degree.

Despite the fight against stimulants and steroids producing results, the new challenge in the anti-doping war was the blood doping. Also referred to as blood boosting, it is the removal and subsequent re-infusion of the athlete's blood in order to increase the level of oxygen-carrying haemoglobin. Blood doping had been practiced since the 1970s but the IOC banned blood doping as a method in 1986 (wada-ama.org, 2008). Erythropoietin (EPO) is another way of increasing the level of haemoglobin. EPO was included in the IOC's list of prohibited substances (steroids, stimulants, blood-boosters, narcotics and Modafinil) in 1990. The fight against EPO was long hampered by the lack of a reliable testing method until a detection test, based on a combination of blood and urine analysis,

was first implemented at the Sydney Olympic Games in 2000. In the 1980s, there was a marked increase in cooperation between international sports authorities and various governmental agencies in anti-doping fight. Before 1998 debate was still taking place in several discrete forums (IOC, Sports Federations, individual governments), resulting in differing definitions, policies, and sanctions. The IOC convened the World Conference on Doping in Sport in Lausanne in February 1999 after Tour de France scandals that highlighted the need for an independent international agency to set unified standards for anti-doping work and coordinate the efforts of sports organizations and public authorities. Following the proposal of the Conference, the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) was established in 1999 with its structure based on equal representation of the Olympic Movement and Public Authorities (wada-ama.org, 2008).

Doping is a thorny issue that can see a seasoned top class athlete's career temporarily terminated. It is of major implication especially where running is the sole dependant carrier. In 2008, National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and United States of America Doping Agency (USADA) gave rules of prohibited or banned drugs in sport (see Appendix K). Oseid (1984) on his study 'Doping and athletes—Prevention and counseling, gave a survey of the preventive measures (antidoping) that have been carried out in Norway since 1976. Doping in sports as an old problem, development of modern techniques have made doping control possible for all drugs listed on the International Olympic Committee's list. This comprises regular doping control (during competition and at random in the training period) and extensive information programs to change attitudes toward the use and misuse of drugs in sports. The basic principles of the antidoping campaign include upholding the ethics of sports, protection of athletes' health, and

preservation of equal chances for all. The campaign is directed to the athletes, their coaches, and trainers as well as to the team physicians, the different sports federations, and the public. Athletes therefore, need regular guidance on matters of doping; they should be made aware of banned substances in international competitions and be educated on the dangers of consuming the prohibited drugs.

The problem of drug abuse is highlighted by Scarpino *et al.*, (1990) who evaluated the prevalence of doping among Italian athletes. The objectives of their study were to evaluate knowledge of, attitudes to, and use of illegal drugs and other forms of 'doping' in sport. 1015 Italian athletes and 216 coaches, doctors, and managers (technicians) were interviewed after selection on a quota basis. Overall, 30% of athletes, managers, and coaches and 21% of doctors indicated that athletic performance can be enhanced by drugs or other doping practices. Over 10% of athletes indicated a frequent use of amphetamines or anabolic steroids at national or international level, fewer athletes mentioning blood doping (7%) and beta-blockers (2%) or other classes of drugs. These proportions were 2-3 times higher for occasional use than for frequent use. Estimates by managers and coaches were much the same as those of athletes when allowance was made for larger random variation. 62% of athletes who acknowledged doping reported pressure to do so from coaches and managers. According to over 70% of athletes access to illegal substances was not difficult. Both athletes and technicians awarded high scores to risk than to efficacy for any substance, although 42-67% of athletes and technicians regarded amphetamines and anabolic steroids as efficacious. 82% wanted stricter controls not only during competitions but also during training. The above study took place in Italy. This necessitates the current study here in Kenya.

Botrè (2003) study on drugs of abuse and abuse of drugs in sportsmen focused on the role of in vitro models to study subsequent effects and mechanisms. To the recommendation of his study, a particular field of analytical chemistry applied to forensic toxicology should be represented by the anti-doping analysis, where biological samples (urine and in some instances blood) collected either in-competition or out-of- competition from athletes ruled for national/international sport federations, should be analyzed to detect the putative use of prohibited substances and methods. Together with the official anti-doping activity to test the athletes (That is, who engage in competitive sport) for the non-physiological enhancement of sport performance, it should be mandatory to activate a new strategy of doping control, that should necessarily comprise a deep and exhaustive toxicological evaluation of the entire spectrum of doping substances and methods. His conclusion ruled out that the present status and of the future trends of the antidoping research would greatly benefit from an approach based on vitro methods, ranging from specific toxicity studies to the possible detection of new forms of doping. The study by Botrè (2003) was more of a guideline and cannot therefore be conclusive in addressing current status of athletes' management in Kenya, with regard to managing doping issues.

2.6.0 Motivation and Athletic Performance

Dushkin (2008) on his topical item "Motivation of Athletic Performance", outlines that a successful management of athletes involve motivation of the athletes so as to enable them to exhibit their best performance. Several incentives that motivate athletes to perform well include; meeting the needs of independence, power, success, aggression, stress (excitement), affiliation, and excellence (Dushkin, 2008). Affiliation and excellence forms the backbone for motivators for the athletes. On investigation, the role of arousal in

athletic performance showed that a medium arousal level is often more effective than being too 'psyched up' for an activity (Dushkin, 2008). A related technique for coaches is to help athletes learn how to monitor their arousal levels through biofeedback and control the excess arousal or anxiety (Galligan *et al.*, 2000).

According to Hagemann *et al.*, (2008), the optimum coaching strategy for motivating athletes is to ensure that the athletes are intrinsically motivated and not dependent upon the coach for reinforcement. As an example, a cross-country running coach should encourage the runners to compete against themselves, trying to beat their best time rather than competing against other people. The runners gain self-confidence and self-reward when they can set new personal records. The coach needs to motivate players, encourage team spirit, and promote social cohesiveness. Emphasis should be on the success of the individual as a person and not only on the victory. These strategies are often successful in producing a winning team. It is also important to remember that sports psychology involves the coach, the team members, the particular sport, and the ability of the athletes, as well as personality and motivational factors.

Motivations of coaches may take form of manageable workload, reasonable and timely salary/allowance and appraisal. This is aimed at taking into concern their physiological, security and social needs. The combination of these needs will increase the commitment level of coaches towards their duties (Galligan *et al.*, 2000).

2.6.1 Long-Term Motivation Strategies

Motivation is not meant for a certain competition or training but it should be cultivated into continuous process over a lengthy period, off season, pre-season and on season. Eliot (2004) notes 'the kind of motivation that elite athletes and their coaches need to prepare for future levels of achievement - may be different from those techniques used to prepare for a single game, match, or event'. Eliot further gives ten motivational strategies aimed at fostering autonomy, competence, and connectedness as follows:

- i. Push the Edge: This is being creative and coming up with strategy that no one has attempted before. It is further enhanced by finding weakness in current strategy and thinking the new level after you effect the change.
- ii. Experience Success: During the learning of new skills and strategies, one goes step-by-step starting with an easy piece, mastering it, and then move on to the next easiest piece. It can also begin by modifying the skill to something you can do well and experience success. During this stage, it is important to keep track of ones personal records and how many times you can break them.
- iii. Change Your Thinking: It has to do with having a short-term memory for failures and a long-term memory for success. It is having a new perspective during varied approach keeping in mind ones greatest performances.
- iv. Get Involved: Autonomy having direct improvement on motivation, the greatest contributor to autonomy is having input on decisions that affect you. In both individual and team sport settings, athletes should feel ownership of training rules, competition choices, and strategy decisions. At

the professional level, many head coaches comment that their success depends entirely on their players' belief in the 'system' or playbook. The easiest way to ensure this is to become involved in the process.

- v. **Praise Others:** It is a way of developing connectedness. If you can't see positive or exciting things in the athletes and coaches around you, then develop awareness of the contributions made by others.
- vi. **Vary Training:** Varying training is in effort to do away with boredom. It is of essence to avoid constant hammering at one task. A significant portion of training should be devoted to play for the sake of play, without rules or evaluation.
- vii. **Put Yourself First:** Human beings being most productive at homeostasis, it is important to eat properly, stay hydrated, and get ample rest.
- viii. **Find Motivated Peers:** On and off the field, spend your time with people who want to accomplish great things, who aren't afraid to talk about it, and who get revived up by other people's dreams. An effective support team is vital to motivation, especially during difficult times. Conversely, motivational 'black holes' are people who always criticize the coach, moan about bad calls, loaf in practices and workouts, and generally focus on obstacles, frustrations, and what can't be achieved.
- ix. **Think Positively:** Conversation that goes on in the back of our heads is with us all day. The question is how much of it do we pay attention to. Subconsciously, we pay attention to all of it. It is better paying conscious attention to what is positive and not negative. The bottom line is about what

- x. Remember Your Dream: It is spending time frequently reconnecting with the real reason why you perform.

Katharine (2003) examined the difference in academic and athletic motivation among student athletes at Ottawa University. Participants were selected from eight university team sports. The sample was stratified across gender and profile of sport, that is, sport's level of association with a professional team or league in the United States and categorized as high (men's basketball and football, women's basketball and softball) or low (men's volleyball and lacrosse, women's lacrosse and field hockey). A total of 236 participants (33% female and 67% male) took part in the study. The data was collected from participants using an instrument called the Student Athletes' Motivation Toward Sports and Academics Questionnaire (SAMSAQ) with 30 items measured on a six-point Likert scale. The SAMSAQ had three athletes' sub-scales: academic motivation (AM), student athletic motivation (SAM), and Career Athletic Motivation (CAM). The AM subscale measured the extent to which students were motivated toward academic related tasks, the SAM subscale measured the extent to which student-athletes were motivated to excel at athletic related tasks, the CAM subscale measured the extent to which student athletes were motivated toward a professional career in athletics. The items on each sub-scale were consistent in measuring each construct. The AM sub-scale consisted of 16 items and yielded a Cronbach's alpha value of .79. The SAM sub scale consisted of eight items and had a Cronbach's alpha value of .86. The CAM sub-scale consisted of five items and had a Cronbach's alpha value of .84. The response rate was 76%. Thirty-nine of the participants indicated that they received a full athletic scholarship; 31% received a partial athletic scholarship; and 29% received no athletic scholarship for participation. A

large number of the participants played football (37%). Preliminary analysis of the data indicated several significant relationships between the variables in the study. First, grade point average was positively related to ACT score ($r = .386$; $p = .000$) and AM score ($r = .351$; $p = .000$). In other words, student athletes who had high ACT scores and AM scores also tended to have high grade point averages. Second, grade point average was negatively related to SAM score ($r = -.134$; $p < .05$) and CAM score ($r = -.236$; $p = .000$). Student-athletes who had high SAM scores and CAM scores tended to have low grade point averages.

The study by Katharine (2003) examined two major aspects of achievement, motivation, and athletes; particularly, whether or not academic and athletic motivation matter in predicting academic performance and differences among athletes on significant factors. Overall, academic motivation and ACT score were significant in predicting college grade point average. Career and student athletic motivation had a negative, but insignificant influence on grade point average. This finding suggests that high levels of student athletic motivation and career athletic motivation do not necessarily detract from academic performance. Rather, academic motivation, regardless of athletic motivation, was meaningful in predicting grade point average for the participants in the study. The researcher used athletes from only one university. The most outstanding sport in the study was football. The study looked at athletic motivation vis-à-vis academic performance. However, the findings in that study cannot be used to account for management of Kenya's athletes.

Amorose and Anderson-Butcher (2007) carried out a study on Autonomy-supportive coaching and self-determined motivation in high school and college athletes. The

objective of the study was to test whether perceived competence, autonomy, and relatedness mediated the relationship between perceived autonomy-supportive coaching and athletes' motivational orientation. This was a cross-sectional survey study conducted during a regularly schedule training session. Male and female high school and college athletes (N=581) completed questionnaires assessing the key variables of interest. Structural equation modeling revealed support for a mediational effect. Specifically, results indicated that the degree to which athletes perceived their coaches to be autonomy-supportive significantly predicted the athletes' perceived competence, autonomy, and sense of relatedness, which, in turn, each predicted their motivational orientation. This pattern of relationships was invariant across gender and level of competition. The results supported self-determination theory and highlight the motivational benefits of autonomy-supportive coaching behaviors. The study focused on high school and college athletes while the current study looks at provincial athletes in Kenya.

Jowett and Cockerill (2003) carried out a study on Olympic medallists' perspective of the athlete-coach relationship. Their objective was to investigate the nature and significance of the athlete-coach relationship within the context of the interpersonal constructs of Closeness, Co-orientation, and Complementarity (three Cs). Respondents comprised of 12 Olympic medallists (three females and nine males). Each participant had achieved at least one medal in the Olympic Games held between 1968 and 1988. An interview schedule was utilized that prompted former athletes' responses to open-ended questions about their athletic relationship with their coach. Feelings of Closeness, such as trust and respect, thoughts of Co-orientation, such as common goals, as well as complementary

roles and tasks, marked the athletic relationships of the Olympic medallists. Despite the prevalence of the positive relational aspects, negative relational aspects, such as lack of emotional closeness and complementary resources, also emerged. The impact of the athlete–coach relationship on the success achieved became evident through the former athletes' narratives and recollections. Jowett and Cockerill (2003) concluded that the nature of the athlete–coach relationship has an important role to play in the athlete's development both as a performer and as a person. They recommended coach education programs to provide information that would assist coaches to develop effective relationships with their athletes.

The study by Jowett and Cockerill (2003) focused on athletes who were successful two decades ago. New managerial approaches and tactics have evolved since then and so the current study will address that gap. The above study focused only on Olympic athletes. The current study is targeting athletes in international competitions to address that gap.

Brooke (2007) carried out a study on the influence of performance level and setting on collegiate athletes' motivational profiles. The purpose of the study was to determine if motivational profiles of individual collegiate team sport athletes differ across ability levels (high, middle and low) and settings (team practice, competition, and personal practice). The Perception of Success Questionnaire (POSQ), Sport Climate Questionnaire (SCQ), and Sport Motivational Scale (SMS) were used as instruments to assess athletes' task and ego disposition, autonomy, and contextual motivation during pre and post-testing. Their anxiety levels and situational motivation were measured using the Sport Anxiety Scale (SAS) and the Situational Motivational Scale (SIMS) during the season.

The General Causality Orientations Scale (GCOS) was used in the pre and post-season to assess the strength of different motivational orientations in the coaches and the strength of association to the athletes' various motivational, anxiety and dispositional profiles. Results revealed that the athletes are functioned with high task and ego orientations almost equally across settings. They were also relatively high overall in perceived autonomy support. Anxiety and worry existed in all three settings, but in only low to moderate amounts. In addition, athletes reported higher levels of concentration disruption in competition settings over team or personal practice. Lastly, individual athletes experienced significantly higher levels of self-determination behavior in both the competition and personal practice settings over team practice. No significant differences were found between the pre and postseason surveys for either the athletes or the coaches, or in the ability levels of the athletes. The study was carried across athletes and coaches of colleges. However, the current study targets national athletes and hence the above results cannot apply in the current study

Philippe and Seiler (2006) carried a study on opinions of male swimmers about their male coaches' closeness, co-orientation and complementarity in coach-athlete relationships. The aim of the study was to establish the quality of the coach-athlete relationship utilizing the three interpersonal constructs of closeness, co-orientation, and complementarity. The coach-athlete relationship in married couples formed an exploratory content analysis of athletes' perceptions of the quality of relationship with their coaches. Participants were five male swimmers from the Swiss national swimming team. All five athletes held international titles and were preparing for the 2004 Olympic Games. A semi-structured interview schedule was employed to obtain qualitative data.

The results showed that the coach–athlete relationship played an important role for the swimmers who were investigated. The relationship comprised essential coach–athlete requirements and social relationship (closeness), communication and setting of objectives/goals (co-orientation), as well as acceptance and respect of roles (complementarity). It was revealed that swimmers placed great importance in maintaining good relations with their coach. This study highlighted the nature of the coach–athlete relationship in an individual sport (swimming) in the context of the three interpersonal constructs of closeness, co-orientation and complementarity. The type of relationship formed as reported from the male athletes was personal and caring, and played a central role in improving performance. However, the above results cannot be applied in the current study as it is focusing on athletics, but not on swimming.

2.7 Summary

The above studies are related to sport management. Katharine (2003) focused on subjects from one institution. Her study leaned on motivation and since motivation is just a component of management, the findings cannot be generalized to the management phenomena of Kenyan athletes. In addition, her study incorporated other sports but not specifically athletics as in the case of the present study. Brooke (2007) involved collegiate athletes and coaches. Since the current study addresses total management stakeholders including the government, the findings of Brooke (2007) cannot be generalized to the phenomenon of athletes' management in Kenya. Onywera (2006) looked at the role of genetics, nutrition and demographic factors in explaining the success of Kenyan runners. His study however did not look at their management in explaining their success. Mwisukha (2006) focused on the certification, adequacy and competency

of coaches in Kenya. This is only a section of sport management and cannot therefore, account for the total athletes' management in Kenya. The rest of the studies that have been reviewed were conducted outside Kenya and involved non-Kenyan subjects.

In an attempt to fill the gaps in the studies above, the current study aimed at finding out how effectively Kenyan athletes are managed considering motivation, Kenyan coaches' adequacy and qualification, adequacy of funding, equipment and facilities, selection of athletes for competitions, drawing of training program, decision-making on athletes careers, guidance and counseling, nationality switching, and involvement of foreigners in managing elite Kenyan middle and long distance athletes.

CHAPTER THREE

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.0 Introduction

This chapter covers methodological details of the study. Included are: research design, location of the study, target population, sampling techniques and sample size, research instruments, pilot study, data collection procedure and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

Descriptive survey research design was used in this study. It is a method of collecting information by interviewing or administering questionnaires to a sample of individuals (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). It was therefore, an appropriate research design for this study because views on athletes' management in Kenya were gathered from respondents by use of a questionnaire.

3.2 Location of the Study

The study took place at Nyayo National Stadium (Nairobi, Kenya) where provincial athletics teams together with their coaches had converged for the 2007 national championships. AK and government officials were accessed at their respective offices in the provincial branches.

3.3 Target Population

The target population comprised all middle and long distance Kenyan athletes who were selected to represent their provinces in the National trials (N=355), their coaches (N=107), government sports officers (N=24), and provincial AK officials (N= 42).

3.4 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

The subjects of the study were sampled from the four strata which included provincial government sports officers, AK officials, coaches and athletes. The simple random sampling procedure was used to select 12 (50%) government sports officers, 34 (80%) AK officials, 49 (46%) coaches and 185 (52%) athletes. The total number of participants in the study was therefore, 280 (53%). This proportion of a sample is appropriate and representative in a survey research design according to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999).

3.5 Research Instruments

Closed-ended Athletics Management Questionnaire (AMQ) designed by the researcher with the guidance of the supervisors who are specialists in this area of study was used for data collection (See Appendix D). Payne and Payne (2004) consider questionnaires to give more specific responses in a survey study.

3.6 Pilot Study

Officials, athletes, and coaches from the Kenya Universities Sports Association (a provincial affiliate of AK) participated in the pilot study. This pilot group was easily accessible to the researcher and therefore minimized the piloting period (Payne and Payne, 2004) and the researcher got familiarized with data collection procedures. By

using this group, the researcher established the validity of the research instrument and the administrability of the study. The validity of the data collection was set at ninety five percent (95%). This branch/team involved in the pilot study was not included in the main study. Questionnaire's reliability analysis was established using sum scales. It constituted 14 items and the index yielded an alpha value of .64.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher applied for a permit from the Ministry of Education to conduct the research (Appendix B). In addition, the researcher requested for permission from AK to collect the information from the respondents (Appendix C). The researcher subsequently planned with respective respondents on date, venue and time for filling the questionnaires. Questionnaires were administered directly to the officials, coaches and athletes by the researcher. They were expected to check out (✓) the answers that best represented their views on each of the questionnaire items.

3.8 Data Analysis and Presentation

The researcher coded and analyzed the data using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (S. P. S. S.). The results were presented in the form of tables, charts, and graphs. The data were summarized into descriptive statistics of totals, means and percentages. One-way ANOVA was used test the hypothesis and a probability level of 0.05 or less was taken to indicate significance.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and discussion of the results.

4.1.0 Gender Representation amongst the Respondents

Table 4.1 shows the representation of respondents across gender.

Table 4.1: Representation of Respondents across Gender.

Status or position in athletics	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Athlete	109	76	185
	58.9%	41.1%	100.0%
Coach	40	9	49
	81.6%	18.4%	100.0%
AK official	21	13	34
	61.8%	38.2%	100.0%
GSO	8	4	12
	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
Total	178	102	280
	63.6%	36.4%	100.0%

Out of the total of 280 respondents, there were 178 (63.6%) male and 102 (36.4%) female subjects. Among the government sports officers, 8 (66.7%) were males and 4 (33.3%) were females. Athletics Kenya officials comprised, 21 (61.8%) males and 13 (38.2%) included females. Among the coaches, there were 40 (81.6%) males and 9 (18.4%) females. Athletes included, 109 (58.9%) males and 76 (41.1%) females. This indicated clearly less female representation in athletics not only as athletes but also as officials.

Mwisukha (2006) pointed out that composition of female coaches among organizational teams and national coaches can be a great motivating factor to female participation. In his findings, Mwisukha (2006) found out that there were more male coaches, (79; 78.22%) than the female coaches. (22; 21.78%). This result agrees with current findings on female coach representation. The low level of involvement of women in athletics coaching and management is attributed to lack of interest by women in taking up coaching and managerial roles in athletics, unbalanced selection and election of candidates for coaching courses and management positions that tends to favor men against women.

In an attempt to explain low participation by female athletes in Kenya, Mbaabu (1997) outlined that social factors affecting low participation by female athletes included attitude towards competitive athletics, self-perception, level of motivation, and peer influence. Psychological factors included role conflict between ascribed and achieved roles, early marriages, lack of adequate residential training prior to the international competitions, lack of encouragement from parents and community, and inability to harmonize self-perception and the societal expectations. Psychosocial problems included teenage/early marriages, which at the end put to an end their sporting carriers as few men would allow their wives to pursue the sporting endeavors. Mbaabu (1997) points out that at primary school age, Kenyan girls were generally enthusiastic about competitive athletics but by the time they reach high school level, the stereotypical prejudices began to take their toll. For instance, when Kenya competed internationally for the first time in athletics in 1954 (Vancouver Commonwealth Games), the team had no female athlete as they did not meet the qualifying times. It was until 1965 that Alice Adala, Alice Bulungu, Rose Nyaguthii

and Herina Malit represented Kenya in All Africa Games in Congo Brazzaville (Mbaabu, 1997).

In addressing feminist issues in sport, Jarratt (1990) dispelled myths about women being athletically inferior to men and stressed that female athletes acquired health and positive attitudes that enhance their self-concept thus warranting the need for a new and more feminine approach to sports that elevates cooperation and community over competition.

As Constantini and Warren (1994) found out, there are special problems facing the female athlete. They include abnormal or absent menstrual cycles especially in dancers and long distance runners, skeletal abnormalities, including failure to reach peak bone mass, reduced bone density, scoliosis and stress fractures as a result of prolonged hypo-oestrogenism. Slow hormone replacement has an effect on reduction of exercise and unsuccessful weight gain (Constantini and Warren, 1994).

4.1.1 Introduction to Athletics

The results into the inquiry concerning who introduced various subjects of the study to athletics either as athletes or officials are presented in Figure 4.1

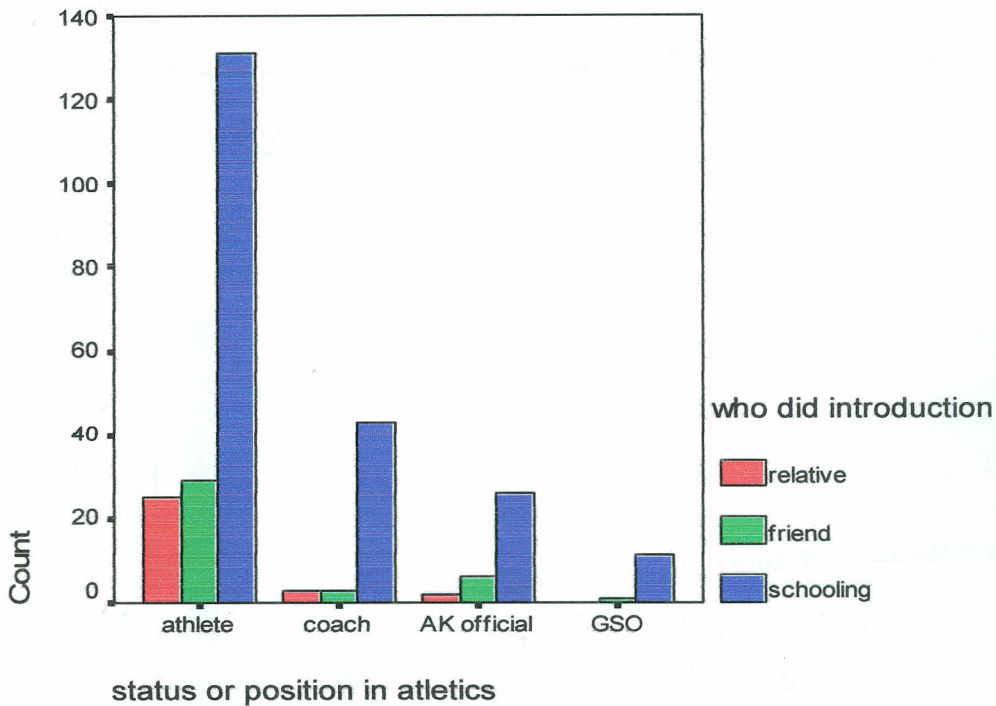


Figure 4.1: Introduction to Athletics.

It is evident from Figure 4.1 that in all categories of respondents, larger numbers were introduced to athletics through schooling. This is supported by the proportion of 91.7% government sports officers, 76.5% AK officials, 87.8% coaches and 70.8% athletes who indicated that they were introduced to the sport at school. This is a clear indication of how the introduction of athletics in schools may play a major role in promotion of athletics. The inclusion of Physical Education in the school curriculum is likely to be the main factor that gives a chance to learners to get introduced to the basics of various sports. Morakinyo (1997) emphasizes the importance of standard equipment and facilities in secondary schools as they contribute to overall development of sport in the schools and country at large. The administrators of interscholastic sports thus need to be fully informed and educated about this need.

4.1.2 Motivation to Participate in Athletics

The response to the motivation among different categories of respondents to participate in athletics is showed in the Figure 4.2

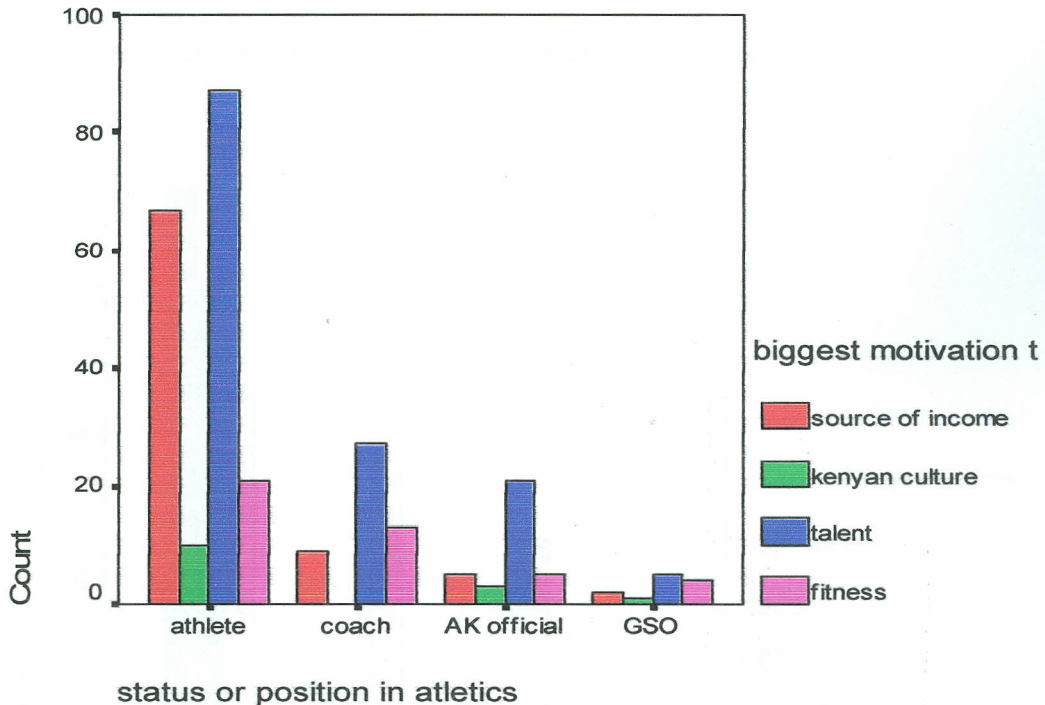


Figure 4.2: Motivation to Participate in Athletics.

From the results above, it is evident that respondents in all categories were more greatly motivated by the fact that they had talent in athletics as runners or handling athletics matters as officials. This was indicated by the participants as follows: Athletes (47.0%), government sports officers (41.7%), coaches (55.1%), and AK officials (61.8%). The second closest response evident among athletes was that the biggest motivation was due to the income benefits (36.2%). Most of the officials especially coaches happened to be athletes in their early days, therefore their talent still acted as a driving force towards coaching. Onywera (2006) found that majority of Kenyan athletes (61%) were motivated to run for economic reasons. He also noted that this could be an important contributing

factor to success of East African distance runners. Going by the fact that employment rate in Kenya is low, most of the athletes opt to participate in athletics to earn more income.

4.1.3 Years of Experience

Figure 4.3 shows athletes' and officials' years of experience in athletics.

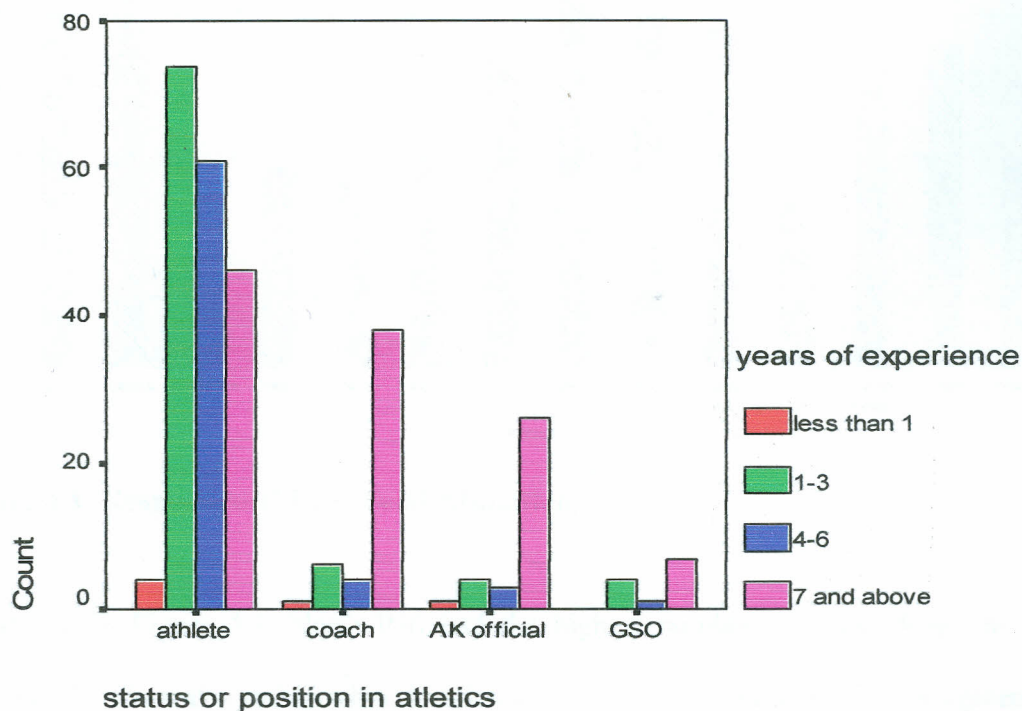


Figure 4.3: Athletes' and Officials' Years of Experience.

Over 97% of the respondents had over one year of experience as athletes or officials. Athletes were well distributed in categories of 1-3, 4-6, and over 7 years. Officials on the other hand mainly had over 7 years of experience. The results affirm that the respondents had experienced managerial practices in one way or the other.

4.1.4 Respondents' Provincial Affiliation

The respondents' provincial affiliation is as in the figure below.

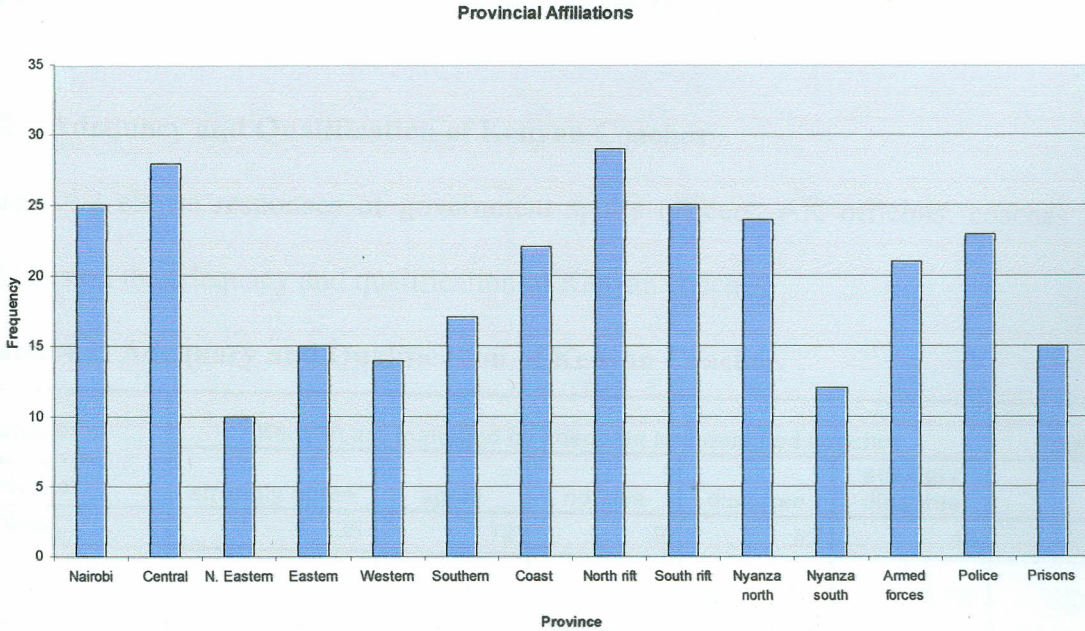


Figure 4.4: Respondents' Provincial Affiliation.

As shown in Figure 4.4, North Rift had the highest number of respondents ($n= 29$) followed by Central ($n= 28$) while North Eastern had the lowest ($n=10$). In agreement with the current findings, Onywera (2006) reported that majority of Kenyan national athletes (65%) and international athletes (82%) hail from the Rift Valley province. He attributes this to success of most of Kenya runners. Sailer (2000) noted that men from Rift Valley province earn three-fourths of Kenya's medals and about three-eighths of international men's distance running prizes. Shontz (2002) noted that though Kenya ranks near the bottom worldwide in nearly every social and economic category especially life expectancy, per capita income and child mortality, over the past 35 years, Kenyans,

especially from Rift Valley province have established themselves as the world's premier in middle and long distance races.

4.2.0 Specific Findings

This section covers the findings that directly addressed the null hypotheses.

4.2.1 Adequacy and Qualification of Kenyan Coaches

Table 4.2 shows responses of government sports officers, AK officials, coaches and athletes on the adequacy and qualification of Kenyan coaches.

Table 4.2: Adequacy and Qualification of Kenyan Coaches.

Status or position in athletics	Kenyan are managed by adequate and qualified coaches					Total
	strongly agree	agree	no idea	disagree	strongly disagree	
athlete	36	72	9	50	18	185
	19.5%	38.9%	4.9%	27.0%	9.7%	100.0%
coach	9	12	3	19	6	49
	18.4%	24.5%	6.1%	38.8%	12.2%	100.0%
AK official	3	14	1	13	3	34
	8.8%	41.2%	2.9%	38.2%	8.8%	100.0%
GSO	4	3	2	3	0	12
	33.3%	25.0%	16.7%	25.0%	.0%	100.0%
Total	52	101	15	85	27	280
	18.6%	36.1%	5.4%	30.4%	9.6%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.2, most of the respondents agreed that Kenya's middle and long distance athletes were managed by adequate and qualified coaches, 101 (36.1%), followed by those who disagreed, 85 (30.4%), strongly agreed, 52 (18.6%), strongly disagreed, 27 (9.6%), and lastly, 15 (5.4%) of the respondents had no comment

Table 4.2.1: ANOVA Descriptive Summary Table

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.010	3	2.670	1.540	.204
Within Groups	478.433	276	1.733		
Total	486.443	279			

Analysis of variance showed no significant difference (.204). The hypothesis (H_{01}) that there would be no significant difference in responses amongst AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on the adequacy of coaches who manage Kenya's athletes was accepted. This implies that majority of respondents were in agreement that Kenyan middle and long distance runners are managed by adequate and qualified coaches. This findings tally with the findings of Mwisukha (2006) who reported that there were more coaches for middle and long distance races than those for sprints and field events. This position may be due to the successes that Kenya has been able to register in these athletic events leading to the interest of coaches to get involved in coaching participating in involved in middle and long distance races.

4.2.2 Drawing of Training Programs

Table 4.3 shows the responses from government sports officers, AK officials, coaches and athletes on drawing of uniform training programs for all national-level athletes while preparing for national and international competitions.

Table 4.3: Views on Drawing of Uniform Training Programs in Preparation for National and International Competitions.

Status or position in athletics	Uniform training program is drawn for all national-level athletes					Total
	strongly agree	agree	no idea	disagree	strongly disagree	
athlete	33	42	25	59	26	185
	17.8%	22.7%	13.5%	31.9%	14.1%	100.0%
coach	4	8	3	26	8	49
	8.2%	16.3%	6.1%	53.1%	16.3%	100.0%
AK official	1	7	1	21	4	34
	2.9%	20.6%	2.9%	61.8%	11.8%	100.0%
GSO	1	2	0	7	2	12
	8.3%	16.7%	.0%	58.3%	16.7%	100.0%
Total	39	59	29	113	40	280
	13.9%	21.1%	10.4%	40.4%	14.3%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.3, the largest number of the respondents disagreed that uniform training program is drawn for all national-level athletes, i.e. 113 (40.4%), followed by those who agreed, 59 (21.1%), strongly disagreed, 40 (14.3%), strongly agreed, 39 (13.9%), and lastly, 29 (10.4%) of the respondents had no idea.

Table 4.3.1: ANOVA Descriptive Summary Table

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	18.493	3	6.164	3.712	.012
Within Groups	458.307	276	1.661		
Total	476.800	279			

Analysis of variance showed a significant difference (.012). The null Hypothesis that there would be no significant difference between AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes' views on the drawing of uniform training program for

athletes in Kenya was rejected. This implies that majority of respondents were not in agreement that uniform training programs were drawn for all national-level athletes in Kenya. This significant difference could be attributed to the fact that some foreign managers draw programs for their athletes that are different from those drawn by local coaches. When foreign managers draw programs for their athletes, they demand from them a certain technical and tactical strategies during competitions which may vary from the ones drawn by other coaches. This is detrimental to overall team work as distance running requires team strategy.

Many a times athletes report late to the national team training camps as a result of commitments with their managers. Some of these commitments involve private races abroad which deny them a chance to undertake uniform training with the rest of the athletes who report at the national residential training camps prior to competition.

4.2.3 Adequacy of Facilities and Equipment

Table 4.4 shows the adequacy of facilities and equipment available to Kenyan runners on the basis of responses from government sports officers, AK officials, coaches and athletes themselves.

Table 4.4: Adequacy of Facilities and Equipment.

Status or position in athletics	Athletes are provided with adequate facilities and equipment					Total
	strongly agree	agree	no idea	disagree	strongly disagree	
athlete	21	48	6	69	41	185
	11.4%	25.9%	3.2%	37.3%	22.2%	100.0%
coach	2	12	0	25	10	49
	4.1%	24.5%	.0%	51.0%	20.4%	100.0%
AK official	1	7	1	19	6	34
	2.9%	20.6%	2.9%	55.9%	17.6%	100.0%
GSO	0	2	2	5	3	12
	.0%	16.7%	16.7%	41.7%	25.0%	100.0%
Total	24	69	9	118	60	280
	8.6%	24.6%	3.2%	42.1%	21.4%	100.0%

It is evident from Table 4.4 that the largest proportion of the respondents, 118 (42.1%) disagreed that the facilities and equipment provided for Kenya's middle and long distance athletes were adequate, followed by those who agreed, 69 (24.6%), strongly disagreed, 60 (21.4%), strongly agreed, 24 (8.6%) and lastly, those who had no idea, 9 (3.2%).

Table 4.4.1: ANOVA Descriptive Summary Table

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.973	3	1.991	1.182	.317
Within Groups	464.738	276	1.684		
Total	470.711	279			

ANOVA showed no significant difference (.317). The null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference between AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes' responses on adequacy of athletics facilities and equipment provided to Kenyan athletes accepted. This implies that the four groups of respondents were in agreement that

middle and long distance athletes in Kenya were not provided with adequate facilities and equipment. Despite the fact that most of the country's athletes hail from Rift Valley province (Sailer, 2000; Shontz, 2002; Onywera, 2006), there is no single tartan track in the province nor public gymnasium equipped with resistance training facilities. The two tartan tracks available in Kenya are based in Nairobi, the capital city and apart from national team, individual athletes have to pay in order to use the facility. This discourages many athletes especially those who cannot afford the fee. This is in contrast to the situation encountered by athletes who switch to other countries where they enjoy adequate and high-tech facilities (VOA, 2005).

4.2.4 Adequacy of Funds for Training and Competition.

Table 4.5 shows the respondents' views concerning provision of funds for training and competition at national level to Kenyan runners.

Table 4.5: Adequacy of Funds for Training and Competition.

Status or position in athletics	Athletes are provided with enough funds for training and competition at national level					Total
	strongly agree	agree	no idea	disagree	strongly disagree	
athlete	47	52	13	44	29	185
	25.4%	28.1%	7.0%	23.8%	15.7%	100.0%
coach	4	5	0	25	15	49
	8.2%	10.2%	.0%	51.0%	30.6%	100.0%
AK official	4	5	1	16	8	34
	11.8%	14.7%	2.9%	47.1%	23.5%	100.0%
GSO	2	2	0	6	2	12
	16.7%	16.7%	.0%	50.0%	16.7%	100.0%
Total	57	64	14	91	54	280
	20.4%	22.9%	5.0%	32.5%	19.3%	100.0%

It is evident from Table 4.5 that a larger number of the respondents, 91 (32.5%) disagreed that Kenyan middle and long distance athletes were provided with adequate funds for training and competition at national level, followed by those who agreed, 64 (22.9%), strongly agreed, 57 (20.4%), strongly disagreed, 54 (19.3%) and lastly, those who had no idea, 14 (5.0%).

Table 4.5.1: ANOVA Descriptive Summary Table

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	56.841	3	18.947	9.674	.000
Within Groups	540.584	276	1.959		
Total	597.425	279			

Analysis of variance showed a significant difference (.000). The null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference between AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes' views on the adequacy of funds provided to Kenyan

athletes to meet their training and competition expenses was not accepted. This difference can be attributed to the fact that there are some of the athletes whose training expenses are covered by their managers while others depend wholly on allowances provided by AK. Those under foreign management are likely to be contented with the training allowances as the federation's allowances are an additional income which those who do not have foreign managers do not enjoy.

4.2.5 Ways in which Kenyan Runners are Motivated

Table 4.6 shows ways in which Kenyan runners are motivated as indicated by the respondents.

Table 4.6: Ways in which Kenyan Athletes are Motivated

Status or position in athletics	Ways in which Kenyan athletes are motivated			Total
	money	medals	scholarships	
athlete	120	64	1	185
	64.9%	34.6%	.5%	100.0%
coach	34	15	0	49
	69.4%	30.6%	.0%	100.0%
AK official	14	20	0	34
	41.2%	58.8%	.0%	100.0%
GSO	6	6	0	12
	50.0%	50.0%	.0%	100.0%
Total	174	105	1	280
	62.1%	37.5%	.4%	100.0%

It is evident from Table 4.6 that majority of the respondents, 174 (62.1%) indicated that financial reward was the main incentive given to Kenya's middle and long distance athletes, followed by medals, 105 (37.5%) and lastly, scholarships, 1 (.4%).

Table 4.6.1: ANOVA Descriptive Summary Table

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.013	3	.671	2.802	.040
Within Groups	66.098	276	.239		
Total	68.111	279			

ANOVA showed a significant difference (.040). The null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference between opinions of AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on ways by which Kenyan athletes are provided with incentives was not accepted. This difference could be explained by the fact that financial rewards are set aside for winners only, and so other motivational ways like medals also counts.

4.2.6 Extent of Adequacy of Incentives Provided to Athletes.

Table 4.7 shows the extent of adequacy of incentives provided to Kenyan athletes.

Table 4.7: Rating of Adequacy of Incentives

Status or position in athletics	The extent of motivation given					Total
	very adequate	adequate	no comment	inadequate	very inadequate	
athlete	50	67	14	38	16	185
	27.0%	36.2%	7.6%	20.5%	8.6%	100.0%
coach	7	13	3	23	3	49
	14.3%	26.5%	6.1%	46.9%	6.1%	100.0%
AK official	4	7	2	21	0	34
	11.8%	20.6%	5.9%	61.8%	.0%	100.0%
GSO	5	3	0	3	1	12
	41.7%	25.0%	.0%	25.0%	8.3%	100.0%
Total	66	90	19	85	20	280
	23.6%	32.1%	6.8%	30.4%	7.1%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.7, the highest proportion of the respondents rated the incentive given as adequate, 90 (32.1%), followed by inadequate, 85 (30.4%), very adequate, 66 (23.6%), very inadequate, 20 (7.1%), and no comment 19 (6.8%).

Table 4.7.1: ANOVA Descriptive Summary Table

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	23.730	3	7.910	4.729	.003
Within Groups	461.667	276	1.673		
Total	485.396	279			

Analysis of variance showed a significant difference (.003). The null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference in the views of AK officials, government sports officers, coaches and athletes on adequacy of incentives provided to Kenyan athletes was rejected. This showed disagreement among the respondents on rating of adequacy of incentives given to the athletes. The highest number of athletes rated the incentives as

adequate. This significant difference could have been brought about due to the fact that some Kenyan athletes took part in private World Athletics Circuits and Grand Prix where allowances were given while the other proportion of the athletes depended on earnings accruing from local races, AK meets and National Olympic Committee of Kenya (NOCK) organized international competitions.

4.2.7 Athletes' Selection

Table 4.8 shows participants' responses concerning use of national trials and wild card as methods of athletes' selection.

Table 4.8: Rating of Methods of Athletes' Selection.

Status or position in athletics	National trials and wild card method are most effective methods for selection					Total
	strongly agree	agree	no idea	disagree	strongly disagree	
athlete	47	68	19	36	15	185
	25.4%	36.8%	10.3%	19.5%	8.1%	100.0%
coach	6	25	5	8	5	49
	12.2%	51.0%	10.2%	16.3%	10.2%	100.0%
AK official	3	19	3	7	2	34
	8.8%	55.9%	8.8%	20.6%	5.9%	100.0%
GSO	2	4	2	2	2	12
	16.7%	33.3%	16.7%	16.7%	16.7%	100.0%
Total	58	116	29	53	24	280
	20.7%	41.4%	10.4%	18.9%	8.6%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.8, the highest number of the respondents indicated that national trials and wild card were the most effective methods for selecting athletes for international competitions. 116 (41.4%), followed by those who strongly agreed, 58

(20.7%), disagreed, 53 (18.9%), no idea, 29 (10.4%), and lastly, 24 (8.6%) of the respondents strongly disagreed

Table 4.8.1: ANOVA Descriptive Summary Table

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.992	3	.664	.423	.737
Within Groups	433.718	276	1.571		
Total	435.711	279			

Analysis of variance showed no significant difference (.737). The null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference in the participants' rating on the effectiveness of the methods used by AK to select athletes for international competitions was accepted. This implies that majority of respondents agreed that national trials and wild card were the most effective methods of selecting athletes for international competitions.

Mwisukha *et al.*, (2003) emphasized that qualified technical personnel with adequate knowledge should be accorded the opportunity to conduct team selection. The study also advocated team selection based on a continuous process. This is in support of wild card which is based on continuous observation. The study further outlined variables to be considered during team selection as, physical, physiological, psycho-social, historical, technical and tactical factors.

National championships are held every year in Kenya for the purpose of talent identification and promotion of athletics nationwide through the provinces. Qualifying times are set for every event to make an athlete eligible to represent his/her province at the championships. Athletes representing the province must have qualified in their districts to proceed to provincial trials. To select the national team for All Africa Games,

Commonwealth Games, Africa Athletic Championships, World Athletic Championship or the Olympics Games, national trials are held where local and foreign-based athletes are invited to take part. Qualifying time for national trials are of high standard and upon meeting the qualifying time, three athletes are selected per event. Among the three, two are picked at the championship while the third slot is reserved for athletes to be selected using the wild card method. Athletes given wild cards are those who have displayed an impressive performance throughout the season.

4.2.8 Career Advisors and Counselors

Table 4.9 shows respondents' responses on the provision of guidance and counseling services to Kenya's runners.

Table 4.9: Rating of Provision of Guidance and Counseling.

Status or position in athletics	Number of career advisors and counselors					Total
	very adequate	adequate	no comment	inadequate	very inadequate	
athlete	26	54	25	57	23	185
	14.1%	29.2%	13.5%	30.8%	12.4%	100.0%
coach	1	6	5	31	6	49
	2.0%	12.2%	10.2%	63.3%	12.2%	100.0%
AK official	0	2	4	25	3	34
	.0%	5.9%	11.8%	73.5%	8.8%	100.0%
GSO	0	2	3	7	0	12
	.0%	16.7%	25.0%	58.3%	.0%	100.0%
Total	27	64	37	120	32	280
	9.6%	22.9%	13.2%	42.9%	11.4%	100.0%

It is evident from Table 4.9 that a larger proportion of the respondents, 120 (42.9%) rated provision of guidance and counseling services to Kenya's middle and long distance

athletes as inadequate, followed by adequate, 64 (22.9%) and no comment, 37 (13.2%), very inadequate, 32 (11.4%) and lastly, 27 (9.6%) of the respondents felt that provision of guidance and counseling services to Kenyan middle and long distance athletes was very adequate.

Table 4.9.1: ANOVA Descriptive Summary Table

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	36.310	3	12.103	9.074	.000
Within Groups	368.133	276	1.334		
Total	404.443	279			

ANOVA showed a significant difference (.000). The null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference in rating of responses was rejected. Having a mixed population of athletes comprising those managed by local and foreign agents could have brought about the significance difference. This is could be explained by the fact that foreign managers offer total management services including counseling (Xxyyy, 2007). The importance of counseling as outlined in Chapter two was a factor of great concern to all respondents especially the athletes who felt that they need a person to re-assure them all the time when they experience pressure in training and competition

what a reference???

4.2.9 Seeking of Foreign Citizenship

Table 4.10 shows responses from government sports officers, AK officials, coaches and athletes on whether Kenyan athletes move to foreign countries in search of better management and care.

Table 4.10: Seeking of Foreign Citizenship

Status or position in athletics	Kenyan runners move to foreign countries to seek better management and care.					Total
	strongly agree	agree	no idea	disagree	strongly disagree	
athlete	106	52	5	15	7	185
	57.3%	28.1%	2.7%	8.1%	3.8%	100.0%
coach	31	12	1	4	1	49
	63.3%	24.5%	2.0%	8.2%	2.0%	100.0%
AK official	22	8	1	2	1	34
	64.7%	23.5%	2.9%	5.9%	2.9%	100.0%
GSO	7	4	0	0	1	12
	58.3%	33.3%	.0%	.0%	8.3%	100.0%
Total	166	76	7	21	10	280
	59.3%	27.1%	2.5%	7.5%	3.6%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.10, the highest number of the respondents strongly agreed that Kenyan athletes move to foreign countries in search of better management and care, i.e. 166 (59.3%) respondents, followed by those who agreed, 76 (27.1%), disagreed, 21 (7.5%), strongly disagreed, 10 (3.6%) and lastly, 7 (2.5%) of the respondents had no idea. As literature explains foreign athletic managers in Kenya (Chapter 2), management in athletics involves a lot of risks in terms of financial investment where recovery and profits from the bases of hopes (when the athlete is successful in the race). This could be the factor contributing to the foreigners who have perfected the art of staying in the business while local managers hesitate venturing into the business. Athletes, especially the upcoming always look for a manager who will organize races for them and take care of their travel and up keep (Anonymous, 2007). Race organizers abroad have trust in established managers and so signing athletes they bring forward is not a problem. Foreign

managers own state of art facilities where they train the athletes and sign, a thing that is hard to find here in Kenya. In 2005, the then sports minister, in an effort to stop talent drain from the country tried to pass a law prohibiting Kenyan athletes from changing their citizenship. After losing the battle, he lamented:

'Kenya needs to nurture its pool young talent long before they are lured away by sports managers from abroad. We only tap them after they reach the national champions and then we realize, Wow, we have this kid. And then we try to hang around them, but they also become very clever and they get agents and managers. And they (the agents and managers) take them overseas'
(VOA, 2005 Webpage).

4.2.10 Athletics Facilities and Equipment Abroad.

Table 4.11 shows the participant's responses on athletic facilities and equipment abroad.

Table 4.11: Athletics Facilities and Equipment Abroad.

Status or position in athletics	Athletic facilities and equipment abroad are more adequate and advanced compared to Kenya's					Total
	strongly agree	agree	no idea	disagree	strongly disagree	
athlete	71	64	14	30	6	185
	38.4%	34.6%	7.6%	16.2%	3.2%	100.0%
coach	17	13	0	11	8	49
	34.7%	26.5%	.0%	22.4%	16.3%	100.0%
AK official	10	11	1	8	4	34
	29.4%	32.4%	2.9%	23.5%	11.8%	100.0%
GSO	4	6	0	1	1	12
	33.3%	50.0%	.0%	8.3%	8.3%	100.0%
Total	102	94	15	50	19	280
	36.4%	33.6%	5.4%	17.9%	6.8%	100.0%

It is evident from Table 4.11 that a larger proportion of the respondents, 102 (36.4%) indicated that athletic facilities and equipment abroad are more adequate and advanced

compared to Kenya's, followed by, 94 (33.6%) who further agreed, 50 (17.9%) who disagreed, 19 (6.8%) strongly disagreed and lastly, 15(5.4%) of the respondents had no idea.

The findings are supported by the results reported in Table 4.4 where the largest proportion of the respondents, i.e. 118 (42.1%) disagreed that the facilities and equipment provided for Kenya's middle and long distance athletes were adequate. Mulhauser (2004) commented on Kenyan top athletes' migration to foreign countries as an attraction to top training facilities there.

4.2.11 Effectiveness of Athlete's Management in Kenya

Table 4.2.12 summarizes the participants' comments on effectiveness of athletes' management in Kenya.

Table 4.12: Effectiveness of Athletes' Management in Kenya.

Status or position in athletics	Comment on effectiveness of athlete's management in Kenya					Total
	very effective	fairly effective	no comment	needs improvement	not effective	
athlete	21	41	1	106	16	185
	11.4%	22.2%	.5%	57.3%	8.6%	100.0%
coach	1	8	1	36	3	49
	2.0%	16.3%	2.0%	73.5%	6.1%	100.0%
AK official	2	8	1	21	2	34
	5.9%	23.5%	2.9%	61.8%	5.9%	100.0%
GSO	0	1	0	9	2	12
	.0%	8.3%	.0%	75.0%	16.7%	100.0%
Total	24	58	3	172	23	280
	8.6%	20.7%	1.1%	61.4%	8.2%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.12, the highest number of the respondents indicated that overall athletes' management in Kenya was ineffective, i.e. 172(61.4%), followed by those who indicated the management was effective, 58 (20.7%), very effective, 24 (8.6%), very ineffective, 23 (8.2%), and lastly, 3 (1.1%) of the respondents had no comment. The opinion that athletes' management in Kenya is ineffective could be attributed to the outcome of the study in which majority of the respondents, 113 (40.4%) disagreed that uniform training program is drawn for all national-level athletes (.012) (Table 4.3), 118 (42.1%) disagreed that the facilities and equipment provided for Kenya's middle and long distance athletes were adequate (.317) (Table 4.4), 91 (32.5%) disagreed that Kenyan middle and long distance athletes were provided with adequate funds for training and competition at national level (.000) (Table 4.5), 120 (42.9%) rated provision of guidance and counseling services to Kenya's middle and long distance athletes as inadequate, (.000) (Table 4.9) and 102 (36.4%) indicated that athletic facilities and equipment abroad are more adequate and advanced compared to Kenya's (Table 4.11). An overwhelming majority of respondents, 166 (59.3%) indicated that Kenyan athletes move to foreign countries in search of better management and care.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter gives the summary, conclusion and recommendation of the study.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

- i. Majority of the respondents, 178 (63.6%) who included government sports officers, Athletics Kenya officials, athletic coaches and athletes were male, while there were 102 (36.4%) female respondents.
- ii. The largest proportion of respondents, 9.3% Athletics Kenya officials, 15.4% coaches, 3.9% government sports officers and 46.8% athletes were introduced to athletics at school.
- iii. A large number of respondents i.e. 50% were motivated to participate in athletics either as officials or athletes based on their athletic talent. Source of income was found to be the second closest motivation, especially among the athletes (23.9%).
- iv. An overwhelming number of respondents, (97%) had over one year of experience either as athletes or officials.
- v. Provincial wise, the largest number of respondents hailed from North Rift (n=29), while North Eastern province (n=10) had the lowest respondents.
- vi. The views of the respondents on adequacy and qualification of Kenyan coaches for middle and long distance athletes did not differ significantly (.204). They were in agreement that the coaches were adequate and qualified.

- vii. The opinions of the respondents on drawing of uniform training programs for all national-level athletes while preparing for national and international competitions significantly differed (.012). Their views indicated that uniform training programs were not drawn for all national-level athletes while preparing for national and international competitions.
- viii. The participants' responses concerning adequacy of facilities and equipment available to Kenyan runners did not differ significantly (.317). Their views indicated that there were no adequate facilities and equipment for Kenya's middle and long distance runners.
- ix. The respondents' views on adequacy of funds for training and competition at national level to Kenyan runners were significantly different (.000). These indicated that Kenyan middle and long distance athletes were not provided with adequate funds for training and competition at the national level.
- x. The participants' opinions on ways in which Kenyan runners are motivated were significantly different (.040). Majority of the respondents were in agreement that financial reward was the main incentive given to Kenya's middle and long distance athletes.
- xi. The respondents' views on the extent of adequacy of incentives provided to Kenyan athletes were significantly different (.003). A total of 90(32.1%) respondents indicated that the incentive was adequate and 85 (30.4%) indicated it was inadequate.
- xii. The ratings of the respondents on use of national trials and wild card as effective methods of athletes' selection did not differ significantly (.737). They were in

agreement that national trials and wild card were the most effective methods for selecting athletes who would represent Kenya at international competitions.

- xiii. The ratings of the participants on provision of guidance and counseling services to Kenyan runners were significantly different (.000). Their rating indicated that the provision of guidance and counseling services to Kenya's middle and long distance athletes was inadequate.
- xiv. The majority of the respondents' responses, 166 (59.3%) indicated that Kenyan athletes immigrate to foreign countries in search for better management and care.
- xv. A large number of responses, 102 (36.4%) indicated that athletic facilities and equipment abroad are more adequate and advanced compared to those in Kenya.
- xvi. Majority of the participants' responses, 172 (61.4%) commented that the overall athletes' management in Kenya was ineffective.

5.2 Conclusion of the study

Based on the findings of the study, the following can be concluded:

- i. Majority of middle and long distance athletes in Kenya, their coaches, Athletics Kenya officials and Government sports officials are male.
- ii. Most of the middle and long distance athletes in Kenya started their running careers at schools. Athletic officials' knowledge on athletics was likewise acquired during their schooling days.
- iii. Need to realize talent potential and income were the major motivating factors amongst athletes and officials' management.
- iv. Elite Kenyan's middle and long distance elite runners have over one year experience in their careers.

- v. The largest proportion of Kenyan middle and long distance runners hails from Rift Valley province while North Eastern had minority hails from North Eastern Provincial.
- vi. Kenya has adequate and qualified middle and long distance coaches to manage her athletes.
- vii. Uniform training programs were not drawn for all national-level athletes while preparing for national and international competitions.
- viii. Kenya's middle and long distance runners were not provided with adequate facilities and equipment for training and competition.
- ix. Kenyan middle and long distance athletes are not provided with adequate funds for training and competition at national level
- x. The main incentive given to Kenya's middle and long distance athletes is money. According to the views of the government sports officers, Athletics Kenya officials, coaches and athletes, financial reward given as an incentive was adequate.
- xi. National trials and wild card are the most effective methods for selecting athletes for international competitions.
- xii. Provision of guidance and counseling services to Kenya's middle and long distance athletes is inadequate.
- xiii. Athletic facilities and equipment abroad are more adequate and advanced compared to those in Kenya.
- xiv. Kenyan runners move abroad searching for better management and care.

- xv. To the opinions of middle and long distance athletes, their coaches, government sports officer and AK officials, management of Kenya's athletes is ineffective.

5.3 Recommendations and suggestions for further research

The following recommendations and suggestions were made on the basis of the findings:

(a) Policy changes

(i) Athletic training programs

Athletics Kenya should draw uniform training program for the athletes at national level during preparations for the national and international competitions. AK should put in place strict measures on ensuring that all the athletes selected to join the national team are in training camp as expected without delay for smooth program implementation and success.

(ii) Empowerment and support to the local managers

AK and the ministry of youth affairs and sports should support local managers and coaches financially and parallel courses on athletes' management so as they can successfully secure contracts for Kenyan runners abroad.

(iii) Equipment and facility

The ministry of youth affairs and sports should provide state of the art facility among others gymnasias and fitness assessment centers in all provinces. At least one tartan track per province should be constructed.

(iv) Athlete's career and counseling

In addition to employing coaches, AK and the ministry of youth affairs and sports should employ sports psychologists and counselors to assist Kenya's athletes.

Kenyan athletes should form a kitty to help in developing athletics around the country and assist some of the members when caught up with severe calamities like political disturbances, environmental disasters, among others.

(b) Suggestion for further research

- i. Further research need to be carried on how athletics has contributed to the economy of the country versus the priority given to its development during annual budgetary allocations.
- ii. The role of retired athletes in nurturing upcoming talents in the country needs to be researched on, establishing their role in current level of athletics development.
- iii. Research should be carried out establishing the parallel between athletes' lifestyles before and after changing their nationality.
- iv. Research need to be carried to establish the effects of political unrest on athletes' management in Kenya.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

LEWIS RAMSEY NYAGA,
P.O BOX 43844-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

THROUGH THE CHAIRMAN,
EXERCISE, RECREATION AND SPORTS SCIENCE,
KENYATTA UNIVERSITY,

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir Madam,

Ref: Responding to the questionnaires

I am a postgraduate student in the department of Exercise, Recreation and Sport Science, Kenyatta University. As a requirement of my study, I am carrying out a study on the management of Kenyan athletes, hoping to come up with findings that will help improve management of athletes in Kenya.

This is a letter requesting for your assistance in filling the attached questionnaire. The information you will give will be used for the purpose of this study only. To ensure confidentiality, your name is not required anywhere

Thank you for accepting to respond to the questionnaire.

For any clarification, do not hesitate to contact me.

Thank you.

Lewis Ramsey
CELL: 0721692339
E-MAIL: ram61179@yahoo.com

APPENDIX B: LETTER TO THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

LEWIS RAMSEY NYAGA,
P.O BOX 43844-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

THROUGH THE CHAIRMAN,
EXERCISE, RECREATION AND SPORTS SCIENCE,
KENYATTA UNIVERSITY,

TO THE PS,
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION,
RESEARCH PERMIT DEPARTMENT,

Dear Sir Madam,

RE: REQUEST FOR A RESEARCH PERMIT.

I am a postgraduate student in the Department of Exercise, Recreation, and Sports Science, Kenyatta University. I am carrying out a study on management of middle and long distance athletes in Kenya. The reason for carrying out this study is to find out the managerial practices applied on Kenyan athletes and the resultant impact on the running culture in Kenya. I intend to carry out this study within Athletics Kenya affiliate branches.

Thank you.

Lewis Ramsey
CELL: 0721692339
E-MAIL: ram61179@yahoo.com

APPENDIX C: LETTER TO ATHLETICS KENYA

LEWIS RAMSEY NYAGA,
P.O BOX 43844-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

THROUGH THE CHAIRMAN,
EXERCISE, RECREATION AND SPORTS SCIENCE,
KENYATTA UNIVERSITY,

TO THE SECRETARY,
ATHLETICS KENYA,
NAIROBI.

Dear Sir,

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A STUDY IN YOUR BRANCHES.

I am a postgraduate student in the Department of Exercise, Recreation, and Sports Science, Kenyatta University. I am carrying out a study on management of middle and long distance athletes in Kenya. The reason for carrying out this study is to find out and contribute to the managerial practices applied on Kenyan athletes and the resultant impact on the running culture in Kenya. The information gathered will be used for the study purpose only. I intend to carry out this study within Athletics Kenya affiliate branches and administer questionnaires to athletes, coaches, and branch officials.

Thank you.

Lewis Ramsey
CELL: 0721692339
E-MAIL: ram61179@yahoo.com

APPENDIX D: ATHLETICS MANAGEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

- Do not write your name anywhere on this questionnaire.
- Tick on the box where you feel it is appropriate

Section A: General information

1. Gender: Male..... Female.....
2. Please indicate your position/status in athletics from the following

Athlete	
Coach	
AK Official	
Government Sports officer	
NOCK Official	
Indicate if other	

3. As an official, coach or athlete, who introduced you to the field of athletics

A relative	
A friend	
Schooling	
Specify if any other	

4. What is your biggest motivation in taking part in athletics

Source of income	
Kenyan Culture	
Talent	
Fitness	
Indicate any other	

5. How many times have you represented Kenya in an international competition? (**For athletes only**)

1-3	
4-6	
7-9	
10 and above	

6. Years/Months of experience as an athlete, coach or an official.....
7. Provincial team affiliated to.....

Section B: Information on Management of Athletes

1. Which way are Kenyan athletes **mainly** motivated (**tick only one**)

Money	
Medals and trophies	
Specify any other	

2. How would you categorize the extent of motivation mentioned in one (1) above

Very adequate	
Adequate	
No comment	
Inadequate	
Very inadequate	

3. Kenyan athletes are managed by adequate and qualified Kenyan coaches

Strongly agree
Agree
No idea
Disagree
Strongly disagree

4. Kenyan athletes move to foreign countries due to better athletes' management there.

Strongly agree
Agree
No idea
Disagree
Strongly disagree

5. Kenyan athletes are provided with adequate athletics facilities and equipment

Strongly agree
Agree
No idea
Disagree
Strongly disagree

6. Athletic facilities and equipment abroad are advanced compared to Kenya's

Strongly agree
Agree
No idea
Disagree
Strongly disagree

7. Athletes in Kenya are provided with adequate funds to cater for their training and competition needs after being selected at national level

Strongly agree
Agree
No idea
Disagree
Strongly disagree

8. National championships qualifications and wild card selection methods are used during national team selection. This is considered as the most effective criteria

Strongly agree
Agree
No idea
Disagree
Strongly disagree

9. Uniform training program is drawn for all Kenyan national-level athletes

Strongly agree
Agree
No idea
Disagree
Strongly disagree

10. How would you rate the number of career advisors and counselors available for Kenyan athletes

Very adequate	
Adequate	
No comment	
Inadequate	
Very inadequate	

11. What is your comment about the overall effectiveness to which Kenyan athletes are managed

Their management is very effective	
Their management is effective	
No comment	
Their management is ineffective	
Their management is very ineffective	

-END-

Thank you for participation

APPENDIX E: RANKINGS OF TOP-50 MIDDLE AND LONG DISTANCE ATHLETES AS AT MARCH 2007

COUNTRY	EVENTS AND NO. OF ATHLETES				TOTALS
	800m	1500m	3000m ST	5000m-10000m	
Kenya	8	11	14	18	51 (25.5%)
USA	6	5	3	5	19 (9.5%)
Spain	3	5	5	3	16 (8%)
Morocco	2	4	4	3	13 (6.5%)
Britain	3	2	2	1	8 (4%)
Ethiopia			2	5	7 (3.5%)
Russia	3		2	1	6 (3%)
Australia		2	2	1	5 (2.5%)
Brazil	2	1	1	1	5 (2.5%)
Brunei	1	2	1	1	5 (2.5%)
Qatar	2		1	2	5 (2.5%)
Algeria	1	3			4 (2%)
France	1	1	2		4 (2%)
Germany	1	1		2	4 (2%)
Poland	1	1	2		4 (2%)
Sweden	1	1	1	1	4 (2%)
Uganda	1			3	4 (2%)
Canada	2	2			4 (4%)
Italy	2		1		3 (1.5%)
South Africa	1	1	1		3 (1.5%)
Ireland		2			2 (1%)
Netherlands	1		1		2 (1%)
New Zealand		2			2 (1%)
Portugal		2			2 (1%)
Saudi Arabia	1		1		2 (1%)
Ukraine		1	1		2 (1%)
Austria			1		1 (0.5%)
Botswana	1				1 (0.5%)
China			1		1 (0.5%)
Eritrea				1	1 (0.5%)
Finland			1		1 (0.5%)
Japan		1			1 (0.5%)
Kuwait	1				1 (0.5%)
Latvia	1				1 (0.5%)
Luxembourg	1				1 (0.5%)
Senegal	1				1 (0.5%)
Sudan	1				1 (0.5%)
Swaziland				1	1 (0.5%)
Trinidad	1				1 (0.5%)
Turkey				1	1 (0.5%)
TOTAL S					200 (100%)

Source: IAAF.org. (2007)

APPENDIX F:

RECORDS HELD BY KENYAN ATHLETES IN
VARIOUS EVENTS WHO HAVE CHANGED THEIR
NATIONALITIES

ADOPTED COUNTRY	Record title	Name	Place	Date	Performance
DENMARK	World (800m)	Wilson Kipketer	Köln	24 08 1997	1:41.11
	EUROPE (800m)	Wilson Kipketer	Köln	24 08 1997	1:41.11
BRUNEI	ASIA (800m)	Youssef Saad Kamel (Gregory Konchella)	Zürich	06 08 2004	1:43.11
USA	NORTH, CENTRAL AMERICA&C. (1500M)	Bernard Lagat	Rieti	28 08 2005	3:29.30
QATAR	World record (steeplechase)	Saif Saaeed Shaheen (Stephen Cherono)	Bruxelles	03 09 2004	7:53.63
	Asian (steeplechase)	Saif Saaeed Shaheen (Stephen Cherono)	Bruxelles	03 09 2004	7:53.63
	World junior (steeplechase)	Saif Saaeed Shaheen (Stephen Cherono)	Bruxelles	24 08 2001	7:58.66
	Asian (5000m)	Saif Saaeed Shaheen (Stephen Cherono)	Roma	14 07 2006	12:51.98
	Asian (1 Mile)	Daham Najim Bashir (David Nyaga)	Oslo	29 07 2005	3:47.97
TOTAL RECORDS					9 (11.25% of total)

Source: iaaf.org. (2007)

APPENDIX G:

**SAMPLED KENYAN ATHLETES' TRAINING
BASES, THEIR MANAGERS' AND COACHES'
ORIGINS**

Athlete	Base country	Manager/country	Coach/country
Elkanah Angwenyi	USA (Philadelphia)	Hussein Makke (USA)	
Wilfred Bungei	Italy	Gianni Demadonna (Italian)	Gianni Ghidini (Italy)
Abraham Chebii	Kenya	Tom Ratcliffe	Dieter Hogen
Augustine Choge	Kenya	James Templeton (Germany)	Br. Colm O'Connell
Charles Kamathi	Kenya	Federico Rosa (Italian)	Gabriele Rosa (Italian)
Ezekiel Kemboi	Kenya/Europe	Enrico Dionisi (Italy)	Self -coached
Robert Kipchumba	Italy /Kenya	Gianni Demadonna (Italian)	Renato Canova (Italian)
Alex Kipchirchir	USA (Portland, Oregon)/Kenya	Federico Rosa (Italian)	David Leting/John Cook
Eliud Kipchoge	Netherlands (Nijmegen)/Kenya	Jos Hermens	Patrick Sang/ Joseph Chelimo
Brimin Kipruto	Kenya	Michel Boeting	Patrick Sang/ Joseph Chelimo
Paul Kipsiele Koech	Germany/Kenya	James Templeton (Germany)	
Daniel Kipchirchir Komen	Britain/Kenya	Gianni Demadonna (Italian)	Jimmy Beuttah/ Joseph Ngure
Timothy Kiptanui Too	Italy (Verona)/Kenya	Gianni Demadonna (Italian)	Francis Songol (Kenyan)
Sammy Kipketer	Kenya	Tom Ratcliffe	Dieter Hogen
Paul Kipketer Korir	Britain (London) /Kenya	Ricky Simms	Jimmy Beuttah (British)
John Cheruiyot Korir	Italy (Trento)/ Kenya	Gianni Demadonna	Renato Canova
Benjamin Kipkoech Limo	Kenya	Ricky Simms	
Moses Cheruiyot Mosop	Kenya /Italy	Gianni Demadonna	Renato Canova
Isaac Kiprono Songok	Germany (Tubingen)/Kenya	James Templeton	Br. Colm O'Connell
William Oloonkishu Yiampany	Italy (Verona)/Kenya	Gianni Demadonna	Gianni Ghidini

Source: Manners (2007)

APPENDIX H: IAAF WORLD CHAMPIONSHIP IN ATHLETICS

All-time medal table 1983-2007

Rank	Nation	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1.	United States	114	61	59	234
2.	Russia	33	51	37	121
3.	Kenya	27	22	23	72
4.	Germany (incl. West Germany)	26	26	34	86
5.	Soviet Union	21	27	28	76
6.	East Germany	21	19	15	55
7.	Cuba	17	16	6	39
8.	Ethiopia	16	14	11	41
9.	Great Britain	13	24	26	63
10.	Italy	11	14	12	37
11.	Belarus	10	11	11	32
12.	Morocco	10	11	6	27
13.	Czech Republic	10	3	3	16
14.	France	9	11	12	32
15.	Ukraine	8	9	11	28
16.	China	8	7	8	23
17.	Jamaica	7	29	30	66
18.	Finland	7	7	5	19
19.	Poland	7	5	9	21
20.	Australia	7	5	8	20
21.	Sweden	7	3	5	15
22.	Spain	6	15	12	33
23.	Algeria	6	0	3	9
24.	Romania	5	8	8	21
25.	Bahamas	5	6	4	15
26.	Portugal	5	5	5	15
27.	Bulgaria	5	3	7	15
28.	Norway	5	3	2	10
29.	South Africa	5	3	1	9
30.	Canada	4	5	10	19
31.	Greece	4	5	10	19
32.	Czechoslovakia	4	4	3	11
33.	Switzerland	4	0	3	7
34.	Japan	3	5	10	18
35.	Mexico	3	1	6	10
36.	Mozambique	3	1	1	5
37.	Ecuador	3	1	0	4
38.	Bahrain	3	1	0	4
39.	Denmark	3	0	1	4
40.	Estonia	2	3	0	5

41.	Lithuania	2	2	1	5
42.	Ireland	2	2	0	4
43.	Dominican Republic	2	1	0	3
44.	Qatar	2	1	0	3
45.	New Zealand	2	0	1	3
46.	Tajikistan	2	0	0	2
47.	Namibia	1	4	0	5
48.	Netherlands	1	3	3	7
49.	Trinidad and Tobago	1	3	2	6
50.	Zambia	1	2	0	3
51.	Uganda	1	1	1	3
52.	Saint Kitts and Nevis	1	0	2	3
53.	Somalia	1	0	1	2
54.	Syria	1	0	1	2
55.	Senegal	1	0	1	2
56.	North Korea	1	0	0	1
57.	Croatia	1	0	0	1
58.	Panama	1	0	0	1
59.	Brazil	0	5	5	10
60.	Hungary	1	4	5	9
61.	Nigeria	0	3	3	6
61.	Kazakhstan	0	2	3	5
63.	Djibouti	0	2	0	2
64.	Cameroon	0	2	0	2
65.	Turkey	0	2	0	2
66.	Austria	0	1	1	2
67.	Burundi	0	1	1	2
68.	Suriname	0	1	1	2
69.	Sri Lanka	0	1	1	2
70.	Israel	0	1	1	2
71.	Slovenia	0	1	1	2
72.	Ghana	0	1	1	2
73.	Bermuda	0	1	0	1
74.	Tanzania	0	1	0	1
75.	Belgium	0	0	3	3
76.	Slovakia	0	0	2	2
77.	Dominica	0	0	1	1
78.	Saudi Arabia	0	0	1	1
79.	American Samoa	0	0	1	1
80.	Haiti	0	0	1	1
81.	India	0	0	1	1
82.	Cyprus	0	0	1	1
83.	Tunisia	0	0	1	1
Total		491	494	488	1473

SOURCE: WIKIPEDIA (2008)

APPENDIX I: 2002 COMMONWEALTH GAMES

Medal table by country

Rank	Nation	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1.	Australia	82	62	63	207
2.	England	54	52	60	166
3.	Canada	31	41	46	118
4.	India	30	22	17	69
5.	New Zealand	11	13	21	45
6.	South Africa	9	20	17	46
7.	Cameroon	9	1	2	12
8.	Malaysia	7	9	18	34
9.	Wales	6	13	13	31
10.	Scotland	6	8	16	30
11.	Nigeria	5	3	11	19
12.	Kenya	4	8	4	16
13.	Jamaica	4	6	7	17
14.	Singapore	4	2	7	13
15.	Bahamas	4	0	4	8
16.	Nauru	2	5	8	15
17.	Northern Ireland	2	2	1	5
18.	Cyprus	2	1	1	4
19.	Pakistan	1	3	4	8
20.	Fiji	1	1	1	3
21.	Zambia	1	1	1	3
22.	Zimbabwe	1	1	0	2
23.	Namibia	1	0	4	5
24.	Tanzania	1	0	1	2
25.	Bangladesh	1	0	0	1
26.	Guyana	1	0	0	1
27.	Mozambique	1	0	0	1
28.	Saint Kitts and Nevis	1	0	0	1
29.	Botswana	0	2	1	3
30.	Uganda	0	2	0	2
31.	Samoa	0	1	2	3
32.	Trinidad and Tobago	0	1	0	1
33.	Barbados	0	0	1	1
34.	Cayman Islands	0	0	1	1
35.	Ghana	0	0	1	1
36.	Lesotho	0	0	1	1
37.	Malta	0	0	1	1
38.	Mauritius	0	0	1	1
39.	Saint Lucia	0	0	1	1
Total		282	280	336	898

SOURCE: WIKIPEDIA (2008)

APPENDIX J: ATHLETICS AT THE 2006 COMMONWEALTH GAMES

Athletics medal table by country

Position	Country	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1.	Australia	16	12	13	41
2.	Jamaica	10	4	8	22
3.	Kenya	6	5	4	15
4.	England	6	4	8	18
5.	South Africa	5	7	2	14
6.	Canada	2	7	4	13
7.	Nigeria	2	4	3	9
8.	New Zealand	2	1	1	4
9.	Uganda	2	0	0	2
10.	Tanzania	1	0	1	2
11.	Ghana	1	0	0	1
12.	India	0	2	1	3
13.	Bahamas	0	2	0	2
14.	Wales	0	1	2	3
15.	Scotland	0	1	1	2
16.	Botswana	0	1	0	1
17.	Grenada	0	1	0	1
18.	Mauritius	0	1	0	1
19.	Trinidad and Tobago	0	0	2	2
20.	Cameroon	0	0	1	1
21.	Cyprus	0	0	1	1
22.	Mozambique	0	0	1	1
23.	Seychelles	0	0	1	1
Total		53	53	54	160

SOURCE: WIKIPEDIA (2008)

APPENDIX K: 2006 AFRICAN CHAMPIONSHIPS IN ATHLETICS

Medals table

Position:	Nation:	Gold:	Silver:	Bronze:	Total:
1.	South Africa	10	11	6	27
2.	Kenya	6	3	4	13
3.	Nigeria	5	6	4	15
4.	Egypt	4	2	2	8
5.	Ghana	4	-	2	6
6.	Tunisia	3	5	2	10
7.	Ethiopia	2	2	2	6
8.	Morocco	1	3	2	6
9.	Algeria	1	2	6	9
10.	Senegal	1	2	1	4
11.	Cameroon	1	1	3	5
12.	Botswana	1	1	1	3
13.	Sudan	1	1	-	2
14.	Uganda	1	-	1	2
15.	Democratic Republic of the Congo	1	-	-	1
16.	Mauritius	-	1	1	2
17.	Burkina Faso	-	1	1	2
18.	Mozambique	-	1	1	2
19.	Seychelles	-	1	1	2
20.	Madagascar	-	1	-	1
21.	Côte d'Ivoire	-	-	1	1
22.	Benin	-	-	1	1
23.	Zimbabwe	-	-	1	1

SOURCE: WIKIPEDIA (2008)

**APPENDIX L: ALL ATHLETICS RECORDS IN MIDDLE AND LONG
DISTANCE EVENTS AND RESPECTIVE NATIONALITIES
OF THE HOLDERS AS AT MARCH 2007**

Nationality	Record title	Name	Place	Date	Performance	TOTAL
KENYA	World junior (800m)	Japheth Kimutai	Zürich	13 08 1997	1:43.64	
	African (800m)	Sammy Koskei	Köln	26 08 1984	1:42.28	
	World (1000m)	Noah Ngeny	Rieti	05 09 1999	2:11.96	
	African (1000m)	Noah Ngeny	Rieti	05 09 1999	2:11.96	
	World junior (1000m)	Benjamin Kipkurui	Nice	17 07 1999	2:15.00	
	World leading 2007 (1500m)	Shadrack Korir	Melbourne	02 03 2007	3:37.37	
	World junior (1500m)	Cornelius Chirchir	Monaco	19 07 2002	3:30.24	
	World youth best performance (1500m)	Nicholas Kemboi	Zürich	18 08 2006	3:33.72	
	World junior (1 Mile)	Alex Kipchirchir	Rieti	07 09 2003	3:50.25	
	World (1000m)	Daniel Komen	Rieti	01 09 1996	7:20.67	
	African (1000m)	Daniel Komen	Rieti	01 09 1996	7:20.67	
	World junior (1000m)	Augustine Kiprono Choge	Doha	13 05 2005	7:28.78	
	World junior (5000m)	Eliud Kipchoge	Oslo	27 06 2003	12:52.61	
	World junior (10000m)	Samuel Wanjiru	Bruxelles	26 08 2005	26:41.75	14 (17.5%)
AUSTRALIA	World leading 2007 (800m)	Jeffrey Riseley	Melbourne	02 03 2007	1:46.88	
	Oceania (1500m)	Simon Doyle	Stockholm	03 07 1991	3:31.96	

	World leading 2007 (1 Mile)	Paul Hoffman	Melbourne	30 01 2007	4:00.47	
	Oceania (1 Mile)	Craig Mottram	Oslo	29 07 2005	3:48.98	
	Oceania (2000m)	Craig Mottram	Melbourne	09 03 2006	4:50.76	
	World leading 2007 (3000m)	Craig Mottram	Sydney	17 02 2007	7:42.00	
	Oceania (3000m)	Craig Mottram	Athina (Olympic Stadium)	17 09 2006	7:32.19	
	World leading 2007 (5000m)	Craig Mottram	Melbourne	02 03 2007	13:32.67	
	Oceania (5000m)	Craig Mottram	London (CP)	30 07 2004	12:55.76	
	Oceania (10000m)	Shaun Creighton	Melbourne	25 11 1996	27:31.92	10 (12.25%)
QATAR	World record (steeplechase)	Saif Saaed Shaheen	Bruxelles	03 09 2004	7:53.63	
	Asian (steeplechase)	Saif Saaed Shaheen	Bruxelles	03 09 2004	7:53.63	
	World junior (steeplechase)	Saif Saaed Shaheen	Bruxelles	24 08 2001	7:58.66	
	Asian (1000m)	Mohamed Suleiman	Lindau	28 07 1995	2:18.91	
	Asian (1 Mile)	Daham Najim Bashir (David Nyaga)	Oslo	29 07 2005	3:47.97	
	Asian (2000m)	Mohamed Suleiman	Roma	08 06 1995	4:55.57	
	Asian (3000m)	Gamal Belal Salem	Doha	13 05 2005	7:30.76	
	Asian (5000m)	Saif Saaed Shaheen	Roma	14 07 2006	12:51.98	
	Asian (10000m)	Ahmad Hassan Abdullah	Bruxelles	05 09 2003	26:38.76	9 (11.25%)
USA	NORTH, CENTRAL AMERICA&C. (800M)	Johnny Gray	Koblenz	28 08 1985	1:42.60	

	NORTH. CENTRAL AMERICA&C. (1000M)	Rick Wohlhuter	Oslo	30 07 1974	2:13.9	
	NORTH. CENTRAL AMERICA&C. (1500M)	Bernard Lagat	Rieti	28 08 2005	3:29.30	
	NORTH. CENTRAL AMERICA&C. (1Mile)	Steve Scott	Oslo	07 07 1982	3:47.69	
	NORTH, CENTRAL AMERICA&C. (2000m)	Jim Spivey	Lausanne	15 09 1987	4:52.44	
	NORTH. CENTRAL AMERICA&C. (3000m)	Bob Kennedy	Monaco	08 08 1998	7:30.84	
	NORTH. CENTRAL AMERICA&C. (5000m)	Bob Kennedy	Zürich	14 08 1996	12:58.21	
	NORTH. CENTRAL AMERICA&C. (steeplechase)	Daniel Lincoln	Roma	14 07 2006	8:08.82	8 (10%)
BRAZIL	SOUTH AMERICA (800M)	Joaquim Cruz	Köln	26 08 1984	1:41.77	
	SOUTH AMERICA (1000M)	Joaquim Cruz	Nice	20 08 1984	2:14.09	
	SOUTH AMERICA (1500M)	Hudson de Souza	Rieti	28 08 2005	3:33.25	
	SOUTH AMERICA (1 Mile)	Hudson de Souza	Oslo	29 07 2005	3:51.05	
	SOUTH AMERICA (2000m)	Hudson de Souza	Manaus	06 04 2002	5:03.34	
	SOUTH AMERICA (3000m)	Hudson de Souza	Lausanne	02 07 2002	7:39.70	
	SOUTH AMERICA (5000m)	Marilson dos Santos	Kassel	08 06 2006	13:19.43	
	SOUTH AMERICA (steeplechase)	Wander do Prado Moura	Mar del Plata	22 03 1995	8:14.41	8 (10%)
MOROCCO	World (1500m)	Hicham El Guerrouj	Roma	14 07 1998	3:26.00	

	African (1500m)	Hicham El Guerrouj	Roma	14 07 1998	3:26.00	
	World (1 Mile)	Hicham El Guerrouj	Roma	07 07 1999	3:43.13	
	African (1 Mile)	Hicham El Guerrouj	Roma	07 07 1999	3:43.13	
	World (2000m)	Hicham El Guerrouj	Berlin	07 09 1999	4:44.79	
	African (2000m)	Hicham El Guerrouj	Berlin	07 09 1999	4:44.79	
	African (steeplechase)	Brahim Boulami	Bruxelles	24 08 2001	7:55.28	7 (8.75%)
ETHIOPIA	World youth best performance (3000M)	Abreham Cherkos Feleke	Lausanne	11 07 2006	7:32.37	
	World (5000m)	Kenenisa Bekele	Hengelo	31 05 2004	12:37.35	
	African (5000m)	Kenenisa Bekele	Hengelo	31 05 2004	12:37.35	
	World (10000m)	Kenenisa Bekele	Bruxelles	26 08 2005	26:17.53	
	African (10000m)	Kenenisa Bekele	Bruxelles	26 08 2005	26:17.53	5 (6.25%)
BELGIUM	EUROPE (3000m)	Mohammed Mourhit	Monaco	18 08 2000	7:26.62	
	EUROPE (5000m)	Mohammed Mourhit	Bruxelles	25 08 2000	12:49.71	
	EUROPE (10000m)	Mohammed Mourhit	Bruxelles	03 09 1999	26:52.30	3 (3.75%)
BRUNEI	Youth - World Best Performance (800m)	Belal Mansoor Ali	Conegliano Veneto	17 06 2005	1:44.34	
	ASIA (800m)	Youssef Saad Kamel	Zürich	06 08 2004	1:43.11	
	ASIA (1500m)	Rashid Ramzi	Roma	14 07 2006	3:29.14	3 (3.75%)
BRITAIN	EUROPE (1000m)	Sebastian Coe	Oslo	11 07	2:12.18	

				1981		
	EUROPE (1Mile)	Steve Cram	Oslo	27 07 1985	3:46.32	
	EUROPE (2000m)	Steve Cram	Budapest	04 08 1985	4:51.39	3 (3.75%)
NEWZEALAND	OCEANIA (800m)	Peter Snell	Christchurch	03 02 1962	1:44.3	
	OCEANIA (1000m)	John Walker	Oslo	01 07 1980	2:16.57	
	OCEANIA (steeplechase)	Peter Renner	Koblenz	29 08 1984	8:14.05	3 (3.75%)
DENMARK	World (800m)	Wilson Kipketer	Köln	24 08 1997	1:41.11	
	EUROPE (800m)	Wilson Kipketer	Köln	24 08 1997	1:41.11	2 (2.5%)
ISRAEL	World Leading 2007 (2000m)	Itai Magidi	Tel Aviv	08 01 2007	5:10.12	1 (1.25%)
NETHERLANDS	OCEANIA (steeplechase)	Simon Vroemen	Bruxelles	26 08 2005	8:04.95	1 (1.25%)
SOUTH AFRICA	World leading 2007 (steeplechase)	Ruben Ramolefi	Stellenbosch	02 03 2007	8:20.18	1 (1.25%)
ARGENTINA	SOUTH AMERICA (10000m)	Antonio Fabián Silio	Bruxelles	03 09 1993	27:38.72	1 (1.25%)
SPAIN	EUROPE (1500m)	Fermín Cacho	Zürich	13 08 1997	3:28.95	1 (1.25%)
TOTAL						80 (100%)

(IAAF.ORG, 2007)

APPENDIX M: KENYAN RUNNERS OLYMPIC MEDALISTS 1964 - 2008*NB: Kenya took part for the first time in 1956 but the first medal was won in 1964*

Medal	Name	Games	Event
Bronze	Wilson Kiprugut	1964 Tokyo	Men's 800 m
Gold	Naftali Temu	1968 Mexico City	Men's 10000 m
Gold	Kipchoge Keino	1968 Mexico City	Men's 1500 m
Gold	Amos Biwott	1968 Mexico City	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Benjamin Kogo	1968 Mexico City	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Daniel Rudisha Heziah Nyamau Naftali Bon Charles Asati	1968 Mexico City	Men's 4×400m relay
Silver	Kipchoge Keino	1968 Mexico City	Men's 5000 m
Bronze	Naftali Temu	1968 Mexico City	Men's 5000 m
Silver	Wilson Kiprugut	1968 Mexico City	Men's 800 m
Bronze	Philip Waruinge	1968 Mexico City	Men's featherweight
Gold	Kipchoge Keino	1972 Munich	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Gold	Charles Asati Heziah Nyamau Robert Ouko Julius Sang	1972 Munich	Men's 4×400 m relay
Silver	Kipchoge Keino	1972 Munich	Men's 1500 m
Silver	Ben Jipcho	1972 Munich	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Philip Waruinge	1972 Munich	Men's featherweight
Bronze	Julius Sang	1972 Munich	Men's 400 m
Bronze	Mike Boit	1972 Munich	Men's 800 m
Bronze	Samuel Mbugua	1972 Munich	Men's lightweight
Bronze	Dick Murunga	1972 Munich	Men's welterweight
Bronze	Michael Musyoki	1984 Los Angeles	Men's 10000 m
Gold	Julius Korir	1984 Los Angeles	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Bronze	Ibrahim Bilali	1984 Los Angeles	Men's flyweight
Gold	John Ngugi	1988 Seoul	Men's 5000 m

Gold	Paul Ereng	1988 Seoul	Men's 800 m
Gold	Robert Wangila	1988 Seoul	Men's welterweight
Silver	Peter Koech	1988 Seoul	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Douglas Wakiihuri	1988 Seoul	Men's Marathon
Bronze	Kipkemboi Kimeli	1988 Seoul	Men's 10000 m
Bronze	Chris Sande	1988 Seoul	Men's middleweight
Gold	Matthew Birir	1992 Barcelona	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Gold	William Tanui	1992 Barcelona	Men's 800 m
Silver	Richard Chelimo	1992 Barcelona	Men's 10000 m
Silver	Patrick Sang	1992 Barcelona	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Paul Bitok	1992 Barcelona	Men's 5000 m
Silver	Nixon Kiprotich	1992 Barcelona	Men's 800 m
Bronze	William Mutwol	1992 Barcelona	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Bronze	Samson Kitur	1992 Barcelona	Men's 400 m
Gold	Joseph Keter	1996 Atlanta	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Paul Tergat	1996 Atlanta	Men's 10000 m
Silver	Moses Kiptanui	1996 Atlanta	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Paul Bitok	1996 Atlanta	Men's 5000 m
Silver	Pauline Konga	1996 Atlanta	Women's 5000 m
Bronze	Stephen Kipkorir	1996 Atlanta	Men's 1500 m
Bronze	Fred Onyancha	1996 Atlanta	Men's 800 m
Bronze	Erick Wainaina	1996 Atlanta	Men's Marathon
Gold	Noah Ngeny	2000 Sydney	Men's 1500 m
Gold	Reuben Kosgei	2000 Sydney	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Paul Tergat	2000 Sydney	Men's 10000 m
Silver	Wilson Boit Kipketer	2000 Sydney	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Erick Wainaina	2000 Sydney	Men's Marathon
Bronze	Bernard Lagat	2000 Sydney	Men's 1500 m
Bronze	Joyce Chepchumba	2000 Sydney	Women's Marathon
Gold	Ezekiel Kemboi	2004 Athens	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Bernard Lagat	2004 Athens	Men's 1500 m
Silver	Brimin Kipruto	2004 Athens	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Isabella Ochichi	2004 Athens	Women's 5000 m
Silver	Catherine Ndereba	2004 Athens	Women's Marathon
Bronze	Paul Kipsiele Koech	2004 Athens	Men's 3000 m

			steeplechase
Bronze	Eliud Kipchoge	2004 Athens	Men's 5000 m
Gold	Brimin Kiprop Kipruto	2008 Beijing	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Gold	Wilfred Bungei	2008 Beijing	Men's 800 m
Gold	Samuel Wanjiru	2008 Beijing	Men's Marathon
Gold	Pamela Jelimo	2008 Beijing	Women's 800 m
Gold	Nancy Lagat	2008 Beijing	Women's 1500 m
Silver	Janeth Jepkosgei Busienei	2008 Beijing	Women's 800 m
Silver	Catherine Ndereba	2008 Beijing	Women's Marathon
Silver	Eunice Jepkorir	2008 Beijing	Women's 3000 m steeplechase
Silver	Asbel Kipruto Kiprop	2008 Beijing	Men's 1500 m
Silver	Eliud Kipchoge	2008 Beijing	Men's 5000 m
Bronze	Richard Kipkemboi Mateelong	2008 Beijing	Men's 3000 m steeplechase
Bronze	Micah Kogo	2008 Beijing	Men's 10000 m
Bronze	Edwin Cheruiyot Soi	2008 Beijing	Men's 5000 m
Bronze	Alfred Kirwa Yego	2008 Beijing	Men's 800 m

SOURCE: WIKIPEDIA (2008)

APPENDIX N: ATHLETICS MEDALS BY SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES 1956- 2008

Games	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1956 Melbourne	0	0	0	0
1960 Rome	0	0	0	0
1964 Tokyo	0	0	1	1
1968 Mexico City	3	4	1	8
1972 Munich	2	2	2	6
1976 Montreal	did not participate			
1980 Moscow	did not participate			
1984 Los Angeles	1	0	1	2
1988 Seoul	4	2	1	7
1992 Barcelona	2	4	2	8
1996 Atlanta	1	4	3	8
2000 Sydney	2	3	2	7
2004 Athens	1	4	2	7
2008 Beijing	5	5	4	14
Total	21	28	19	68

SOURCE: WIKIPEDIA (2008)

APPENDIX O: IAAF OLYMPICS RECORDS**Men**

Race	Time	Name	Date of Birth	Country	Place	Date
800 Meters	1:42.58	Vebjørn Rodal	16/09/1972	Norway	Atlanta	31/07/96
1500 Meters	3:32.07	Noah Ngeny	02/11/1978	Kenya	Sydney	29/09/00
5000 Meters	13:05.59	Saïd Aouita	02/11/1959	Morocco	Los Angeles	11/08/84
10,000 Meters	27:05.10	Kenenisa Bekele	13/06/1982	Ethiopia	Athina	20/08/04
3000 Meters Steeple chase	8:05.51	Julius Kariuki	12/06/1961	Kenya	Seoul	30/09/88

Women

Race	Time	Name	Date of Birth	Country	Place	Date
800 Meters	1:53.43	Nadezhda Olizarenko	28/11/1953	URS	Moskva	27/07/80
1500 Meters	3:32.07	Paula Ivan	20/07/1963	ROU	Seoul	01/10/88
5000 Meters	14:40.79	Gabriela Szabo	14/11/1975	ROU	Sydney	25/09/00
10,000 Meters	30:17.49	Derartu Tulu	21/03/1972	Ethiopia	Sydney	30/09/00

(IAAF.ORG, 2008)

APPENDIX P: NCAA and USADA rules about prohibited/banned drugs in sport

Drug class (example)	NCAA	USADA
Alcohol	Banned in-competition rifle	Prohibited only in-competition for archery and other non NCAA sports
Anabolic steroids/agents	Banned	Prohibited
Hormone modulators, including all aromatase inhibitors and anti-estrogens	Banned	Prohibited
Beta Blockers	Banned for rifle	Prohibited only in-competition for gymnastics, bowling, specified skiing disciplines, wrestling and non NCAA sports. Prohibited both in-competition and out-of-competition for archery and shooting
Beta-2 Agonists (e.g., asthma meds)	Banned or restricted	Prohibited only in-and out-of-competition. Specified Beta-2 Agonists require an abbreviation TUE (Therapeutic Use Exception). All others require a standard TUE.
Dietary supplements	WARNING: use at your own risk.	WARNING: use at your own risk.
Diuretic and other urine modulators (e.g., finasteride, canrenone)	Banned	Prohibited
Glucocorticosteroids (e.g., prednisone)	Not Banned	Prohibited in-competition. Local and inhalation use require an abbreviation TUE. Topical use permitted.
Hormones and related substances (e.g., growth hormone, EPO)	Banned	Prohibited
Local Anesthetics	Restricted	Allowed
Marijuana	Banned	Prohibited. Tested for in-competition.
Narcotics (except heroine)	Not Banned	Specific drugs prohibited in-competition. Other allowed.
Prohibited Methods	Banned. E.g., blood doping, chemical and physical manipulation	Prohibited. Gene doping, oxygen transport e.g., blood doping, RSR13), chemical and physical manipulation.
Stimulants	Banned (Except pseudoephedrine and phenylephrine)	Prohibited in-competition. (except caffeine, pseudoephedrine and phenylephrine)

(Drug freesport.com, 2008)

KEY:

Banned or prohibited: drug may not be used and requires approved TUE

Restricted: drug may be used under special circumstances defined by the organization.

Not banned or allowed: drug may be used, assuming the use is legal, appropriate or medically justified.

For TUE (Therapeutic Use Exception), a complete and legible form must be submitted to USADA by the athlete prior to using the medication in sport. Some sports require specific medical records and test results.

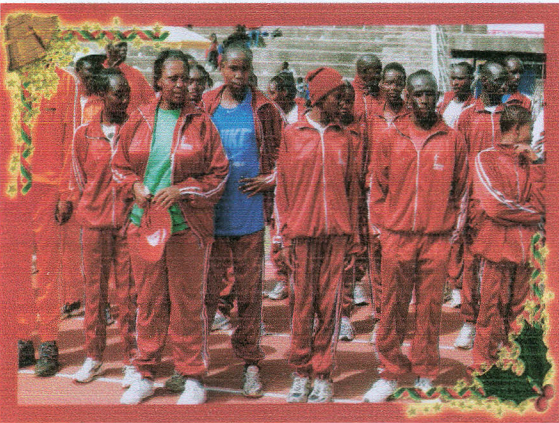
APPENDIX Q: RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS AT 2007 NATIONAL ATHLETICS CHAMPIONSHIP.



Armed Forces



Eastern Province



Central Province



Nairobi Province



Coast Province



North Eastern Province



North Rift Province



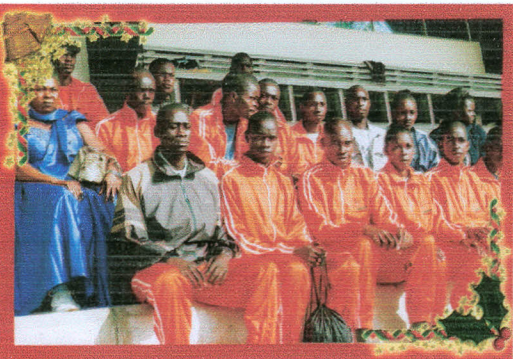
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