

# **Assessment of Coaches' Knowledge Regarding Their Legal Duties toward Athletes**

PhD thesis

**Azadeh Mohamadinejad**

Doctoral School of Sport Sciences

Semmelweis University



Supervisors:

Dr. András Nemes – Associate professor, PhD

Dr. Gyöngyi Szabó Földesi – Professor emerita, DSc

Official Reviewers:

Dr. Judit Farkas – Faculty coordinator, PhD

Dr. László Kecskés – University professor, DSc

Head of the Final Exam Committee:

Dr. Gábor Pavlik – Professor emeritus, DSc

Members of the Final Exam Committee:

Dr. Csaba Hédi – Associate professor, PhD

Dr. József Bognár – Associate professor, PhD

BUDAPEST 2014

# Table of Contents

---

1. ABBREVIATIONS .....	4
2. INTRODUCTION.....	5
3. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	7
3.1. Legal Liability .....	7
3.1.1. Coaches’ Legal Liability .....	9
3.1.2. Coaches’ Legal Duties .....	12
3.1.3. Knowledge of Coaches Regarding their Legal Duties .....	15
3.1.4. Risk Management Practice in Sport .....	18
3.1.5. Factors Affecting Coaches’ Knowledge and Awareness.....	21
3.1.6. Social Status of Coaches in Iran.....	24
3.1.7. Situation of Iranian Coaches in the Global Scene.....	25
3.2. Theoretical Framework.....	27
4. OBJECTIVES .....	29
4.1. Research Questions .....	29
4.2. Hypotheses.....	30
5. METHODS .....	31
5.1. Survey.....	31
5.1.1. Sampling.....	31
5.1.2.Characteristics of the Sample .....	33
5.1.3. Data Collection .....	34
5.1.4. Statistical Analysis.....	36
5.2. In-depth Interviews.....	36
6. RESULTS .....	38
6.1. Supervision .....	40
6.1.1. General Supervision.....	40

6.1.2. Specific Supervision .....	41
6.1.3. Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Supervision .....	42
6.2. Instruction and Training .....	47
6.2.1. Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Instruction and Training.....	48
6.3. Facility and Equipment.....	52
6.3.1. Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Facilities and Equipment .....	54
6.4. Warning of Risk .....	58
6.4.1. Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Warning of Risk.....	60
6.5. Medical Care .....	61
6.5.1. Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Medical Care .....	63
6.6. Knowledge of Player .....	64
6.6.1. Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Knowledge of Players.....	66
6.7. Matching Player.....	69
6.7.1 Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Matching Players.....	71
6.8. The Results in the Mirror of International Studies.....	71
6.9. Major Factors Affecting the Coaches' Kanowledge about their Legal Duties...81	
6.9.1. Gender.....	81
6.9.2. Education, Field of Study, Certification.....	82
6.9.3. Age and Experience.....	84
6.9.4. Type of Sport, Championship History.....	85
7. DISCUSSION.....	87
7.1. Coaches' Explanation Concerning their Insufficient Legal Knowledge.....	87
7.2. System of Coaching Education in Iran .....	90

7.3. Coaches' Social Recognition Regarding their Profession.....	93
8. CONCLUSIONS.....	96
8.1. Checking the Hypothesis.....	97
8.2. Recommendations.....	99
9. SUMMARY.....	101
9.1 Summary in English.....	101
9.2 Summary in Hungarian (Összefoglalás).....	103
10. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	105
11. REFERENCES.....	106
12. LIST OF PUBLICATIONS BY THE AUTHOR.....	121
13. APPENDIXES.....	123
13.1 Appendixe A. Questionnaire in English.....	123
13.2 Appendixe B. Questionnaire in Persian.....	128
13.3 Appendixe C. Guideline for the In-depth Interviews .....	132

# **1. LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

CPR: Cardio Pulmonary Resuscitation

FA: First Aid

FAA: First Aid Assessment

MANOVA: Multivariate Analysis of Variance

MSRT: Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology of Iran

NCAA: National Collegiate Athletic Association

PA: Physical Activity

PE: Physical Education

PPE: Pre-Participation Physical Examination

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

## 2. INTRODUCTION

With the increased participation in youth sports there is a rise in the number of sports related injuries (Barron, 2004). Injuries occur even when the risks had been identified and all the logical precautions had been implemented (Dimitriadi and Dimitriadi, 2007; Dougherty et al., 2007; Staurowsky and Weight, 2011).

While most injuries result from the inherent risks of sport, occasionally they are the result of careless or thoughtless behavior or omission of some responsible persons (Hoch, 1985). In such cases, liability for the injuries may rest with a coach, supervisor, teacher, association, club, event organizer, or facilities (Nadeau, 1995). Coaches play the primary role when dealing with athletes and the activities in which the athletes engage (Barron, 2004; Schwarz, 1996). There are the individuals who generally have the most direct control over the participants (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999) and are present at the time of injury. Therefore whenever an unfortunate incident occurs on playing fields, the actions or inactions of the coach are likely to be second-guessed or directly blamed (Guskiewicz and Pachman, 2010; Schwarz, 1996). This often causes them to be the defendants in lawsuits brought by participants (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996; Schwarz, 1996). While risk can never be fully eliminated, coaches must exert significant effort to reduce risks (Dimitriadi and Dimitriadi, 2007). They need to be armed with the knowledge of how to handle and prevent these situations (Barron, 2004). In order to minimize risks and care of athletes, case law and legal commentators have imposed numerous duties on coaches. These duties are: to provide proper supervision, to warn of the inherent risk in the sport, to provide adequate and proper instruction, safe environment, safe facilities, safe equipment, adequate and proper health care, proper and safe transportation, and to provide properly match and equate competitors for competition, to plan properly the activity, to assess an athlete's physical readiness for practice and competition, to teach and enforce rules and regulations, to uphold the athletes' rights, to provide due press, to foresee potential incidents, to provide competent and responsible personnel, and to prevent injured athletes from competing (Doleschal, 2006; Figone, 1989; Hensch, 2006; Labuschagne and Skea, 1999; McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996; Schwarz, 1996). In brief, coaches are required to exercise reasonable

care for the protection of the athletes to make sure they are not exposed to risk in any aspect of sport (Schwarz, 1996).

Each particular duty is determined by the specific circumstances surrounding the activity (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996). They will vary according to the level of age, skill and experience of the participants as well as the nature and tempo of the sport (Schubert et al., 1986).

When the coaches do not know their duties, they are putting their athletes in an unsafe situation and they are also putting themselves at legal risk which in most of cases result in civil action against the coach, and sometimes cause criminal prosecution against the coach by the injured athlete (Wenham, 1994; Wenham, 1999). Accordingly, the performance of the coaches' duties can reduce the athletes' injury from one side, and from the other side it can reduce the legal liability of the coaches (Dimitriadi and Dimitriadi, 2007). So it is required that the coaches should be aware of their legal duties toward the athletes (Singh and Surujlal, 2010) and should make attempt to increase and up to date their knowledge.

To further enhance the knowledge of coaches, it is essential to examine, evaluate, and describe the existing knowledge of athletic coaches (Barron, 2004; Zimmerman, 2007). In this regards, the university coaches are in a special situation because the students who participate at university sport vary in age, size, experience, skill, physical conditions and abilities. Such variance, in combination with vigorous physical activity, creates inherently unstable situations in which mishaps are more likely to occur. Therefore, studying the university coaches' knowledge and awareness of their legal duties towards their athletes is valuable.

The purpose of this thesis is to discuss the coaches' knowledge about their legal duties toward their athletes at the Iranian Universities and to reveal the impact of various demographic and social factors on their knowledge. The thesis is based on a comprehensive empirical research. It should be mentioned that, according to my information, these issues have never been examined in Iran in their entirety.

### **3. REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### ***3.1 Legal Liability***

Legal liability is a term in law which means responsibility for the consequences of one's acts or omissions, enforceable by civil remedy or criminal punishment (Business Dictionary, 2012). Two categories of legal liability exist: criminal liability and civil liability (Sullivan and Decker, 2005). Criminal liability applies when an offense, or a crime occur against the public (Jones, 1999; Tappen et al., 1998). Civil liability arise from private wrongs (tort) or a breach of contract that is not a criminal act against another individual resulting in harm. The injured person can seek compensation for the damages he/she suffered through civil law (Business Dictionary, 2012; Jones, 1999; Khan, 1999). Tort law is a civil wrong committed by one person against another person or property and it is categorized as intentional or unintentional (Aiken, 1994; Carpenter, 2008; Jones, 1999; Sullivan and Decker, 2005; Tappen et al., 1998; Van der Smissen, 2001). An intentional tort occurs when the action is willful and intends to hurt another person, such as assault, battery, libel, or slander (Aiken, 1994; Carpenter, 2008; Sullivan and Decker, 2005). Intentional torts require the plaintiff to prove the defendant has intent and motive, which resulted in damages (Aiken, 1994; Carpenter, 2008). An unintentional tort is "an unintended, wrongful act against another person that produces injury or harm" (Aiken, 1994, p.83). Negligence and malpractice are unintentional torts (Aiken, 1994; Jones, 1999; Sullivan and Decker, 2005; Van der Smissen 2001). Negligence can be defined as a conduct that creates undue risk and harm to others (Jones, 1999). Negligence is an unintentional act that occurs as a result of omission or commission. Omission is the failure of an individual to perform an act. With commission the individual performs the act, but the individual fails to perform the act in a manner that a reasonable and prudent person would perform it in a similar situation (Aiken, 1994; Sullivan and Decker, 2005; Van der Smissen, 2001). Malpractice is known as a professional negligence. Malpractice occurs when a professional "fails to act as other reasonable and prudent professionals who have the same knowledge and education would have acted under similar situations" (Aiken, 1994, p.86). For the negligent act to be considered malpractice, the act must occur by a professional

while carrying out professional responsibilities and duties (Aiken, 1994; Sullivan and Decker, 2005; Tappen et al., 1998). Without meeting this requirement, the act would strictly be negligence, not malpractice. Whether the alleged incident is filed as malpractice or negligence, a formal complaint filed with the court requires the plaintiff to establish four elements: duty, a breach of that duty, causation, and damage. All four elements must be proven for an individual to be held liable (Aiken, 1994; Jones, 1999; Osborne, 2001; Tappen et al., 1998; Van der Smissen, 1990; Van der Smissen, 2001). Failure to prove any of the four elements will warrant dismissal of the case. The plaintiff in a malpractice or negligence case must first demonstrate that a duty exists. Duty identifies a legal relationship between two parties, not an action. Carpenter (1995) defined it as “the duty to protect from the foreseeable risk of unreasonable harm” (p.40). Typically, the relationship falls into one of three categories: inherent, voluntary assumption, or statute. The relationship can be inherent, such as a patient to healthcare provider or an athlete to a coach. A relationship can be established through voluntary assumption. Van der Smissen (2001) used the example of a volunteer coach and a young player in a non professional league. The relationship can be established by statute, such as employment situations. Once the special relationship is demonstrated, the plaintiff must establish the second element: breach of duty. When the duty established, the plaintiff must demonstrate that the duty or relationship was breached. In other words, the duty was not met or was substandard. In a trial an expert witness may be called to testify as to the current standards and whether the defendant met the current standard or not (Carpenter, 2008; Gallup, 1995). Practice acts, position statements, and policies and procedures are examined to establish a standard of care and determine a breach in the duty. The third element that must be proven is the cause: did the negligent act cause the injury or not (Van der Smissen, 1990). Cause is determined by how much of the negligent act, either omission or commission, is to be blamed for this injury. In other words, the failure to provide the standard of care was breached and was totally or partly the cause of the injury (condition sine qua non). The final element the plaintiff must prove is harm. The plaintiff must demonstrate that the breach of duty is partially the cause of the injury and the result of injury caused harm. The plaintiff usually seeks compensatory

damages for the caused harm in the form of economic loss, physical pain and suffering, emotional distress, and/or physical impairment (Van der Smissen, 1990).

Several individuals can be liable for negligence and malpractice. The individual who committed the negligent act has personal liability and can be named as a defendant. The organization or administrator supervising an individual can also be held liable for the actions of the individual. This is known as vicarious liability. Vicarious liability comes from the doctrine of respondent superior (Cotton, et al., 2001; Sullivan and Decker, 2005). Respondent superior states that “the negligence of an employee is imputed to the corporate entity if the employee was acting within the scope of the employee’s responsibility and authority” (Cotton et al., 2001, p. 49).

### **3.1.1 Coaches’ Legal Liability**

Coaches and athletes also have legal relationship with each other, but the obligations flowing out of this relationship is not defined by the parties. Instead, they are defined by case and statutory law. Regardless of the way a legal relationship is formed, the nature of the relationship defines the duties involved (Carpenter, 2008). According to Carpenter (2008) a coach has the duty to protect athletes from the foreseeable risk of unreasonable harm. The salary level of a party has nothing to do with the duties owed. So, a volunteer coach has the same duties towards the athletes as a paid coach. If the duties a paid coach owes to the athletes include such things as adequate supervision, access to emergency medical care, use of proper progressions, and safe facilities, a volunteer coach owes to the athletes the same duties. The fact that one coach is paid and the other is not has no effect on the duties owed to the athlete (Carpenter, 2008).

Beyond the glitz, glamour, and practical aspects of coaching there is an issue plaguing coaches at all levels. This is the legal liability of coaches for injuries occurring to participants of their respective sport. The coaches’ liability is quickly approaching the forefront of concern, primarily due to increasing litigation resulting in massive verdicts for participants injured as a result of the action or inaction of coaches (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996). But a coach is not under automatic legal liability merely because under

a coach's control an athlete suffers injury (Khan, 1999). Before a coach would have to assume financial responsibility for an athlete's injury, the coach should be found guilty of negligence. In order to be found guilty of negligence, four elements (conjunctive condition) need to exist: (1) the coach owed a duty to conform to a standard of conduct established by law for the protection of the athlete, (2) the coach failed to meet the requisite standard of care required in the circumstances (3) the athlete suffered compensable injury and (4) the coach's breach was the legal cause of the athlete injury. All the elements must be present for negligence to exist. In the absence of anyone of them, no cause of action for negligence will lie (Cadkin, 2008; Carpenter, 2008; Dougherty et al., 2007; Fast, 2004; Hurst and Knight, 2003; Johnson and Easter, 2007; McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

According to the relationship between coach and athlete established by law, the coach is obligated to take care of the athletes under his/her supervision. Therefore, if an injury occurs, the courts will ask whether the injured party was an athlete under direction or supervision of a coach or not (Carpenter, 2008; Dougherty et al., 2007; Khan, 1999; McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

Once a duty has been found to exist, breach must be establish. Breach is commonly defined as a "failure to perform a duty or failure to exercise that care which a reasonable coach would exercise under similar situations" (Feiner, 1997. p.217). When a coach's behavior or actions fall below a medium standard of care, negligence is said to occur. Standard of care is a flexible concept, and it is usually determined by speculating on what an average reasonable coach would do, or not do, under the same circumstances. In determining the applicable standard of care courts refer to an objective standard of conduct. For example, an individual's specific knowledge or experience (or the lack thereof) cannot be used as an excuse for his or her failure to meet this standard (Fast, 2004). The standard of care is a necessarily ambiguous concept as it is always influenced by the potential risk of specific circumstances (Fast, 2004; Khan, 1999; Schot, 2005). Thus the standard may vary depending upon:

-The type of activity; generally the more hazardous or risky the activity is deemed to be, the greater the duty of care that is owed to the participants.

-The age of the participant; generally the younger the participant, the greater the duty of care that is owed. Similarly, frail or aged adults may place greater demands on supervision.

-The ability of the participant; Age should not be considered in isolation but considered along with the ability of the participant. 'Beginners' in any program need greater supervision than more experienced and skilled participants.

-The coach's level of training and experience; the more highly trained and experienced a person is, the greater the standard of care that is expected. For example, a higher standard of care would be expected from a trained and highly skilled instructor than from someone who is volunteering and who may have undertaken only a little training (Fast, 2004; Schot, 2005).

The breach must have resulted in damages or losses to the athlete's body, property or interest (Carpenter, 2008; Dougherty et al., 2007; Fast, 2004). Absence of harm means there is no negligence. The old basketball phrase applies: "No harm, no foul" (Carpenter, 2008).

The fact that the coach negligently breached a duty owed to the athlete is not sufficient grounds for a successful lawsuit (Dougherty et al., 2007) A fourth issue still remains to be resolved before a coach can be held legally responsible for the harm suffered by an athlete. The athlete must prove that the negligent action of the coach was actually the proximate cause of the injury. While volumes have been written on the concept of proximate cause, for the purposes of this discussion, the concept can be reduced to one rather simple question: Did the negligence of the coach cause or aggravate the injury in question? If the answer to this question is no, then regardless of the amount of carelessness present, the injured athlete cannot recover damages for negligence from the coach. This question is often more complex in the case of the intervention and actions of a third party. When one athlete is injured as a result of the actions of another, and a coach is sued, the proximate cause issue revolves around the question of whether the actions of the player who caused the injury could reasonably have been controlled by the coach. One way of addressing this question is seen in the use of but-for test. That is, to hold all factors of the incident constant except for the alleged negligence and, thus, to determine whether, but for

the negligence of the coach, the injury would not have occurred (Dougherty et al., 2007; Fast, 2004; Sailor and Township, 2007).

### **3.1.2 Coaches' Legal Duties**

It has been found that coaches may prevent negligence litigation and resulting liability by knowing their legal duties and by acting as a reasonable prudent person when carrying out those legal duties (Schwarz, 1996). To fully understand the issue of coaches' knowledge about their legal duties it is essential to know what duties coaches are expected to fulfill.

Numerous studies have investigated the legal duties assigned to coaches. Typically, these studies analyzed cases law related to those duties.

Abraham (1970) in his study of New York high schools, discovered the following duties assigned to coaches: to collect and issue equipment, to supervise locker room, to inspect all injuries and provide first aid, to arrange for injured athletes to be taken to physician, to tape and apply protective equipment, and to maintain equipment.

Similarly, in a survey of Chicago high schools by Porter et al. (1980) approximately 75% of the coaches indicated that they performed the following six duties: coaching athletes, administering conditioning programs, educating athletes about diet/nutrition, maintaining equipment, providing first aid, applying protective tape and equipment. The duties identified by Abraham (1970) and Porter et al. (1980) were considered standard (Bell et al., 1984; Blomberg, 1981; Flint and Weiss, 1992; Mathews and Esterson, 1983; Stapleton et al., 1984).

To determine what specific legal duties a coach has and to properly educate coaches on how to perform those legal duties Schwarz (1996) found thirteen legal duties which have been derived from the court precedents and legal literature. These duties include the following: to provide proper supervision, to warn of the inherent risk in the sport or activity, to provide adequate and proper instruction, to provide safe environment and facilities, to provide safe equipment, to provide adequate and proper health care, to provide proper and safe transportation, to properly match and equate competitors for competition, to

provide due press, to teach and enforce rules and regulations, duty to foresee, duty to plan, and duty to uphold athletes rights.

Doleschal (2006) indicated fourteen legal duties which should be viewed as obligations to be met or exceeded by schools and all athletic personals, such as coaches. These duties include; duty to plan, duty to supervise, duty to assess an athlete's physical readiness and academic eligibility for practice and competition, duty to maintain safe playing conditions, duty to provide proper equipment, duty to instruct properly, duty to match athletes, duty to provide and supervise proper physical conditioning, duty to warn of inherent risk, duty to ensure that athletes are covered by injury insurance, duty to develop an emergency response plan, duty to provide proper emergency care, duty to provide safe transportation, duty to select, train, and supervise coaches, these duties used to determine negligence in sports-related injuries that have been formulated from legal proceedings taken from tort related cases involving coaches, schools and athletic programs. In this study these duties were explained and effective practice procedures were suggested to aid schools and its personnel in complying with these duties.

McCaskey and Biedzynski (1996) focused on the legal liability of coaches and on legal actions brought primarily by injured athletes. Primarily, they set eight main legal duties for coaches in each sport which established by prevalent case law and legal commentary. These duties include; supervision; training and instruction; ensuring the proper use of safe equipment; providing competent and responsible personnel; warning of latent dangers; providing prompt and proper medical care; preventing injured athletes from competing; and matching athletes of similar competitive levels.

McGirt (1999), in examination of the duty of care that a university owes to its athletes, also discussed the roles and duties of coaches toward their athletes. He also divided the coaches' duties in eight different duties, similar to McCaskey and Biedzynski (1996).

In the research of Labuschagne and Skea (1999) seven specific legal duty are analyzed: supervision; training and instruction; proper use of facilities and equipment; providing prompt and proper medical care; knowledge of participants; matching and equating participants; and warning of latent dangers which are progressively placed on

coaches and other officials to prevent or minimize injuries to athletes. Similar duties are reported by Hensch (2006) and Figone (1989).

Borkowski (2004) in his research determined eleven legal duties for coaches as the basic legal duties which, if the coaches meet them, appreciably can decrease the chance of injuries to athletes, the number of claims, and the chances of lawsuits against coaches. It will also make the athletic experience worthwhile – and enjoyable. These duties are properly plan the activity, offer appropriate equipment, offer appropriate facilities, offer appropriate instruction, offer appropriate supervision, appropriate condition to the athlete, appropriately warn about the risks of the activity, offer appropriate post injury care, offer appropriate activities, maintain reasonable records, and follow the appropriate rules and regulations.

The following six duties are also considered as sub-duties of the duty of care for coaches by Carpenter (2008): providing proper instruction, providing appropriate supervision, using safe progressions, providing medical help in case of injury, using safe facilities and equipment and teaching appropriate, safe procedures.

Fast (2004) also mentioned the coaches' duties with respect to instruction, supervision, and the provision of medical care as follows: to provide competent and informed instruction about how to perform the activity; to assign drills and exercises that are suitable to the age, ability, fitness level or stage of advancement of the group; to progressively train and prepare the participants for the activity according to an acceptable standard of practice; to clearly explain to the participants the risks involved in the activity; to group participants according to size, weight, skill or fitness to avoid potentially dangerous mismatching; to inquire about illness or injury and to prohibit participation where necessary; in the event of a medical emergency to provide suitable first aid; and where possible, to keep written records of attendance, screening, training and teaching methods in order to provide evidence of efficient control.

Review of the literature and court cases consistently demonstrate that serious injuries, paralysis and even the death of participants in sporting contests are increasing world-wide at an alarming rate because of the lack of the coaches' adequate and proper knowledge about their duties.

### **3.1.3 Knowledge of Coaches Regarding their Legal Duties**

The knowledge of coaches about their duties regarding their athletes in the athletic training environment has been evaluated but often as an isolated specific item.

Numerous studies have investigated the coaches' knowledge and their ability regarding handle responsibilities to providing first aid (Clickard, 1991; Flint and Weiss, 1992; Ransone and Dunn-Bennett, 1999; Redfearn, 1980; Wham et al., 2010). Approximately 30 years ago, researchers began to take more interest in examining the quality and availability of medical care in athletic areas (Wham et al., 2010). When appropriate medical personnel are not provided during games or practices, then coaches are forced to act as the primary care provider for the injured athlete (Flint and Weiss, 1992; Ransone and Dunn-Bennett, 1999; Redfearn, 1980). Therefore, they must be aware of the location of the first aid supplies as well as the emergency plan as it applies to their team (Clickard, 1991). Coaches need to be armed with the knowledge of how to handle emergency situations for the continued and effective treatment of injuries using first aid (Castro, 2010)

Ransone and Dunn-Bennett (1999) assessed the first aid knowledge and decision making of high school athletic coaches. Results showed that only 36% of the coaches passed the first aid assessment given to coaches. In addition, coaches that had passed the first aid assessment were more prone to returning an injured starter to the game. One reason of this could be that the coaches that lacked medical knowledge did not want to return an injured player fearing that the injury may become worse.

Cunningham (2001) studied the extension of medical care that head coaches provided for injured player under their supervision and he found that 97% of the coaches never or seldom provided emergency medical care to their athletes.

Valvovich-McLeod et al. (2008) also showed very low passing rates on their first aid assessment, but coaches with current first aid and CPR certification scored significantly higher on the test.

Major findings of Albrecht (2009) about whether the coaches had the basic first aid and CPR training to serve their young athletes in the event of an emergent or non-emergent injury or sudden illness and whether they had the confidence to manage a basic emergency injury or illness situation when such an occurrence arise during the course of a sports season involving regular practices or game competition, revealed that only 19% and 46% of the 154 youth sport coaches surveyed were formally trained with basic first aid and cardiopulmonary resuscitation and had certifications, respectively. Additional findings indicated that youth sport coaches holding one or two of the suggested certifications, possessed more knowledge and confidence to use that knowledge when faced with FA injury or illness situation.

According to Barron et al. (2009) only a few number (15 out of 290) of coaches completed a first aid assessment earned a passing score.

Results of Castro (2010) about assessing the first aid knowledge of coaches of youth soccer and assessing their decision making ability in hypothetical athletic situation showed that 13 (11.4%) coaches out of 114 coaches earned a passing score on the first aid assessment test. Out of the 114 coaches that completed the demographic data sheet, 31 (27%) reported to have current first aid certification and 24 of them (21%) reported to have current CPR certification. Out of these 55 coaches, only 13 coaches passed the FAA test. The results also show that coaches having current FA and CPR certification were more successful in passing the FAA test.

Most researches have examined the first aid knowledge among coaches, but little is known about their knowledge of sudden death and symptoms of concussion or other injuries in sport.

McGrath (2012) evaluated the knowledge of secondary school football coaches regarding sudden death in sport. He discovered that many coaches were unaware of the potential causes of sudden death in sport and symptoms prior to it.

According to Faure and Pemberton (2011) who examined the Idaho high school football coaches' general understanding of concussion, many coaches were unfamiliar with the signs and symptoms of concussion and they were unable to correctly identify the signs and symptoms that may be present.

O'Donoghue et al. (2009) also revealed that coaches have a moderate level of knowledge regarding concussion.

In another research Cooney et al. (2000) in measuring the knowledge of school rugby coaches who were responsible for senior cup team in Leinster, Ireland found that coaches did not informed about the vital knowledge in the prevention, recognition and management of neck injury. Only 50% (n= 18) of the coaches had a first aid qualification and only 47% (n = 17) carried to the matches first aid equipment to deal with neck injuries.

Results of a research by Orr et al. (2011) about knowledge regarding the risk for knee injuries discovered that female adolescent soccer players (13-18 years old), their parents, and their coaches (n= 484) had never received any information regarding knee injuries.

The survey performed by Gurchiek et al. (1998) indicated that many coaches do not know their role related to both responsibilities and limitations, when it comes to injury prevention, recognition, and rehabilitation.

Redfearn (1980) questioned 262 coaches in Lansing, Michigan on education, emergency medical training, CPR training, experience with life threatening injuries, self appraisals of skills in management of life threatening injuries, and opinions on proximity of medical authority. The results showed that most coaches reported a low level of medical and first aid training, and only 44 percent of them felt that they had the capacity to manage a medical emergency. Cunningham (2002) found similar results when he mailed questionnaires to 250 youth football leagues in the United Kingdom, requesting information about years spent by coaching, about first aid certification, medical equipment available, injury recording, parental consent to treat, injury scenarios, and injuries/illnesses they felt comfortable to manage. Surprisingly, he found that more than half of the respondents (61%) did not possess a current first aid certification.

A review of the relevant literature and several legal cases involving sport injury demonstrated that once an injury had occurred, the coaches did not use proper injury treatment protocol (Cunningham, 2001). The primary reason of failure to provide first aid and emergency medical care by coaches, in addition to conflict related to other duties and time constraints to which the coaches referred, was the lack of first aid knowledge

pertaining to injury care (Abraham, 1970; Culpepper, 1986; Flint and Weiss, 1992; Hage and Moore, 1981; Lindaman, 1991; Redfearn, 1980; Rowe and Miller, 1991; Stapleton et al., 1984; Wiedner, 1989). Indeed, they were not adequately trained for providing first aid and they had an inadequate level of emergency medical education, therefore, they were not capable of administering emergency medical care (Castro, 2010; Calvert, 1979; Dunn, 1995; Hage and Moore, 1981).

### **3.1.4 Risk Management Practice in Sport**

The specific characteristics of risk management in athletic training environment have been often evaluated. Several studies were conducted on risk management behaviors of athletic directors. Anderson and Gray (1994) examined the risk management behaviors of NCAA Division III athletic directors. Gray and Crowell (1993) researched the risk management behaviors of NCAA Division I athletic directors in relation to their athletic programs. Brown and Sawyer (1998) carried out a similar study, but they surveyed NCAA Division II athletic directors. Gray and Park (1991) also examined risk management behaviors among Iowa high school athletic directors.

School principals were in the focus of Gray's investigation (1995), who studied the risk management behaviors of high school principals in relation to their high school physical education and athletic programs. Ammon (1993) researched risk management operation in municipal football stadiums. Lhotsky (2005) also researched risk management at NCAA Division I-A football stadiums based on Ammon's (1993) study.

Some studies evaluated risk management practice of athletic trainers (Gould and Deivert, 2003; Hall and Kanoy, 1993; Zimmerman, 2007). In 2003 Petty examined emergency policies and procedures by NCAA Division IA and Division I-AA athletic programs. Mickle (2001) analyzed case law as a means to develop policy and procedure in athletic training. In 1989 Leverenz analyzed case law connected to athletic training education.

A few studies examined risk management behaviors of coaches. Gray and McKinstrey (1994) examined the risk management behaviors of NCAA Division III

football coaches. They measured the degree of the consistency with which specific risk management behaviors were performed within their varsity football programs, according to NCAA Division III head football coaches. The scale consisted of 36 risk management behavior items within six conceptual areas of legal concern (supervision, instruction, warnings, facilities, equipment, and medical concerns). Individual survey items were also used including: current coaching status, other sports coached, educational background, undergraduate major, graduate major, first aid certification, and CPR certification. The results of the study indicated that risk management behaviors were conducted in a rather consistent manner within NCAA Division III football programs. Out of the 36 items the top 28 had a mean score higher than 4.0 on a 5-point Likert scale. Although, it appeared that these coaches behaved in a relatively consistent manner concerning prudent risk management, one interesting phenomenon emerged. Each of the three survey items that were scored the lowest among all the subjects (n= 182) were related to documentation. These items included: using a sport risk assessment system by the coaches, equipment inspections documented in writing, and signing written warnings by the athletes. The scores showed that the above behaviors were performed only sometimes by participants.

Wolohan and Gray (1998) measured the degree to which collegiate ice hockey coaches performed various risk management behaviors related to the operation of their collegiate ice hockey programs. According to the results of this study, the coaches generally performed most of the risk management behaviors addressed by the survey items. Out of the 34 items, the top 15 had a score above 4.0 indicating that these behaviors were often performed. Three items were scored below 3.0, meaning that they were performed only sometimes. These items were: “inspecting the ice prior to games and/or practices” and “players warned in writing of risks” and “equipment warnings read”. The latter received only 1.908 scores; it shows that the coaches seldom performed this behavior.

The findings of both Gray and McKinstrey (1994) and Wolohan and Gray (1998) are similar to the results of a previous study by Gray and Curtis (1991) about soccer coaches’ risk management behaviors at three levels of varsity competition. While many prudent coaching behaviors related to risk management appear to be practiced quite consistently, items pertaining to documentation were scored the lowest here as well.

Singh and Surujlal (2010) assessed the risk management practices implemented by coaches and administrators at high schools. They used the questionnaire that was developed by Gray (1995) and adapted by the authors to suite the conditions prevalent in the South African education system. The questionnaire sought information on six broad areas: general legal liability (insurance; sport association rules and regulations; standard of care, transport, supervision and instruction), facilities, equipment, legal concepts/aspects, medical aspects (pre-season; in season; and post-season) and records and information on athletes (health records; documents from parents). They discovered that although the majority of school coaches and administrators reported that they comply with most legal requirements, there is serious concern that a considerable proportion of them do not to comply with the minimum requirements. 21.6% of the coaches admitted that adequate supervision was not provided in some specialized areas such as locker rooms, weight rooms or gymnasiums. According to this research the athletes' knowledge was the lowest about risk management behavior. Several dimensions and individual safety factors were not adequately addressed by relevant personnel, and certain basic minimum requirements were not met at a fair number of schools. These findings support previous reports by researchers that coaches and administrators are not adequately aware of, or do not fully appreciate the implications of their legal liability related to sports activities.

Bodey and Moiseichik (1999) evaluated risk management practice of the 169 head coaches in their study. A 30-item questionnaire was used to collect data related to the strength of feeling about specific risk management practices in athletic departments. The various risk management behaviors were divided into five conceptual areas including: supervision, facilities and equipment, emergency and medical care, travel and transportation, and due process for employees and student athletes when they feel that they had not received a fair treatment. The findings showed that emergency and medical care of the athletes were ranked the highest, while the athletes' supervision was ranked the lowest. Analysis of team sports versus individual sports revealed that a significant difference existed between them in the conceptual area of facilities and equipment. Coaches of team sports scored significantly higher this item than coaches of individual sports. In addition, significant differences existed between three of the 12 emergencies and medical and

supervision survey items, based on gender. Coach who coach women scored significantly higher these items than those who coach men.

### **3.1.5 Factors Affecting the Coaches' Knowledge and Awareness**

The results of the several analyses revealed similarities between the coaches in terms of their personal characteristics and their current coaching knowledge. In the following the findings of some studies related to this topic are reported.

The results of the research performed by Gray and McKinstrey (1994) is partly reported before. As mentioned, they examined the impact of different factors on risk management behaviors of NCAA division III head football coaches. Other findings related to their study, on the basis of current coaching status factor (i.e., full-time coaches v. part-time coaches), indicated that significant differences existed between the coaches' behavior in four individual items. Full-time coaches' scores showed higher mean in supervision of athletes in weight room, whereas part-time coaches scored higher in teaching football rules and regulations, dealing with questions about risks in football and giving instructions about the proper use of equipment. Concerning educational backgrounds (i.e., bachelor's degree, master's degree), they found a significant differences between risk management behavior of coaches in two individual survey items (warning athletes of risk in writing and signing written warnings by the athletes). In each of these instances, coaches with master's degrees scored higher the items in question than the coaches with bachelor's degrees. Furthermore, coaches with sport-related undergraduate majors scored higher the item about completing athletes' injury report forms. Whereas coaches with non-sport related graduate majors scored higher the item related to inspecting facilities before use.

Castro (2010) also found that coaches with a higher education had higher scores in the first aid assessment test. He also reported that the coaches' general knowledge about medical issues increases from no degree to bachelor's degree. In another study Anderson and Gill (1983) showed that many expert coaches acquired fundamental coaching knowledge while studying for an undergraduate degree in physical education. Also, according to Carter and Bloom (2009), Cregan et al. (2007) and Schinke et al. (1995)

coaches who studied kinesiology and physical education at university attributed part of their knowledge acquisition to their university classes and experiences.

In addition to studying physical education at university, one important factor affecting coaches' acquisition of knowledge included starting to coach at either a high school level or as an assistant coach at a university level (Carter and Bloom, 2009; Cregan et al., 2007; Schinke et al., 1995). These experiences helped them acquire important tactical knowledge (Carter and Bloom, 2009). Sherman and Hassan (1986) reported that high experienced coaches gave more technical instructions than coaches with short experience. However, Castro's results (2010) contradict to the previous findings. He did not find significant correlation between first aid knowledge and years of coaching experience. Coaches with more years of coaching experience did not score higher in the FAA test. Accordingly, he found that experience has an impact on the coaches' behavior. The coaches with longer coaching experience were more likely to prevent an injured player from returning to a close game, while, coaches with shorter experience were more likely to return an injured bench player to a close contest.

Regarding the past athletic participation, Sherman and Hassan (1986) mentioned that there is a correlation between past athletic participation and coaching behavior. They suggested that this variable may indeed play an important impact on the coaches' behavior.

Millard (1996) analyzed the differences between male and female soccer coaches' behaviors. He found that the male coaches controlled the actual situation more frequently and gave significantly more often general technical instruction, and encouraged the athletes significantly less frequently than the female coaches. Similar results are reported by Dubois (1981) and Millard (1990) regarding gender differences between male and female coaches' behavior. According to Newsom and Dent (2011) significant differences exist between women and men coaches' behaviors regarding relationships; women scored higher than men. In 2007, Newell found significant differences between male and female coaches in connection with leading trainings and giving instructions; women coaches performed more active behavior in these areas than men coaches.

There are different results concerning the coaches' knowledge about first aid; the existing or lacking first aid and CPR certification affect this issue. Barron (2004) reported

that only 15 of the 290 coaches who were involved in his investigation passed the FAA. Out of the 15 coaches who passed the test only 5 had first aid and CPR certification. Based on their study, Ransone and Dunn-Bennett (1999) reported that out of the 104 high school coaches who participated in their investigation only 38 passed the FAA, although 96 had first aid and CPR certification. Rowe and Robertson (1986) developed and administered a first aid test with Alabama high school coaches. In their study, out of the 127 coaches who were tested only 34 (27%) earned a passing score. The above results suggest that a coach's score on a first aid examination does not depend only on the fact whether he/she has a current first aid or CPR certification. Similar result was registered in other investigations. For instance, in Castro's examination (2010) 55 coaches had current first aid and CPR certification, however only six of them passed the FAA, which means that having current certification did not improve one's score on a first aid examination. Results of Gray and McKinstrey (1994) also revealed no differences between the coaches' risk management behavior and the existence or the lack of their first aid and CPR certification. Similarly, based on his research Barron stated (2004) that the existence of first aid certification does not increase significantly the coaches' knowledge about how to practice first aid.

On the other hand, some researchers believed that educating coaches in first aid and CPR could enhance their knowledge, confidence and ability, as related to injury management (Castro, 2010). Cunningham (2002) and Redfearn (1980) suggested that coaches who do not have the proper qualification have not sufficient knowledge and confidence to understand and perform FA for injured athletes. In 2009, Albrecht found that youth sport coaches holding one or two of the recommended certifications possessed more knowledge and confidence to use that knowledge when faced with FA injury or illness situation. Hage and Moore (1981) studied the ability of high school coaches to provide medical care for athletic injuries. They discovered that 80 percent of the coaches provided first aid care and 60 percent of them decided that the injured athlete should return to competition after being cared. Kimiecik (1988), based on his research, states that well trained coaches can reduce the number of injuries. He also states that coaches who are well educated regarding the safety aspects of sports, and thereby are aware of the potential occurrence of injuries, are more likely to prevent injuries. The results of the study of Rowe

and Miller (1991) indicated that courses devoted to athletic injuries, first aid and CPR can improve one's knowledge in recognizing subtle yet serious injury. Thus assessing the coaches' knowledge about first aid and CPR may provide additional information on their ability to provide immediate health care for the safety of the athletes.

In general, review of the relevant literature consistently demonstrates that expert coaches rely on their education, organizational skills, experience, work ethic, and knowledge to promote their coaching careers and successfully perform their job at the highest levels (Bloom and Salmela, 2000; Cregan et al., 2007; Cushion et al., 2003; Erickson et al., 2007; Schinke et al., 1995; Vallée and Bloom, 2005). In other words, education, skill, and experience have a positive impact on the coaches' knowledge and behavior.

### **3.1.6 Social Status of Coaches in Iran**

In order to provide better insight in the Iranian university coaches' situation, the social status of the coaches in Iran as well as their situation in the global scene are explained in next two subchapters.

Before the 1979 Revolution the middle class in Iran was divided in two ways: distinction was made between secularly oriented and religiously oriented groups on the one hand, and between Western-educated and Iranian-educated groups on the other hand. After the Revolution the composition of the middle class did not change considerably (Chapin Metz, 1989). As far as the coaches are concerned, they, together with teachers, belonged to the middle class, and they also belong to it today. However, there might be fewer secularly oriented and much fewer Western-educated people among them than among middle class groups with other profession. It is paradoxical, but while in certain elite sports, mainly in top level football, foreign coaches with Western education are welcomed, the Western-educated Iranian coaches disappeared by and large from Iranian sport since they were regarded with suspicion. Otherwise, coaching is a low paid job in Iran, most coaches are employed in part-time jobs and of course, their overall social status is also determined by their full time job but the latter is not a highly appreciated status in most cases. Most

university coaches do not have a well paid full time job either, they look for a part time job to complete their salary they receive for their main job or they simply intend to solve their existing economic problems (IRNA.ir, 2013). The coaches' average salary at the Iranian universities seems to be lower than in other countries and much lower than the average salary of the teachers and instructors working similarly in part-time jobs but in other areas than sport (For instance, at the Hungarian universities coaches working in part-time job earn two times more and the salary of coaches working at the Malaysian universities is three times higher). In accordance with their lower salary, their social acceptance at their university is far from the other university staff members'; actually they are regarded as 'sport people' and not as 'university people'.

Nonetheless, since these coaches spend a considerable part of their everyday life in a university environment among university students, it could be expected that this environment has an impact on their mentality and in connection with it on their lifestyle, and they lead a healthier way of life. The findings of previous research did not support this assumption, just the contrary. According to recent researches carried out by Ramezanejad and Rahmaninia (2010) and Nasri and Vaez Musavi (2007) many Iranian coaches' quality of life as well as their physical, mental and psychological health is not in good condition.

The nature and the level of most coaches' qualification is not in connection with their career in Iran, many coaches have college or university degree in other fields than physical education and sport sciences (IRNA.ir, 2013).

### **3.1.7 Situation of the Iranian Coaches in the Global Scene**

Iranian coaches do not have a favourable situation in the world of sport. There are only very few Iranian coaches in Iran's sport history who have ever been ranked as high level coaches in the world. That is why most of Iran's national teams and even Iranian clubs in various sports employ foreign coaches for leading their teams. For instance, some of the Iranian national teams which are coached by foreign coaches include: football, volleyball, basketball, handball, badminton, track and field, biking, squash, gymnastic, water polo, etc.

Also, some of the clubs in Iran employed coaches from other countries (e.g. football, basketball, volleyball, basketball, handball, track and field, etc.).

The lack of trust in the Iranian coaches and the use of foreign coaches have increased in recent years in Iran because most Iranian teams achieved more success in international competitions and at the Olympics by coaches from other countries than by Iranian coaches (For instance, Iran's national volleyball team for the first time in Iran's sport history achieved some success with an Argentinean coach "Velasco". Iran's national weightlifting team won many medals at various Asian and world championships as well as at the 2000 Sydney and 2004 Athens Olympics with a Bulgarian coach "Ivanov". Also, Iran's national football team is qualified for participating in the football world cup in 2014 in Brazil with a Portuguese coach "Queiroz").

Unsuitability for using recent research findings and information about coaching in the world is another reason for the Iranian elite coaches' professional weakness. The latter is mainly due to their poor level of English (Mehr News, 2013a). Their knowledge is rooted in domestic coaching courses and in some information in Persian. Consequently, they are not able to communicate with the experts and coaches from other countries. The above reasons have created a gap between the Iranian coaches and successful coaches in other countries. Moreover, the old and traditional ways of management and coaching in Iran's sport also contribute to the low prestige of the Iranian coaches on the international level.

Most Iranian elite coaches do not have academic education. Indeed, most of them who coach the Iranian national teams have low degree certification, and they can only rely on their experience for improving their athletes.

In Iran's sport history very few Iranian coaches have been employed at national teams in other countries. For instance, an Iranian coach was employed at the national karate team of Macau. Also, in taekwondo and wrestling two Iranian coaches were employed in Taiwan and in Azerbaijan, respectively. Indeed, those countries do not compete on a high level in the international arena and the co-operation between Iranian coaches and those countries were just for short periods (Mehr News, 2013b; Mehr News, 2013c; Hamshahri Online, 2013).

The situation regarding the Iranian female coaches is even worse. Female coaches have to face many different restrictions either in their job or in improving their coaching knowledge in Iran. Based on the Iranian regulation, males are not permitted to coach female sport teams; therefore the female teams can only use female coaches. Female coaches are not permitted to participate in most coaching education courses with male teachers. Therefore their knowledge and skills regarding coaching science are much lower than that of male coaches in Iran because the opportunities for acquiring coaching knowledge in this country for males are considerably better than for females. Hence, in most cases the coaching certification levels of female coaches are lower than that of male coaches. In recent years a few Iranian national women's teams employed female coaches from other countries; however, even they could not reach much success because they faced various restrictions related to their job in Iran.

### ***3.2 Theoretical Framework***

For the theoretical framework of this study a classification is used which is based on various recommendations from legal authors and different relevant court precedent (Schwarz, 1996; Hensch, 2006; Figone, 1989). This classification includes seven major duties of coaches toward their athletes: *supervision, instruction and training, facilities and equipment, warning of risk, medical care, knowledge of player, and matching players*, which are similarly mentioned (separately or together with other duties) in most related literatures. In the following, the definitions of the above mentioned duties are presented.

*Supervision:* Being present and supervising at the practice areas and in locker rooms, before, during, and after training sections, as well as supervising transportation and nutrition (Doleschal, 2006; Labuschagne and Skea, 1999).

*Instruction and Training:* Teaching the skills, techniques, and rules necessary to training and competition as well as the methods to reduce the risk of injury (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996; Williams, 2003).

*Facilities and Equipment:* Providing the sanitary, clean, and fit equipment which meets all of the safety requirements of the sport, inspection of indoor and outdoor facilities,

assessment of weather conditions and their relation to safe playing conditions, and security provisions at athletic training and competition (Doleschal, 2006).

*Warning of Risk:* Warning the athletes of the risks involved in the trainings, or competitions. Warning of certain dangers originated from the nature of the activity, the use of equipments, the condition of the playing surface, and from the techniques involved in the activity (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

*Medical Care:* Ensuring the availability of proper first aid and medical care (Figone, 1989), making reasonable efforts to obtain reasonably prompt and capable medical assistance for injury, before arriving the medical personals (Figone, 1989; McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996; Schwarz, 1996; Williams, 2003; Wong, 2010), and refraining from aggravating the athletes' injury (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

*Knowledge of Players:* Having knowledge about the players' physical condition before, during, and after athletic participation and being aware of the athletes' background and assessing properly their readiness and skill (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999).

*Matching Players:* Placing athletes in direct competition, in both contact and noncontact sport (Figone, 1989), with other athletes with similar abilities, age, size, mental and physical maturity, experience, and skill level in training and competition (Schwarz, 1996).

## 4. OBJECTIVES

While the international literature is rich, there is little scientific evidence in terms of assessing the Iranian coaches' knowledge about their legal duties toward their athletes. In Iran, sport law and coaching science have not been yet in the focus of the researchers' interest. The above mentioned problem has not been discussed either. Since Iranian sport in general and sport at Iranian universities in particular have made good progress recently, it seemed to be relevant to examine this issue. Therefore, in the recent past I carried out a research about this question directing my interest to coaches employed at universities. On the basis of this empirical investigation, *the objective of my thesis is* to reveal the degree of the knowledge to which the Iranian university coaches are familiar with their legal duties and to discover the major factors which have an impact on their knowledge and on their knowledge acquisition.

### 4.1 Research Questions

The aim of the investigation was to give answers to the following research questions:

**Q1** What is the level of the coaches' knowledge regarding their legal duties toward their athletes at the Iranian universities?

**Q2** To what extent their demographic and social circumstances influence their knowledge about legal problems?

**Q3** To what extent their previous championship history, their coaching experiences, their coaching certification levels and the type of sport they are involved in affect the level of their knowledge?

**Q4** To what extent their profession and the quality of their activity are recognized at the universities and in a broader social context?

## ***4.2 Hypotheses***

It was assumed that:

**H1** The Iranian university coaches have sufficient knowledge regarding their legal duties toward their athletes.

**H2** Age, gender, the level of education and the field of study affect the Iranian university coaches' knowledge about the legal issues related to sport.

**H3** The university coaches' championship history, coaching experiences, coaching certification levels and the type of sport (individual or team sport) they are involved in have a significant impact on the level of their knowledge regarding their legal duties toward their athletes.

**H4** The coaches' profession and the quality of their activity are recognized at the universities and in a broader social context.

## **5. METHODS**

The method of this thesis includes quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative part was survey method and in-depth interviews were selected as qualitative methods.

### ***5.1 Survey***

#### **5.1.1 Sampling**

This research was designed for the population of coaches employed at the public universities in Iran (N=1863) in 2013 academic year.

The method of sampling was gradual. First the universities were selected by random sampling, based on the geographical location of universities in Iran.

The researcher received a list including the name and the size of the population of all public universities from The Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology of Iran. In the first round, the universities were divided in five groups based five main geographical locations (north, south, east, west, and center). As the proportions of universities are not equal in each part, fourteen universities were selected by using random sampling<sup>1</sup>. The rate of selected universities was approximately similar to the rate of the total universities in each geographical location in the country (Table 1).

---

<sup>1</sup> Selected universities from North part of country: Gilan, Tehran, Mazandaran, Semnan; South: Hormozgan, Shiraz; West: Kermanshah, Lorestan, Tabriz, Ilam; East: Kerman, Mashhad; Center: Isfahan, Shahr E Kord).

**Table 1** The number of all and the selected universities in Iran according to geographical location

<b>Geographical Location</b>	<b>All Universities</b>		<b>Selected Universities</b>	
	N	%	N	%
<b>North</b>	25	30.86	4	28.57
<b>South</b>	13	16.05	2	14.29
<b>West</b>	21	25.93	4	28.57
<b>East</b>	10	12.35	2	14.29
<b>Center</b>	12	14.81	2	14.29
<b>Total</b>	81	100	14	100

Secondly, the total population of the coaches employed at the selected universities in various sports were invited to participate in this study (n= 322). There are approximately 13 various sport classes in all Iranian universities; football, futsal, volleyball, basketball, handball, table tennis, badminton, swimming, wrestling, judo, karate, taekwondo, fitness. Males and females participate separately in sport classes. There are no classes for females in some sports (football, wrestling, and judo) based on the regulations of the Iranian Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology. Consequently, there are approximately 23 sport classes in every Iranian university for the students (13 sport classes for males and 10 sport classes for females). Since 81 universities belong to the Ministry, the number of all sport classes at all universities is 1863. Consequently, at the 14 selected universities there are 322 sport classes. It was estimated that each class was taught by one coach.

In order to make a comparative analysis the coaches were categorized according to the *gender, age, level of education, study field, coaching experience, level of certification, championship history*, and the *type of sport (individual or team)* with which they worked. Finally, 180 coaches participated in this study.<sup>2</sup> 55% (n= 99) of them was male whereas 45% was female (n= 81).

<sup>2</sup>The answering rate to the questionnaire was 55.9%.

### 5.1.2 Characteristics of the sample

The coaches' ages ranged from 26-58 years. The half of them (30.6%) were younger than 30 years (n= 55). 20% of them was between 30-40 years (n= 36). 25% of them were 40-50 year old (n=45), whereas 24.4% were older than 50 years (n= 44).

Regarding their education, 30% of the samples had diploma (n=54), the majority of which were on a bachelor level (42.8%, n=77). 16.1% of them were on a master level (n= 29) and just a few numbers in the samples had PhD degree (11.1%, n=20).

About the half of the coaches in the sample graduated in PE, and the other half of them got their degree in other study fields.

The certification in coaching is their supplementary qualification. The level of their *coaching certification* is the following: *level III* (n= 73, 40.5%) *level II* (n= 50, 27.8%), and *level I* (n= 57, 31.7%). Besides, a valid first aid certification was held by 21.7% of the participants. In general, the *level III* is given to the coaches dealing with beginner athletes, the *level II* to coaches educating athletes at an intermediate level and the *level I* is granted to the coaches responsible for advanced athletes (elite performance level). There are two other levels, national and international, which were included in *level I* because in Iran there are a lot of similarities in their curriculum. All coaches obtained their certifications from the related national sport federations in Iran.

The coaches came from thirteen sports.<sup>3</sup> They were grouped on the basis of the type of sport (individual or team sport) that they coached. In this regard, table tennis, badminton, swimming, wrestling, judo, karate, taekwondo, fitness were regarded as individual sports whereas football, futsal, volleyball, basketball, handball were chosen as team sports. 45.6% of samples (n= 82) were coaching individual sports while 54.4% of them (n= 98) worked in team sports.

---

<sup>3</sup>Football, futsal, volleyball, basketball, handball, swimming, table tennis, badminton, athletics, wrestling, judo, taekwondo, and karate.

The *coaches' previous experience* in working with athletes ranged from 2 to 37 years ( $9.42 \pm 6.18$ ). To classify the *coaching experience* the number of the years was considered as the criterion. Although this criterion is somewhat limitative to characterize coaching experiences, as it is a multidimensional variable, the extensive sample of this study does not allow including a broad range of criteria<sup>4</sup>. Thus, three levels were distinguished: less experienced (less than 5 years of experience; n= 89, 49.4%), averagely experienced (5 to 10 years of experience; n= 40, 22.2%), and highly experienced (10 and above years of experience; n= 51, 28.4%). This criterion was based on the classification of Burden (1990) which takes into consideration that a coach's stabilization period is achieved after 5 years of experience, overcoming a survival stage (first year), and an adjustment stage (second to fourth year), and ten years is a prerequisite to reach some quality as a coach (Abraham et al. 2006).

Coaches were also categorized based upon their champion history. The majority of them (54.4%) did not have any history at championships in the national or international levels (n= 98), whereas 45.6% of them reported to have some successes in various championships (n= 82).

### 5.1.3 Data Collection

For collecting the data a revised and developed Gray and McKinstrey's (1994) scale was employed which measured the risk management behavior of head football coaches in 36 items within 6 following conceptual areas; *supervision, instruction, facilities, equipment, warnings, and medical concerns*. This scale has been used in numerous studies and its reliability was approved by several experts (Anderson and Gray, 1994; Gray and Crowell, 1993; Gray and Curtis, 1991; Gray and Park, 1991; Wolohan and Gray, 1998).

In the revised version of the questionnaire two dimensions (*facilities, and equipment*) were integrated, and two other dimensions (*knowledge of players, and matching players*) were added based upon the *seven major legal duties of coaches toward athlete*.

---

<sup>4</sup>This classification has been used in various studies e.g. Mesquita, Isidro and Rosado (2010) and Mesquita, Borges, Rosado and De Souza (2011).

This changes were in consensus with concepts published in previous literature (Doleschal, 2006; Figone, 1989; Hensch, 2006; Labuschagne and Skea, 1999; McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996; Schwarz, 1996). The developed questionnaire measured the coaches' knowledge about their legal duties toward the athletes in 48 items within the seven dimensions: *supervision* (8), *instruction and training* (7), *facilities and equipment* (7), *warning of risk* (8), *medical care* (6), *knowledge of players* (6), and *matching players* (6).

The following procedures were used to develop the questionnaires. At first, three independent translators were asked to translate the questionnaire from English into Persian. A panel of bilingual individuals reviewed these translations critically and agreed on a unified Persian version of the questionnaire that was translated back into English. The researchers then compared this back-translated English version with the original English version of the questionnaire. The two English versions of the questionnaire achieved a high level of consistency providing support for the conceptual equivalence of the questionnaires (Alonso et al., 1990).

In order to ensure content validity at a high level, the questionnaire was extensively reviewed by professionals from the fields of sport law, sport pedagogy and experts in coaching education (n= 9). Eight items were removed and other items were modified upon their advice. It was then subjected to a pilot study with a sub-sample of 30 university coaches from a range of sports and with different coaching experiences, in order to test items clarity and accuracy, and the feasibility of the questionnaire. The internal reliability of the questionnaire was fixed between 0.78 and 0.83 (*supervision*= 0.81, *instruction and training*= 0.82, *facilities and equipment*= 0.79, *warning of risk*= 0.82, *medical care*= 0.80, *knowledge of players*= 0.78, and *matching players*= 0.83). The participants were asked to respond to the questionnaire on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 5 (*strongly agree*) to 1 (*strongly disagree*).

The data collection was conducted in February and March 2012. The researcher and her colleagues attended to each selected universities. After obtaining permission from the dean and the president of the sport department at each university, they received a list including the names of all sport coaches and the location of sport classes at the university. After that, they went to the sport classes and asked the coaches to participate in the study.

The coaches who agreed to participate were invited to a quiet room where they received an explanation on how to answer the questionnaire. From eighteen to thirty four minutes was the time that coaches needed to fill in the questionnaires.

Finally, 180 questionnaires (55.9%) completely returned. Although only the 55.9% of the total population answered the questionnaire, on the whole the research sample represents well the total population regarding age, gender, type of sport, and the region of the university.

#### **5.1.4 Statistical Analyses**

To obtain means, percentages, and standard deviations descriptive statistics were calculated. For an inferential analysis of the data about the coaches' knowledge, one sample t-test was used. For finding the differences between the coaches with different characteristics multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used ( $p < 0.05$ ). For analyzing the data IBM SPSS Statistics 19 was employed.

#### **5.2 *In-depth Interviews***

For having a deeper and clear insight, the results of the survey were completed by in-depth interviews ( $n = 40$ ) with coaches from both genders in all of the sports and at all of the selected universities. The coaches were asked about various topics: their attitudes and motivations to the coaching career, their attitude towards improving the level of coaching, their financial situation and its effects on coaching, the coaching education system in Iran, the coaches' knowledge acquisition in Iran, their awareness of the legal issues in sport, their duties towards the students/athletes and the factors influencing their social recognition regarding their profession.

Before starting the interview the purpose of research was described to all interviewees. Also, the informed consent was obtained from all participants. The interviews were conducted at the participants' universities in quiet rooms and they lasted from 30 to 42 minutes. The results of interviews then underwent a qualitative analysis with primary focus

on the factors affecting the coaches' knowledge and awareness regarding their legal duties toward their athletes at Iranian universities.

## 6. RESULTS

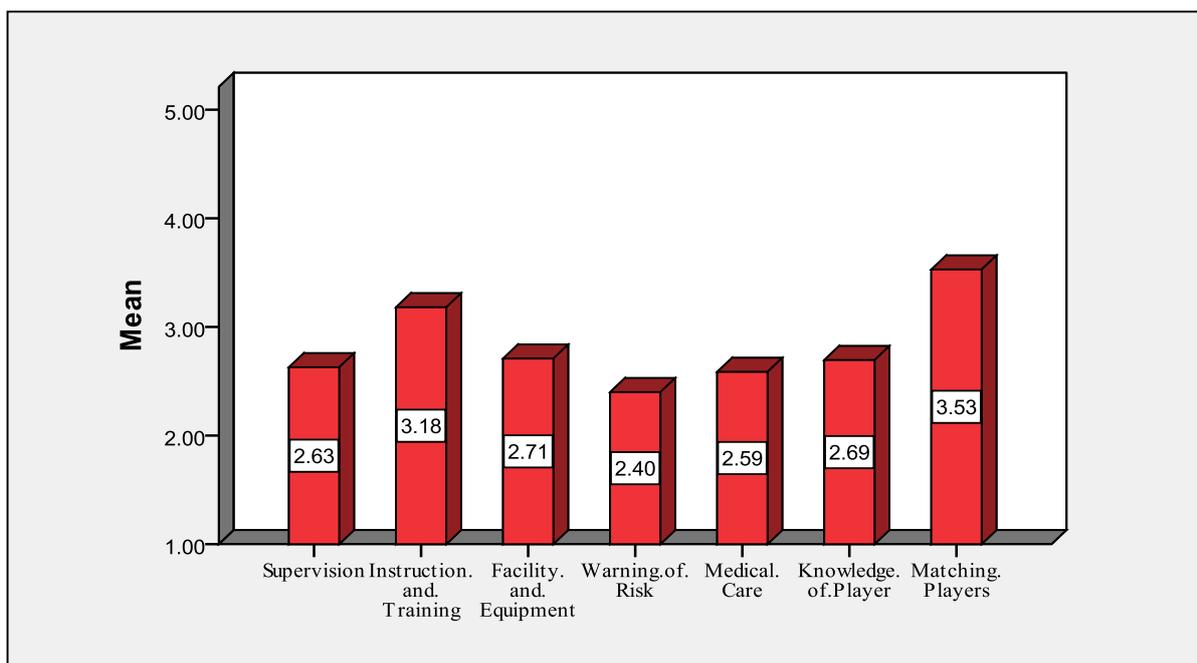
Participation in athletics is a privilege involving right. The athletes have the right to optimal protection against injury as this may be assured through good technical instruction, proper regulation and conditions of play, and adequate health supervision (Haines, 1984). On the other hand, if a serious injury occurs, the injured athlete has right to litigation and compensation from the person responsible for it, generally from coaches or from other sports officials. The risk that legal actions might be taken against coaches is high (Sawyer, 1998). They could lead to the serious issue of liability as seen by a court of law (Perdew, 2001; Henderson, 1987). Coaches cannot provide the athletes with absolute safety, and no one can ever guarantee that a coach will not be sued. Notwithstanding, the coaches can be careful at a reasonable level by providing a safe environment and protecting the athletes from foreseeable harm, they can take preventive steps to minimize situations that could cause possible liability for them (Paient and Payment, 2011; Dimitriadi and Dimitriadi, 2007).

In today's litigious society, coaches are in a position requiring expertise and knowledge. Schempp argued that "*the degree of success that professionals experience is largely dependent upon the knowledge they generate and accumulate for the tasks and obligations they undertake*" (1993, p.3). He stressed that understanding the role of knowledge is crucial for teaching and for the teachers' development in physical education. Due to the increasing importance of knowledge, researches on coaching have been changing focus from coaches' behaviors and performance to their knowledge on which their actions are based (Gilbert and Trudel 2004).

In my study the level of the Iranian university coaches' knowledge regarding their legal duties toward their athletes is assessed according to the theoretical framework discussed in the sub chapter 3.2 in which the major elements of the coaches' legal duties were categorized in seven groups.

The results of my research discovered that, generally speaking, university coaches in Iran do not have sufficient knowledge about their legal duties toward the athletes. More precisely, they demonstrated to have proper knowledge only in connection with two categories of duties (matching players, instruction and training). They admitted not to have

sufficient knowledge related to *supervision, facilities and equipment, warning of risk, medical care, and knowledge of player*. The order of the different elements of the coaches' knowledge is as follows: *matching players, instruction and training, facilities and equipment, knowledge of players, supervision, medical care and warning of risk*, respectively (Figure 1).



**Figure 1** The means of the different elements of the coaches' knowledge

In the following sub-chapters the results about the coaches' knowledge is presented according to the above-mentioned categories based on the theoretical framework of this research.

## ***6.1 Supervision***

One of the primary responsibilities of coaches is to supervise the athletes under their control. Supervision can be separated into two distinct forms: General supervision and specific supervision (Schwarz, 1996).

### **6.1.1 General Supervision**

General supervision can be viewed as non-instructional supervision. General supervision is usually undertaken in less technical activities where the supervision of a large number of individual is required (Schwarz, 1996). In performing general supervision duties the coach must be close enough to the area to see and hear what is happening (Figone, 1989). It is important that general supervision should take place at all times: before, during and after all practices, games and all similar activities (Schwarz, 1996). Furthermore, general supervision involves more than just what happens on the practice or game field. It includes activities in and around locker rooms, in transportation situations on buses and in bus-loading areas, and other relevant areas (Doleschal, 2006; Labuschagne and Skea, 1999). General supervision is not meant to be continuous or direct, a coach is merely expected to act reasonably (Schwarz, 1996). In the court case *Stehn v. Bernard MacFadden Foundations*, a coach was found liable when a wrestler was injured during practice by a fellow teammate. The Tennessee District Court found that the coach failed to provide proper supervision because he was supervising two matches at the same time. The court stated that the coach should have been supervising only one match at a time in order to minimize the risk of unnecessary injury to the wrestlers. The court also noted that the coach could have recognized that one of the wrestlers had difficulty with the hold and if the coach had fully supervised the match, he could have instructed the wrestler to release the hold before the other wrestler was injured (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

### 6.1.2 Specific Supervision

Specific supervision is viewed as instructional supervision. This form of supervision is a closer supervision as compared to general supervision (Schwarz, 1996). It means to supervise the athletes when they are performing a specific activity. The nature and tempo of the sport also has an effect on the type of supervision. Specific supervision is necessary when instructing an activity for the first time and when the activity is particularly dangerous. The more dangerous the activity, the closer and more effective the supervision should be (Doleschal, 2006; Labuschagne and Skea, 1999). Specific supervision is also depends on the size, age and maturity of the players, and whether they are beginners, intermediate, or advanced (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999). Specific supervision requires that a coach does not leave the game or practice unattended. Failure to performing this aspect of supervision faces coach legally liable. In the Wisconsin case of *Cirillo v City of Milwaukee*, for example, the plaintiff was a fourteen year-old student in a Milwaukee school. At the day of the event, the plaintiff, along with 48 other boys of about the same age, participated in a physical education class. The PE teacher told the boys to "shoot around" with basketballs and left the class unsupervised which became a roughhouse. The teacher had been absent for about 25 minutes, and by the time he went back to the class, the plaintiff was injured: he was pushed by another boy and fell to the floor. The coach was found liable because his conduct was evaluated not to be reasonable. If he had been present he could have prevented the game from becoming too rough (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999).

Like all duties incumbent upon coaches, the duty to supervise is not absolute. In fact, some courts have rejected claims that coaches must provide constant supervision over their players. They argued that, it is a matter of common knowledge that the athletes participating in games or any ordinary form of play may injure themselves and that no amount of supervision on the part of the parents or others will help avoid such injuries (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996). In the court case of *Herring v. Bossier Parish School Board*, a player was struck by a baseball after the player moved from behind a screen in back of the pitchers' mound during batting practice. The Louisiana Court of Appeals

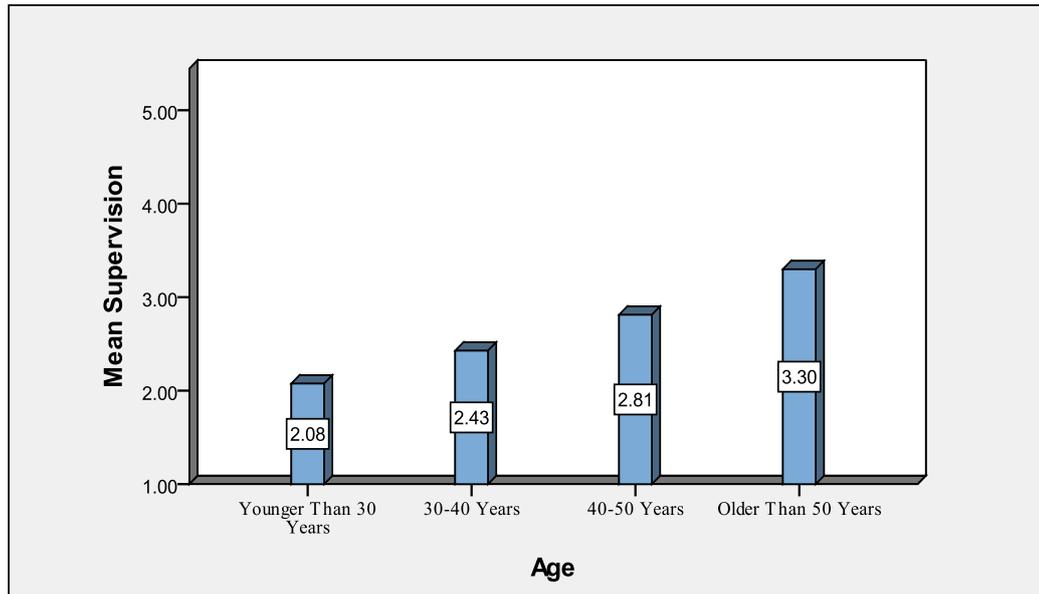
declared that a baseball coach had no duty to have “constant supervision” over his/her players, and that the coach had fulfilled his duty to supervise by implementing proper procedures and routines for conducting an orderly batting practice (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

This duty has generated the most commentary about the various duties owed by coaches (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996) and most negligence cases arise from lack of supervision (Adam, 1991; Hensch, 2006). Therefore, it is important for a coach to know the various aspects of supervision duty, the differences between the two forms of supervision and more importantly the coach must know when to use general or specific supervision (Schwarz, 1996).

### **6.1.3 Differences between the Coaches’ Knowledge about their Duty on Supervision**

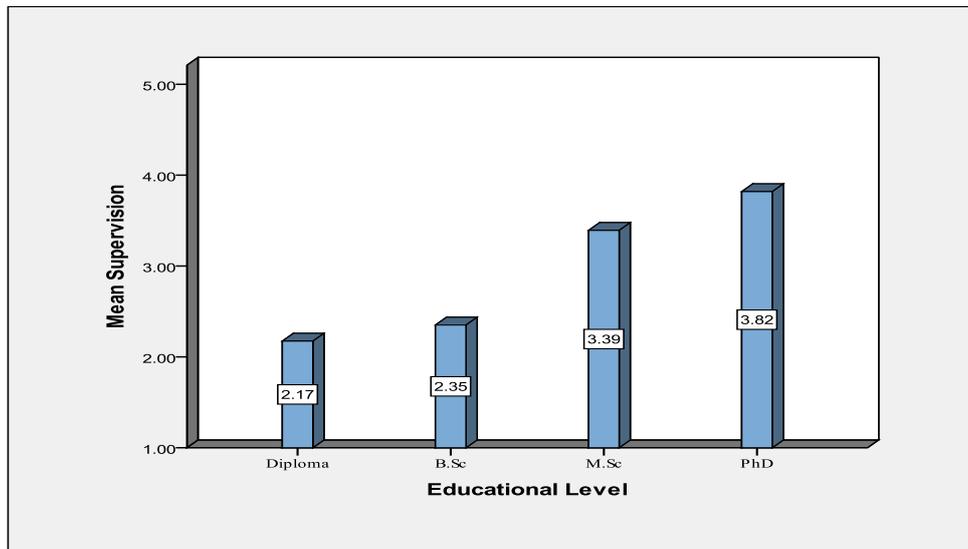
The results of this study showed not only that university coaches in Iran do not have enough knowledge regarding supervision, but it also revealed several differences between the coaches in this respect based on various demographic, social, and professional variables ( $p < 0.05$ ). The results of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) indicated that gender has a significant impact on the coaches’ knowledge related to supervision ( $F(1) = 32.87$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.16$ ). In this regards male coaches reported significantly higher knowledge ( $m = 3.01$ ) comparing to female coaches ( $m = 2.16$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

The results of MANOVA also discovered that the coaches’ age influence their knowledge ( $F(3) = 13.98$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.19$ ). Understandably, the older the coaches are the level of their knowledge is higher. The coaches over 50 years reported about significantly higher knowledge than the coaches in other age groups, whereas the coaches younger than 30 years admitted that their knowledge about supervision was poor ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 2).



**Figure 2** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *supervision* according to age

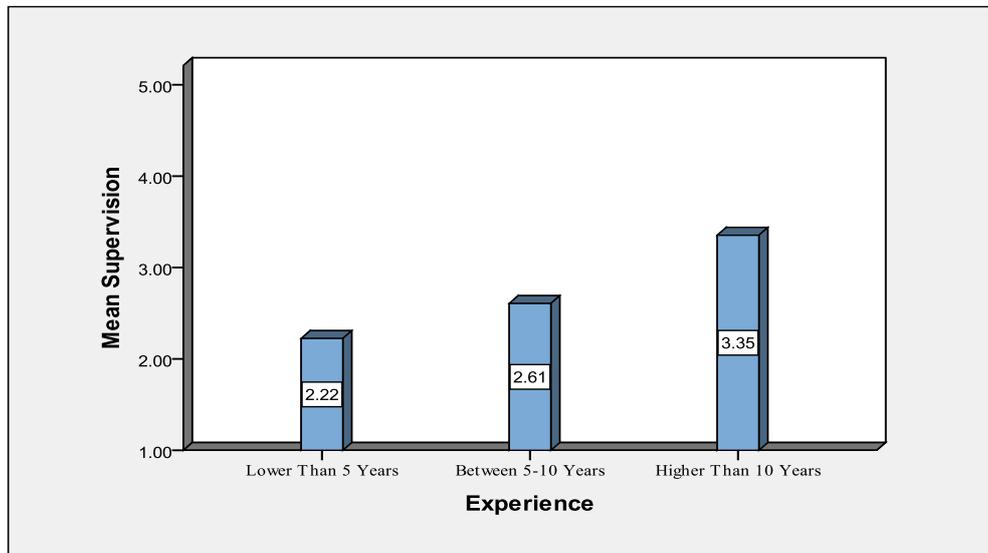
Educational level is another factor which affected the coaches' knowledge about supervision ( $F(3) = 25.55, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.30$ ). The results of MANOVA indicated that coaches with higher level of education had significantly higher knowledge regarding this duty ( $p < 0.05$ ). Coaches with PhD degree had the highest level of knowledge while coaches with diploma had poor knowledge in this regards compare to other educational groups ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 3).



**Figure 3** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *supervision* according to educational level

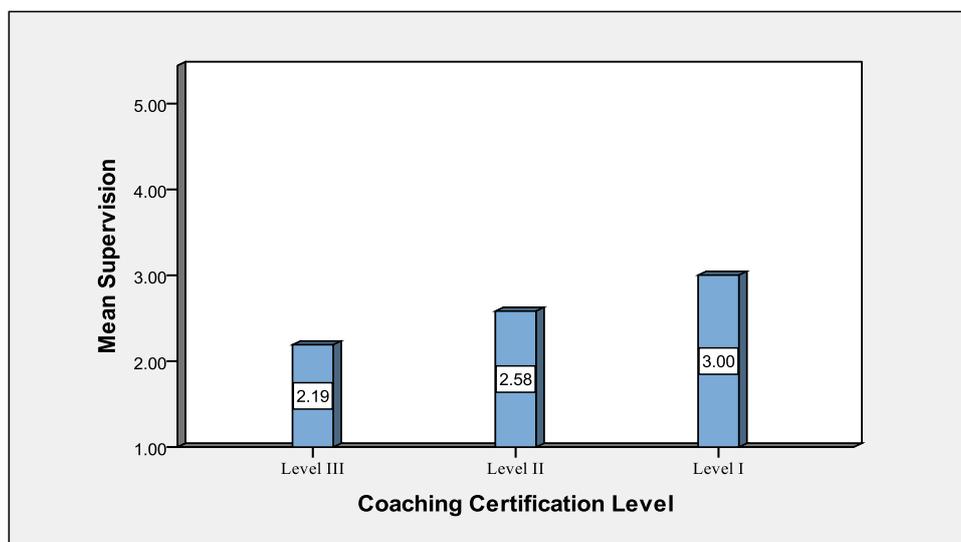
Similarly, the results of MANOVA indicated that the coaches' study field influenced this subject ( $F(1) = 20.91, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.10$ ). The coaches who graduated in PE reported significantly higher knowledge about supervision (mean = 2.97) compared to other coaches (mean = 2.28) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Several researchers stated that coaches acquire valuable knowledge through their coaching experiences (Gilbert and Trudel, 2005; Bloom and Salmela, 2000; Werthner and Trudel, 2006). Thus previous coaching experience has a strong impact on the coaches' knowledge about supervision. In this study the results of MANOVA also indicated that coaches were different regarding this factor ( $F(2) = 22.32, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.20$ ). Coaches with longer than 10 years experience stated to have higher level of knowledge ( $m = 3.35$ ) than other coaches with shorter experience. The results showed that the differences are significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). Coaches with lower experience (shorter than 5 years) reported to have the poorest knowledge about supervision ( $m = 2.22$ ) (Figure 4).



**Figure 4** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *supervision* according to previous coaching experience

The level of the coaching certification is another factor which might influence the coaches' knowledge and skills in coaching process. The results of MANOVA revealed that university coaches' knowledge about *supervision* were different in Iran regarding this variable ( $F(2) = 10.17, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.10$ ). It was found that the higher coaching certification level was associated with the higher level of the coaches' knowledge. This means that coaches who had higher level of coaching certification (level I) reported to have higher knowledge than coaches with lower level of certification (level II or III). The differences proved to be significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 5).



**Figure 5** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *supervision* according to the level of coaching certification

Another factor that had an impact on the knowledge of coaches regarding *supervision* duty is their history at championships, according to the findings of my investigation ( $F(1) = 13.39, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.70$ ). In this regards, coaches who reported to have success at the national or international levels in their specific sport gave an account of higher knowledge about *supervision* ( $m = 2.94$ ) than other coaches ( $m = 2.37$ ), and the differences were significant ( $p < 0.05$ ).

I grouped the coaches into different categories on the basis of the type of sports they were involved in. I made a distinction between the individual, and the team sports. The results of MANOVA indicated that coaches who worked in individual sport had higher knowledge about their duties related to *supervision* ( $F(1) = 16.91, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.09$ ). ( $m = 3.00$ ) compare with team sports coaches ( $m = 2.03$ ). The differences were significant ( $p < 0.05$ ).

## ***6.2 Instruction and Training***

The duty to instruct the athletes properly is another responsibility placed on coaches. In this regard the following duties are imposed upon coaches:

- Teaching the skills and techniques necessary to training and compete in a correct and safe way.
- Instructing the rules of the particular sport.
- Teaching procedures and methods to reduce the risk of injury.
- Instructing the athletes how to use the equipment properly (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).
- Correcting the athletes' mistake whenever an incorrect technique is observed (Schwarz, 1996).

When a coach is teaching any skills, these skills must be taught in a natural progression. This progression should be from simple skills to complex skills or from beginners to advanced athletes (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999; Schwarz, 1996). It should be noted that the age (Schwarz, 1996), ability, fitness level, and the stage of advancement of the participants (Williams, 2003) should be considered in connection with this duty. The coach would be legally responsible if they do not pay attention to the different aspects of this duty. There are several examples about coaches who were found guilty at the courts regarding the failure to this duty. For instance, in the New Jersey case of *Woodson v Irvington Board of Education*, a football player was injured while tackling an opposing player. He sued the coaching staff for failing to provide proper training in tackling. He had only the one practice session on tackling and was not instructed to keep his head up while tackling. This type of instruction is considered to be one of the fundamental aspects of teaching. The court found the head coach and the line coach liable because the injury in all probability would not have occurred if the player had been properly trained and instructed about the fundamental issues of tackling (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999).

In other case, a coach directed two boys to box three one-minute rounds. He did not give them instructions about proper defense and did not ask them whether they knew

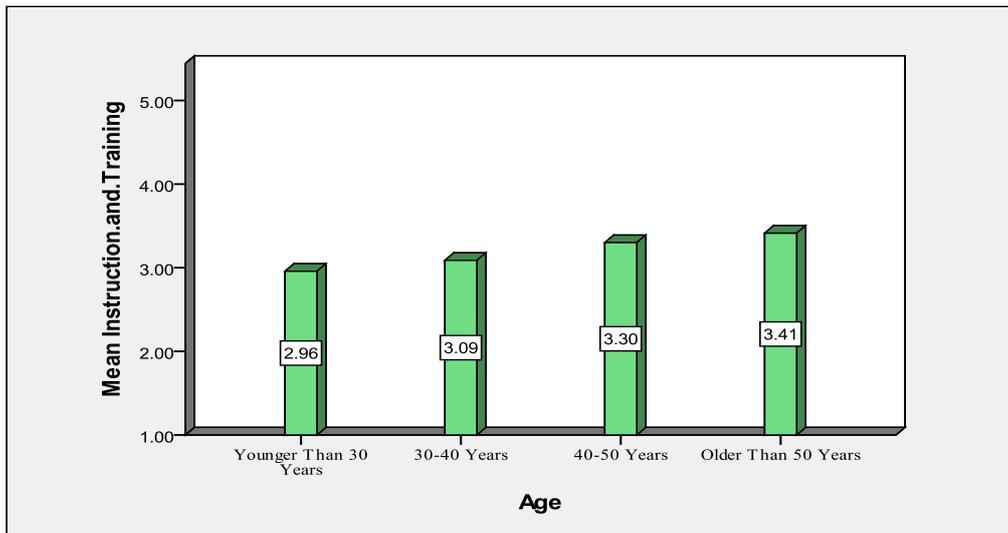
how to defend themselves. One of the boys dies from a blow to his temple. The coach was found liable, due to his failure to instruct the boys properly (Clear and Bagley, 1983).

Coaches must have the knowledge of how the specific sport is played, what the rules are, what the risks are involved in the game are and how to avoid those risks. They must also know how instruct and train their players with respect to the fundamental issues of the particular sport. The techniques in sport are changing continuously, the coaches must be familiar with the up to date proper techniques for the specific sport they work in (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999; Schwarz, 1996).

### **6.2.1 Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge according to their Duty on Instruction and Training**

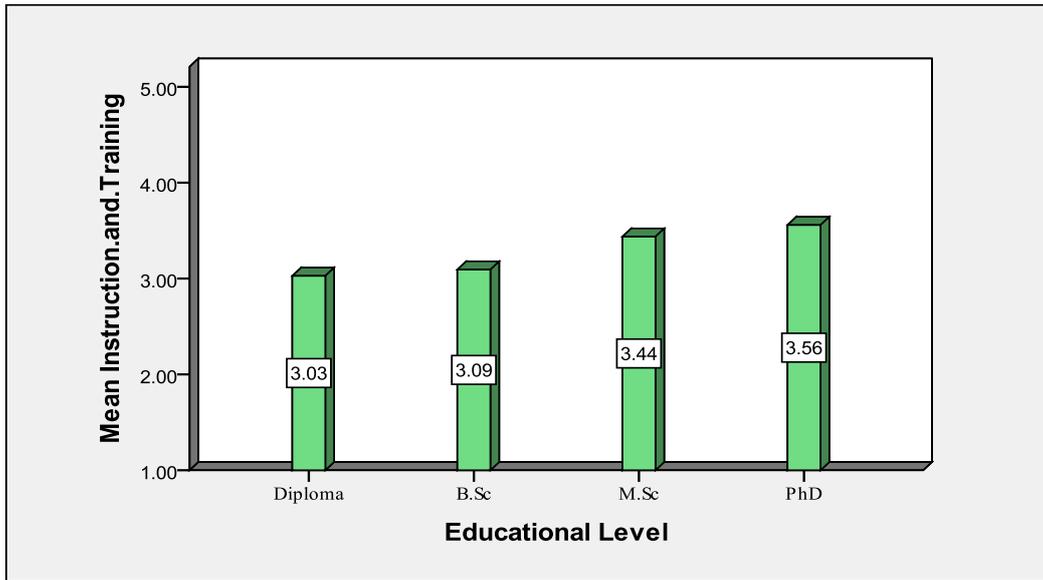
As the findings show, the knowledge of university coaches participating in my investigation was on an optimal level ( $m = 3.18$ ) about giving proper instructions and teaching procedures and methods. The research results also showed that the different demographic, social, and professional variables had an impact on their knowledge in this respect. The results of MANOVA indicated that male and female coaches had different knowledge about this duty ( $F(1) = 5.03$ ,  $p < 0.03$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.03$ ); the males reported to have higher knowledge ( $m = 3.30$ ) than the females ( $m = 2.83$ ).

Similarly, the coaches' age also had an impact on their knowledge in this regards. The results of MANOVA discovered that the older the coaches stated on higher knowledge about which they gave account ( $F(3) = 3.12$ ,  $p < 0.03$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.05$ ). The highest knowledge was reported by the oldest age group (50 year old or older) whereas the lowest level of knowledge was declared by the 30 years old or younger coaches. The differences proved to be significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 6).



**Figure 6** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *instruction and training* according to age

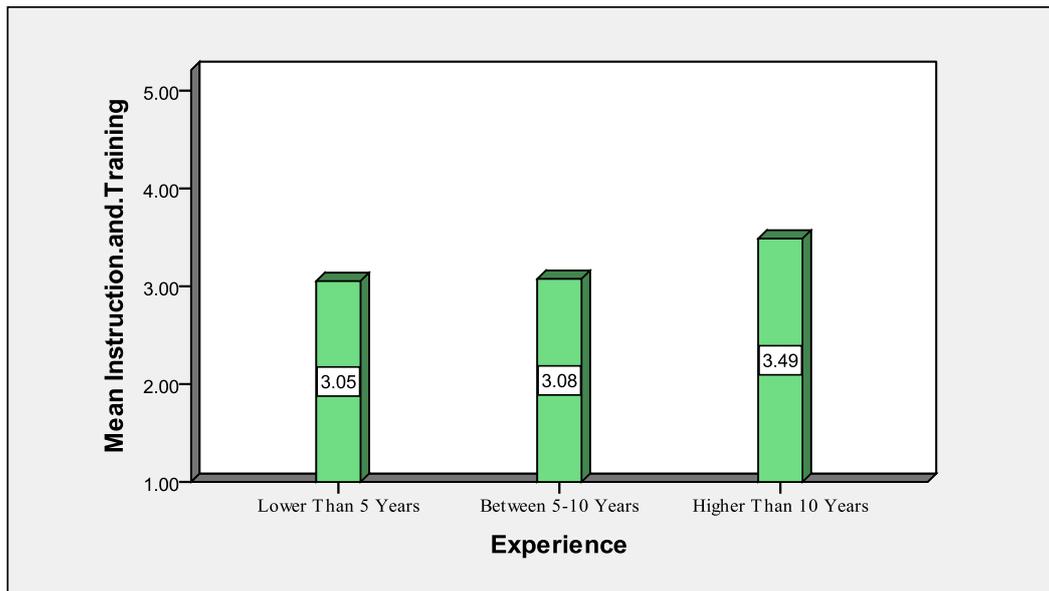
The results of MANOVA also revealed that level of education ( $F(3) = 3.42, p < 0.02, \eta^2 = 0.05$ ) and field of study ( $F(1) = 3.51, p < 0.05, \eta^2 = 0.02$ ) have an impact on the coaches' knowledge about this duty which, among others, includes programming and improving the skills and performance of athletes. Therefore, it is not surprising that generally coaches with higher educational level and especially coaches with degree in PE reported the higher level of knowledge regarding the *instruction and training*. The highest level of knowledge was reported by PhD degree holders, and the lowest level was reported by the coaches who had only certification in diploma. The differences between participants with different level of education were found significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 7).



**Figure 7** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *instruction and training* according to educational levels

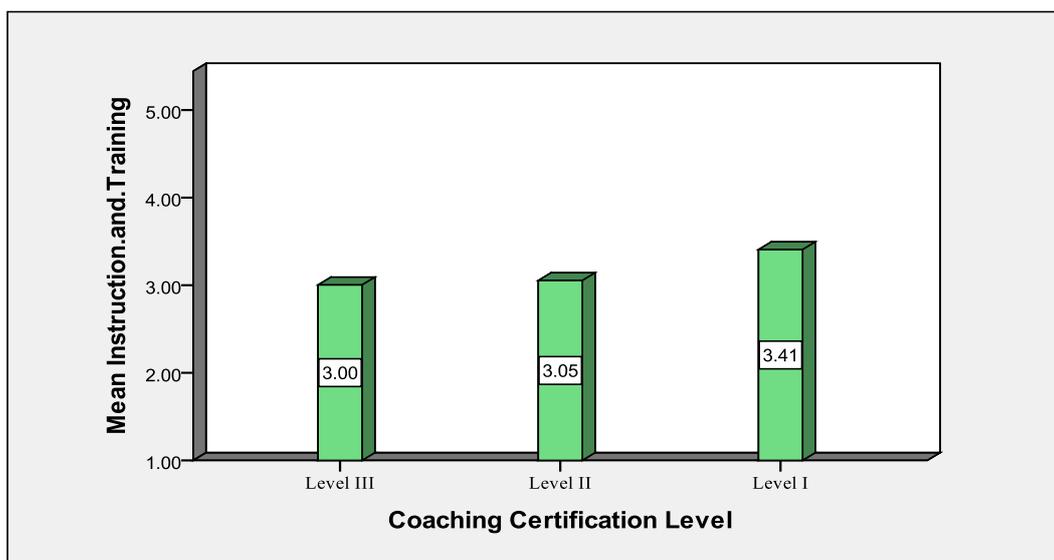
Similarly, the differences between the knowledge of coaches who graduated in PE ( $m = 3.29$ ) and the coaches who studied other majors were significant ( $m = 3.06$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Another factor which affected the university coaches knowledge in Iran was their previous coaching experience ( $F(2) = 3.35$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.006$ ). The coaches who had more than 10 years experience evaluated their knowledge to a higher degree than coaches with shorter experience ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 8).



**Figure 8** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *instruction and training* according to previous coaching experience

Beside the length of the previous coaching experience the level of the coaching certification also had an impact on the coaches' knowledge about instruction and training. The results of MANOVA showed that the higher the level of the coaches' certification the higher level of the knowledge about which they gave an account ( $F(2) = 3.16, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.05$ ). Coaches with certification *level I* evaluated their knowledge more favorably than coaches with lower level of certification (level III). The differences between the groups with different levels of coaching certification were found significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 9).



**Figure 9** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *instruction and training* according to the level of coaching certification

According to the research findings, the university coaches' knowledge about *instruction and training* was not different significantly based on their history at national and international championships. However, the results of my calculations by MANOVA indicated that they were different significantly based on the type of sport they were involved in ( $F(1) = 3.88, p < 0.05, \eta^2 = 0.02$ ). Coaches who worked in individual sports reported to have significantly higher knowledge ( $m = 3.31$ ) than coaches working in team sports ( $m = 3.07$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### ***6.3 Facilities and Equipment***

The coaches are responsible to provide the athletes with sanitary, clean and fit equipment that meet all safety requirements of sport (Doleschal, 2006). Therefore, the coaches should follow certain procedures to inspect before starting any sporting activity in order to prevent the use of defective equipment. The coaches also have a responsibility to take reasonable measures to ensure proper equipment to their athletes' for their use in competition, practices and games. The coaches are also obliged to check that the equipment and the sporting clothes fit well each athlete (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999; McCaskey

and Biedzynski, 1996). If a player does not have the proper equipment, it is the coach duty to prevent him/her from participating, or even cancelling or rescheduling a game if several players do not have proper equipment. In many cases the coaches are found legally liable due to the failure of this duty. In the case of *Baker v. Briarcliff School District*, for example, a sixteen year old varsity field hockey player suffered injuries when a field hockey stick beat her face during practice. The player sued the coach for failing to instruct the team about the importance of wearing mouth guards and for failing to check that the players were wearing them. The court found that the coach was clearly aware that the player in question was not wearing her mouth guard. Additionally, the coach admitted that no pre-practice check of safety equipment was made (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

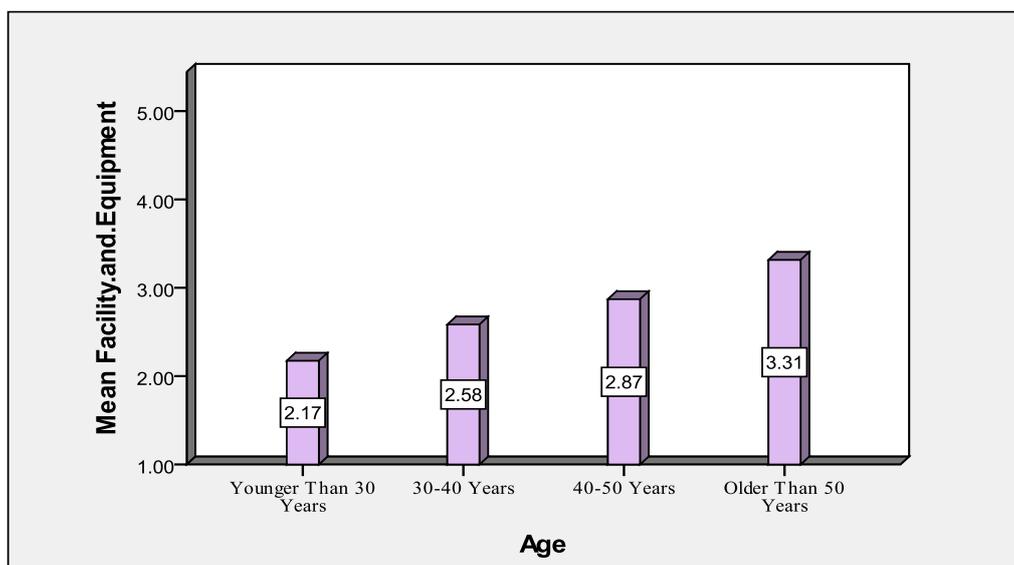
This duty also includes the inspection of indoor and outdoor facilities, the assessment of the weather conditions and security provisions at athletic training and competition (Doleschal, 2006). Indoor facilities should be inspected on a daily basis for avoiding practicing under unsafe conditions, such as warped boards on the playing floor, ceiling leaks, sharp wall protrusions, loosely anchored or mounted equipment, wood splinters, burnt out lights, etc. (Doleschal, 2006). Outdoor facilities must be checked on a regular basis for finding low spots, holes, large rocks, and the lack of required safety barriers, such as proper retaining fences to protect the benches in baseball and softball (Doleschal, 2006). An occasional situation that can arise when outdoor facilities are used is severe weather conditions that might threaten the safety of the athletes. The coaches must develop and implement contingency plans for lightning, earthquakes, tornados, and for securing shelter for athletes when buses do not stay on site and when severe weather conditions develop during or immediately following a contest. Contingency plans should be discussed with other members of the coaching staff and they should be practiced so that response be almost automatic (Doleschal, 2006). During the daily facilities checks, coaches and athletic administrators should note areas where the lights are burnt out or they are dim and should alert the maintenance staff and the administration about potential hazards (Doleschal, 2006). The case of *Woodring v. Board of Education* is an example for negligence in the inspection of the sport facilities. Evidence existed that a nut and bolt

which should have secured the railing around the platform in the school gymnasium were not in place, and that the school had no program of preventive maintenance or inspection of the facilities in the gymnasium. The testimonies supported the assumption that the school neglected this duty. As a result of the use of improper facilities, a person died resulted he grabbed unto the railing to step up to the platform. The court also found that it was foreseeable that injury would occur since the railings were not properly constructed or maintained. This case shows the extreme consequences of the bad construction, the lack of maintenance, and of the inspection of facilities. Although this case did not involve a coach, it is not be difficult to see that a coach could have helped to prevent such a tragically event. The coach could have noticed that the facilities did not reach the necessary level. When a program for preventive maintenance is not prepared the coach should take responsibility for alerting the maintenance staff (Schwarz, 1996).

### **6.3.1 Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge regarding their Duty on Facilities and Equipment**

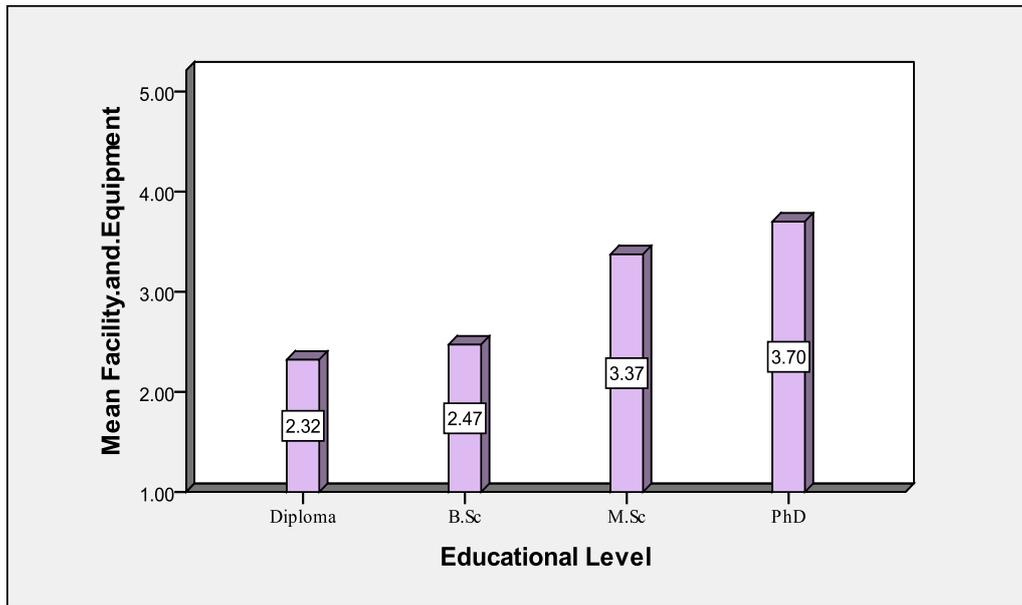
In my investigation the results of MANOVA indicated that the university coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *facilities and equipment* differ for each other according to gender ( $F(1) = 30.55, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.15$ ). Males reported significantly higher knowledge ( $m = 3.07$ ) than females ( $m = 2.27$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Similar to other duties, based on the results of MANOVA, the coaches' knowledge also were different in this respect in various age groups ( $F(3) = 12.94, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.18$ ). The older coaches (50 years old or older) stated on higher knowledge compare to other coaches. The coaches younger than 30 year old also gave account about very low knowledge regarding this duty ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 10).



**Figure 10** Differences between the coaches' knowledge regarding their duty related to *facilities and equipment* according to age

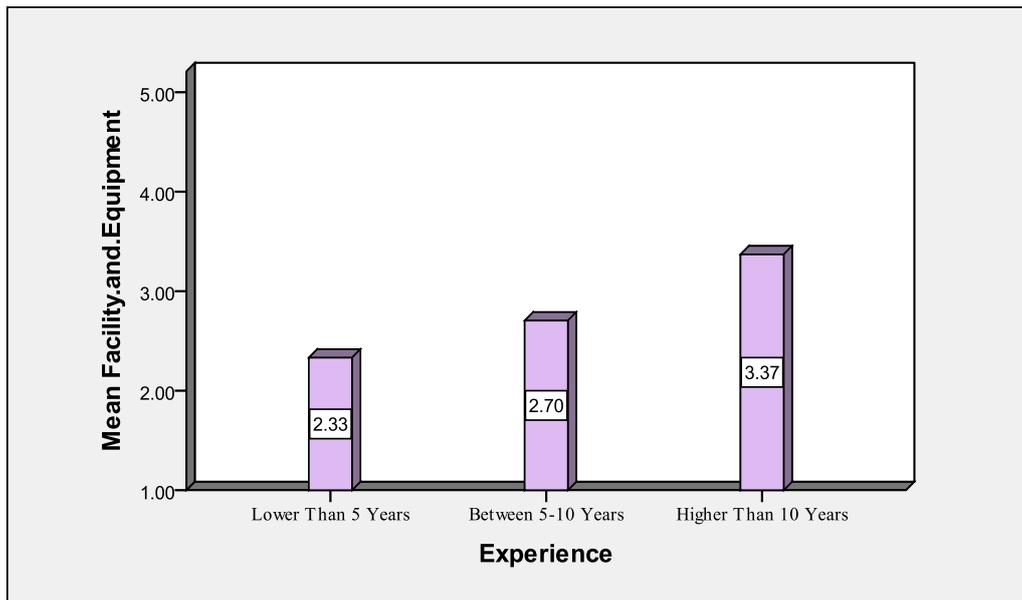
The level of education ( $F(3) = 18.62, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.24$ ) and the field of study ( $F(1) = 22.83, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.11$ ) were also important factors which influenced the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *instruction and training*. Regarding this duty the higher level of education is associated with the higher level of the coaches' knowledge. The coaches with PhD degree reported to have significantly higher knowledge than groups with lower level of education and who were in diploma degree stated on lower knowledge than other coaches ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 11).



**Figure 11** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *facilities and equipment* according to educational level

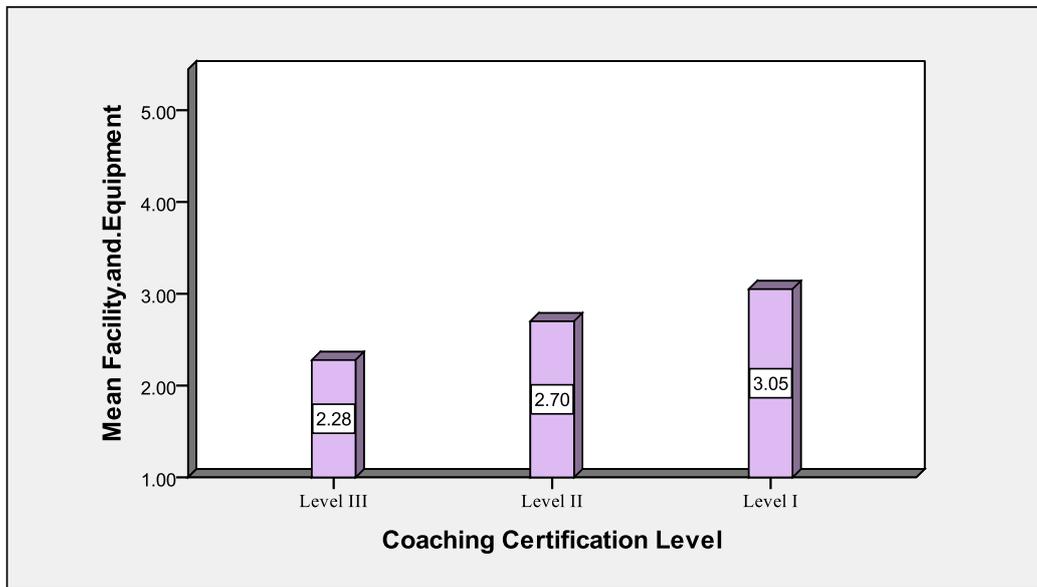
Also, coaches who studied PE showed significantly to have higher knowledge ( $m= 3.05$ ) than who studied in other study fields ( $m= 2.36$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

The results of MANOVA indicated that previous coaching experience also made a difference between coaches' knowledge about this duty ( $F (2) = 17.46$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.19$ ). Coaches with more than 10 years of experience had significantly higher knowledge than other coaches, and the coaches with short experience stated on lower knowledge compared to other participants ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 12).



**Figure 12** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *facilities and equipment* according to previous experience in coaching

Similar results were found regarding the coaches' certification level in coaching ( $F(2) = 17.46, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.19$ ). The higher level of certification is associated with higher knowledge. In other words, the coaches with coaching certification *level I* reported significantly higher knowledge than other coaches. The coaches with the lowest level of that certification (level III) stated on the lowest level of knowledge ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 13).



**Figure 13** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to *facilities and equipment* according to the level of certification coaching

The results of MANOVA indicated that the level of the coaches' knowledge were different based on their championship history ( $F(1) = 13.38, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.07$ ). The coaches who had success in national or international championships reported to have significantly higher knowledge ( $m = 3.33$ ) compared to other coaches ( $m = 2.36$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

The results of MANOVA also reflected differences between the coaches regarding this duty according to the type of sports. It was found that coaches who worked in individual sports stated to have significantly higher knowledge ( $m = 3.00$ ) compared to coaches who worked with team sports ( $m = 2.05$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

#### **6.4 Warning of Risk**

Athletes have a right to be informed regarding the possibility of injury, paralysis, and death that is inherent in all sports (Doleschal, 2006). Thus, coaches have a responsibility to warn the participants about the risks involved in a particular sport (Nygaard and Boone, 1985). Coaches have a duty to warn of dangers that are known to the coach, or that should have been discovered by the coaches during the exercise with

reasonable care (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996). The duty to warn covers the entire spectrum of the activity, the use of equipment, the condition of the playing surface and the required techniques. When and where there are dangers on the playing surfaces such as a sprinkler head exposed on a football field, a defect in the boards of an ice hockey rink, or sand and gravel on an asphalt tennis court, it is the coaches' duty to make these dangers known to the participants as well as preventing those participants under their control from competing until the dangerous conditions have been rectified (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

The players also should be informed and warned of the risks in using improper, dangerous, and unethical techniques. The coaches must be known that while these risks might seem logical and perfectly obvious to a coach, there are often not evident to young athletes (McGreevy, 1980).

The warning must capture the attention of those using the equipments; they must be informed of the potential dangers. Experience, knowledge and expertise of the specific equipment may have an influence on the extent of the warning. But even in situations where the user is highly educated and a qualified person, a warning is still needed (Clement, 1988).

A coach cannot assume that a player is aware of the possible risks that are inherent to a game. The coaches must be reasonably certain that the athletes know, understand and appreciate the extent of the risks involved (Nygaard and Boone, 1985). The extent of the warning must be sufficient so that an "average" person would be able to understand the probability, frequency, and magnitude of the occurrence of the risk. Warnings should also be accurate, clear and strong (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999).

This duty is one of the most critical duties since by not warning of risks in a given sport very dramatic injuries might occur (Schwarz, 1996). For example in *Ohnstad v. Omaha Public School District*, the plaintiff's son was severely injured when he fell on his head into a pole vault planting box. He died six days later from his injuries. The father filed suit alleging, among other things, that the coach failed to properly warn the plaintiff's son regarding the risks involved in pole vaulting. Both the trial court and the appeals court decided in favor of the plaintiff. In addition to general information, the coaches are

expected to warn the athletes regarding unsafe practices within their sport. Maneuvers that are unsafe cannot be tolerated. While each sport has its "dirty bag of tricks," athletes must be warned that these often are dangerous and hurtful maneuvers which would not be tolerated in the team and would be met with disciplinary action (Doleschal, 2006).

In another example, the jury in the landmark case of *Thompson v. Seattle Public School District* awarded a 15-year old athlete \$6.4 million after he suffered a permanent spinal injury by putting his head down to oncoming tacklers. The coach had failed to warn of such inherent dangers in football (Lester, 1985)

To prevent harm and injury to athletes and coaches' litigation, coaches should know the risk and harmful situation and warn athletes about them.

#### **6.4.1 Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Warning of Risk**

In considering to the results in this duty, the findings of MANOVA indicated that coaches have different knowledge according to the gender variable ( $F(1) = 21.28, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.06$ ). In this regards males indicated to have significantly higher knowledge about this duty ( $m = 2.60$ ) than females ( $m = 2.15$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ). The coaches in different age groups did not show a significant difference in this regards ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Similarly, different levels of education had not a significant impact on the knowledge of coaches ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Considering the coaches' educational fields, the results of MANOVA indicated a significant difference between participants in this duty ( $F(1) = 4.23, p < 0.04, \eta^2 = 0.02$ ). In this regards, the coaches who studied PE reported to have significantly higher knowledge ( $m = 2.53$ ) compared to coaches who studied in other study fields at universities ( $m = 2.26$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

The coaches with various experiences, different coaching certification levels, and with different championship history did not show any significant differences regarding this duty ( $p < 0.05$ ). However, the type of sport the coaches worked at proved to be an effective factor for making differences between them ( $F(1) = 3.98, p < 0.05, \eta^2 = 0.02$ ). In this

regards the coaches who worked in individual sports stated on significantly higher knowledge (m= 2.54) than the other group (m= 2.28).

## **6.5 Medical Care**

Providing first aid and emergency medical procedure is another legal duty for the coaches. In this regard the coaches should be sure that all necessary first aid equipments and auxiliary equipments are available and they have access to an appropriate medical care at all practices and games (Doleschal, 2006; Figone, 1989). The coaches also have to act as a part of the athletic medical team in the absence of a certified athletic trainer, within his/her scope of practice (Burnstein, 2011). When an athlete's injury appears to be serious, the coaches should make reasonable efforts to obtain prompt and capable medical assistance (Figone, 1989; McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996; Schwarz, 1996; Williams, 2003; Wong, 2010). The coaches are not required to act as physicians. The law only requires that they should act with reasonable care when rendering medical assistance to an injured athlete under the circumstances (Schubert et al., 1986; Wong, 2010). The following two examples are given for this subject. In *Welch v. Dunsmuir Joint Union High School District*, a high school football player was injured during a scrimmage between two high school teams and brought suit against the school district. The player was lying on the ground unable to get to his feet. One coach suspected that the player might have a serious neck injury moved him in order to see if it was hurt. The evidence was conflicting as to whether or not the team physician, who was present at the scrimmage, examined the player before he was moved to the sidelines. The evidence indicated, however, that the player was carried from the field without the aid of a stretcher, spine board, or any other solid structure beneath him. Medical testimony established that the player became a quadriplegic caused by a serious damage to the spinal cord. The jury ruled for the player and the appeals court held that from the evidence presented, the declared that both the physician and the coach were negligent in the removal of the player from the playing field (Doleschal, 2006).

In another case, on the way back to the team bus after a football game, a boy collapsed and began vomiting. He was placed on the bus and transported, along with the

rest of the team, back to the school where he was placed on the floor (about 20 minutes later). He did not regain consciousness and was moved to the shower room and covered with a blanket, and induced to breathe ammonia. After nearly two hours, he still had not recovered. His mother called, and she ordered the coaches to send the boy to the nearest hospital. He died the next day. A court found the coaches liable for not securing medical treatment and for applying improper first aid measures. The coaches should have known the difference between fainting and heat exhaustion, according to the court (Perdew, 2001).

At the same time, there is a duty to refrain from actions that might aggravate an injury and a reasonable person should know about this kind of risk. The negligence of coaches in performing this duty faces them with their liability. In the case of *Lamorie v. Warner Pacific College*, the plaintiff injured his nose and was required to wear a nose cast while playing football at his church. He told to his coach that the doctors advised him not to participate in any athletic exercises. He had bruises and his eyes were swollen. Despite his warnings and his visible injuries, the coach asked him to participate in a basketball scrimmage. He participated in the scrimmage and further aggravated his injuries. The Oregon Court of Appeals held the basketball coach liable for allowing an injured athlete to participate in a basketball scrimmage. The court concluded that the coach breached his duty of care by requiring the athlete to participate in the scrimmage, which created an unreasonable risk of further injury (McGirt, 1999).

A coach may have the problem of knowing when a player is ready to return to action following an injury. He must be very careful about permitting an athlete to return to play too soon after an injury. It is better to err on the conservative side than to aggravate an injury by returning the athlete to action too soon (Nygaard and Boone, 1985). It is always difficult to keep an injured player from competing when such a player is talented and desires to play despite the injury. However, the coaches will be liable for permitting the injured athletes to compete if they know about the injury or when they should know that the athlete is injured and that permitting him/her to play will increase the risk of sustaining injury (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

On the other hand, the coaches must not use any pressure or coercion to intimidate the athlete to return to play. If the athlete does not want to resume play, or if he has

reservations about returning to action, he/she should not be forced to do so. This applies even if the injury has healed. *Morris v. Union High School District* (1931) was one of the earliest sport injury cases. That case involved a high school football player who had sustained a back injury during practice. Two weeks later, the coach coerced the student into playing in a game. The player suffered further back injuries and related internal injuries. The court ruled that the coach should have known that the player was not ready to resume physical activity and that the coach was negligent because he coerced an injured player to perform (Cunningham, 2001).

Once an athlete is injured, his/her coach has a duty to make reasonably sure that the athlete had fully recovered before allowing him to return to play.

The duty to provide emergency care simply requires that the coaches should be trained in first aid and CPR (Doleschal, 2006).

### **6.5.1 Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Medical Care**

According to the findings of my research, the knowledge of the university coaches regarding this duty was insufficient and they did not perform their duties toward athletes regarding *medical care*. In this respect the results did not show any significant differences between the coaches regarding their gender, age, educational level, field of study, previous coaching experiences, the level of their certification in coaching, their championship history and the type of sport they worked at ( $p < 0.05$ ).

The above situation is not unique to Iran; the Iranian coaches are not worse in this respect than coaches with other nationality. The results of this investigation are similar to research findings found in several other countries. For instance, in the United States, Barron et al. (2009) reported that youth coaches in the Mid-Michigan area do not possess sufficient knowledge regarding their duties toward athletes about first aid and injury prevention (FAIP) (Barron et al. 2009). Similarly, Ransone and Dunn-Bennett (1999) in the study on the athletic coaches in Oklahoma indicated that the most coaches' information regarding first aid and medical care is lower than average level (Ransone and Dunn-Bennett, 1999).

In South Africa, Singh and Surujlal (2010) and Bezdicek (2009) in Wisconsin found that most high school coaches evaluated their knowledge as insufficient and admitted that they did not perform their legal duties toward the student-athletes (Bezdicek, 2009; Singh and Surujlal, 2010). Also, Carter and Muller (2008) revealed that rugby coaches in North Queensland, Australia do not have proper knowledge about their duties regarding medical care and injury management. They argued that the system of coaches' training needs to be modified in this regard (Carter and Muller, 2008).

### ***6.6 Knowledge of Players***

The coaches should be legally aware of the background of their athletes for determine a starting point for each players based on their readiness and skill (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999; McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996). An important part of the players' assessment is providing medical history (Doleschal, 2006). The coaches are not responsible for conducting complete examinations of their players prior to play, but they have a duty to make sure that the players are physically ready to perform safely. They must use the knowledge of parents, family, team physicians, athletic trainers, nurses and his good judgment to determine if a player has a potential injury or incapacitating condition which may preclude him/her toward involving in training or competition (Nygaard and Boone, 1985). The coaches must be aware of the background and potential of their athletes so that they do not risk the aggravation of existing injuries or weaknesses and are not required to perform beyond their capacities and are not mismatched. The coaches must be knowledgeable about the idiosyncrasies of each player as well as the athlete's physical capacity to perform and how much training an athlete may need before being able to play (Nygaard and Boone, 1985). They should adjust practices and training routines on the basis of this knowledge. The coaches have a duty to exercise considerable care in identifying injuries and incapacitating conditions during the course of practice and play. When they observe these conditions, they may temporarily stop a player's participation (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999; McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

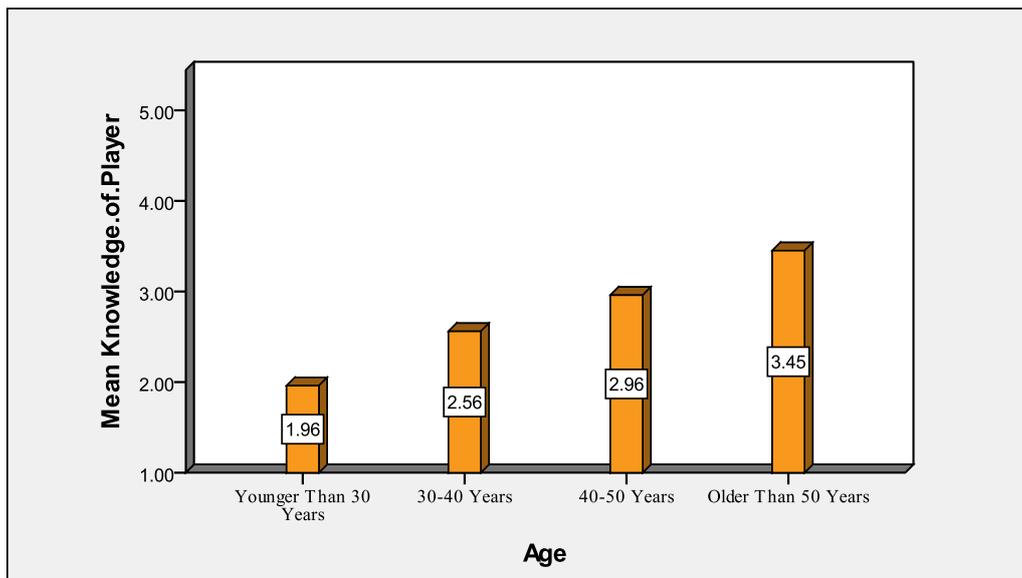
In the unfortunate event of an injury, it is important to have some procedures in place, immediately stop the practice or game, check vital signs, assess the symptoms and determine if professional help is necessary, document the injury and record the action taken. The coaches should keep accurate records of injuries and follow up efforts (Figone, 1989; Hensch, 2006).

A primary reason for the players' assessment is the fulfillment of the duty to provide emergency medical care. But also to require advance planning so that the coaches could immediately respond and not waste valuable time trying to determine an appropriate course of action (Doleschal, 2006). The following cases are examples that illustrate the importance of performing this duty. In *Bellman v San Francisco High School District*, a seventeen year old girl expressed strong reservations about performing a certain tumbling exercise which would require her body to be completely off the floor for a period of time. She attempted the exercise but landed incorrectly and suffered a head injury. The court found the school to have been negligent, stating that the school employees knew or should have known that because of her mental or physical condition, this girl was not ready for this activity (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999).

In an even more flagrant case, a coach was brought to trial and was found guilty to have regularly coerced players. According to the *Vargo v. Svitchan* case (1980), the coach had a reputation for making players participate when injured or when they seriously doubted their own ability to do some of the coaches' demanded feats. The coach demanded a football player to lift a 300-pound barbell. As the player attempted the lift, the barbell fell on the athlete, causing the player's spine to be dislocated. The player suffered permanent paraplegia and the court found the coach to have been negligent for failure to use reasonable care in knowing the player's physical ability to lift a proper amount of weight (Cunningham, 2001).

### 6.6.1 Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on the Knowledge of Players

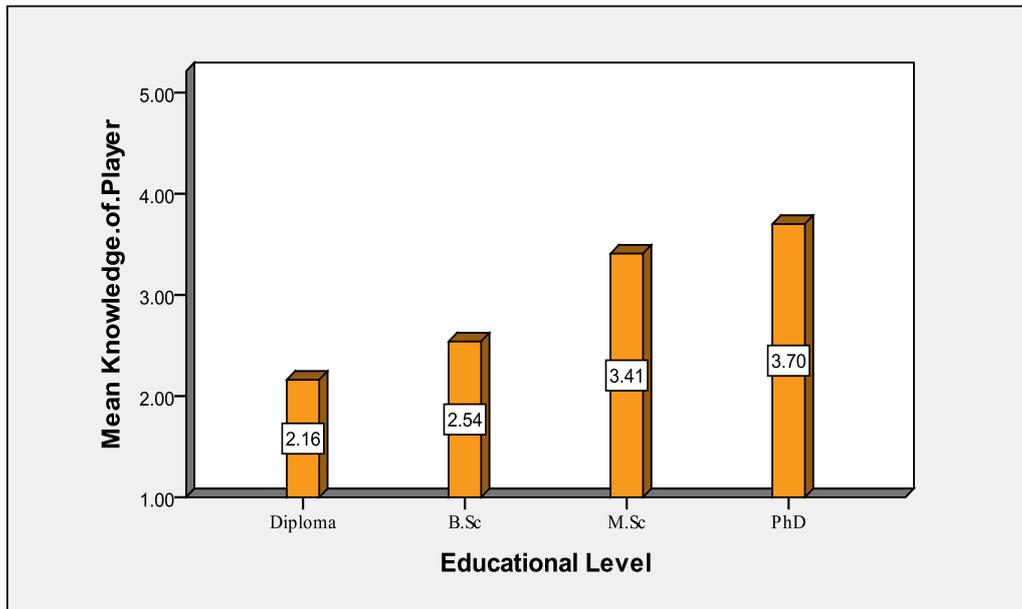
The results of MANOVA indicated that coaches in this respect were different according to gender ( $F(1) = 74.43, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.26$ ). The findings showed that the male coaches had significantly higher knowledge about this duty ( $m = 3.28$ ) than the females ( $m = 1.98$ ). Also, the coaches' knowledge were different based on their ages ( $F(3) = 15.23, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.21$ ). The oldest group (50 years or older) had significantly higher knowledge than the other age groups. The coaches younger than 30 years old reported about the lowest level of knowledge regarding this duty ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 14).



**Figure 14** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to the *knowledge of players* according to age variable

The results of MANOVA indicated a significant differences between the coaches according to the level of their education ( $F(3) = 13.21, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.18$ ) and field of study ( $F(1) = 35.85, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.17$ ). The higher level of education is associated with the higher level of knowledge. The coaches with PhD degree stated to have significantly higher knowledge compared to other coaches. The coaches with diploma degree had the

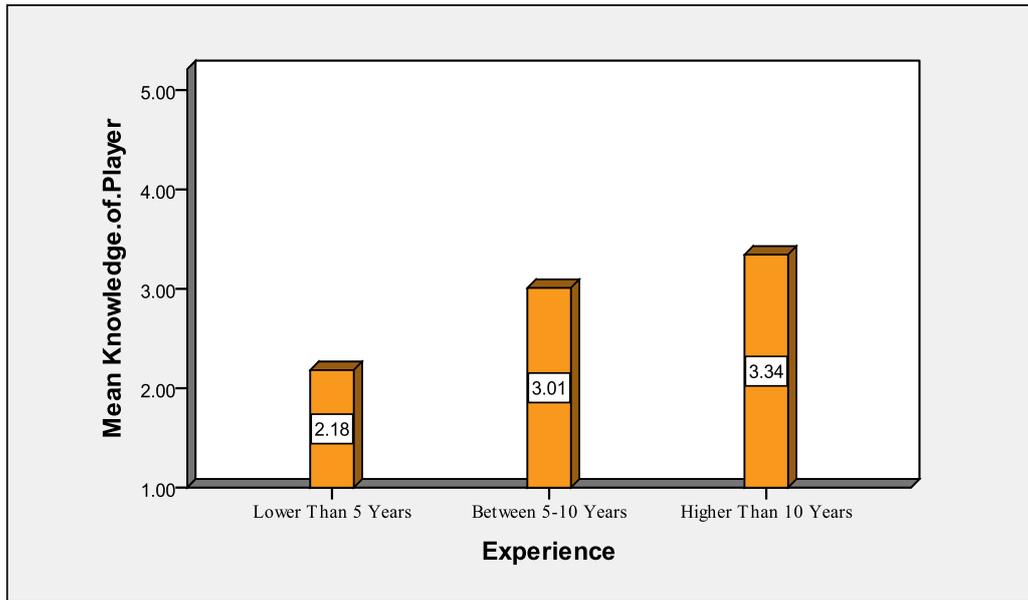
lowest level of knowledge, significantly lower than the other coaches ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 15).



**Figure 15** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to the *knowledge of players* according to educational levels

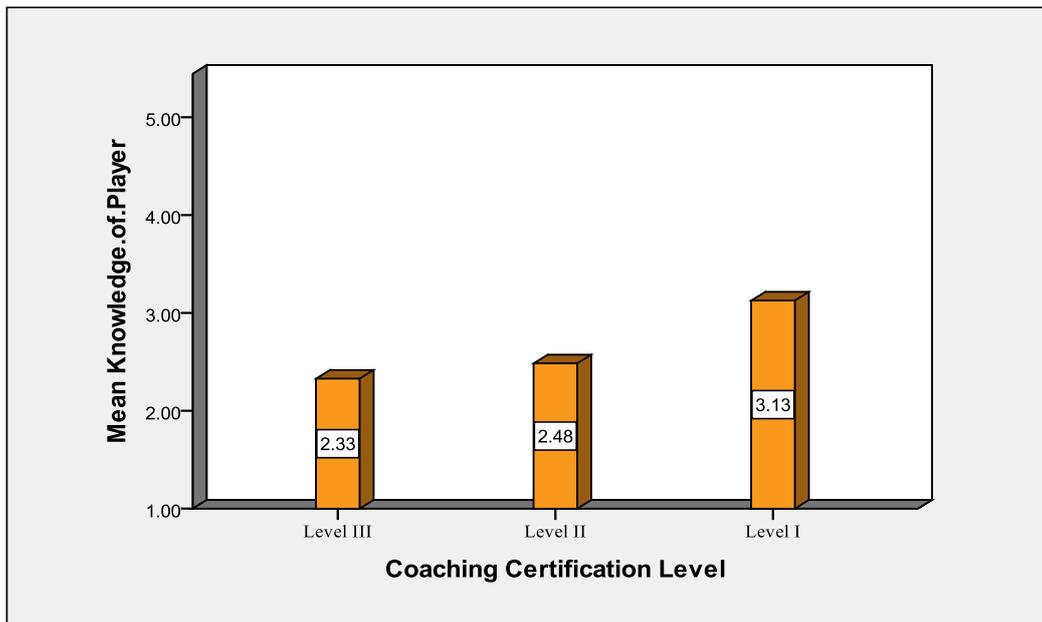
The findings also indicated that the coaches with PE certificate reported about significantly higher knowledge ( $m= 3.20$ ) than the coaches who studied in other fields at the universities ( $m= 1.20$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

The results of MANOVA indicated that the coaches' previous experience also made a difference between them regarding this duty ( $F (2) = 18.35$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.17$ ). The coaches who had more than 10 year's experiences were found to have significantly higher knowledge than the other coaches. The coaches with the shortest experiences seem to have the lowest level of knowledge compared to other groups ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 16).



**Figure 16** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to the *knowledge of players* according to coaching previous experience

The results of MANOVA indicated that the coaching certification level also had an impact on the knowledge of the coaches about their players ( $F(2) = 7.97, p < 0.001, \eta^2 = 0.08$ ). The highest level of certification is associated with the highest level of knowledge. The coaches with certification *level I* proved to have significantly higher knowledge than the coaches with lower level of certification. The coaches with the lowest level of certification (level III) stated on the lowest level of knowledge regarding this duty ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 17).



**Figure 17** Differences between the coaches' knowledge about their duty related to the *knowledge of players* according to the coaching certification level

The coaches' championship history is another factor which affected the knowledge of coaches about this duty ( $F(1) = 11.04$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.06$ ). In this regards, the results showed that the coaches who reported to participate in championships reported about higher knowledge ( $m = 3.03$ ) than the other coaches ( $m = 2.42$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

The results of MANOVA also indicated a difference between the coaches' knowledge according the type of sports they worked at ( $F(1) = 13.80$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.07$ ). In this regard the coaches who worked with individual sports reported about significantly higher knowledge ( $m = 3.06$ ) compared with the coaches who worked with team sports ( $m = 2.38$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### **6.7 Matching Players**

The duty not to place players in a non-competitive setting, otherwise known as the duty not to "mismatch", can be understood as a coach's responsibility to placing athletes in direct competition with other athletes with similar abilities. Because, the coaches ultimately determine who will participate in the game or activity, they have a duty to select

participants who are qualified to a similar degree to compete against other in order to reduce the risk of serious injury (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996). The coaches must be absolutely certain that their players are not put at a serious disadvantage by the manner in which they have been matched or equated for the competition (Nygaard and Boone, 1985). This duty applies in both actual competitions and practices (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996). The coaches also must be aware that mismatches can happen in both non-contact and contact sports. This duty can imply for scheduling a game such as football in a similar way as an individual contact sport, such as wrestling (Figone, 1989). The coaches must also be careful not to injure their players during practices and competition because of their different height and skill. There are some factors that the coaches should consider when matching the athletes in training and in competition, e.g. age, size, mental and physical maturity, experience, height and weight, sex, sexual orientation, injuries or incapacitating conditions, religious convictions, strength and skill or fitness level (Doleschal, 2006; Labuschagne and Skea, 1999; McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996; Schwarz, 1996). The coaches would be legally liable resulting to mismatching the athletes. An example for failure to this duty is the case of *City of Miami v. Cisneros*. In that case an eleven year old athlete weighting between seventy and seventy-five pounds (31- 34 Kg), was a member of the football team. The coach put him in to play during an exhibition game, and his leg was broken when he attempted to tackle another player weighing approximately 128 pounds (58.5 Kg). The court ruled in favor of the player and disallowed the assumption of risk theory because the coach had promised the participant's parents that he would not play in any games against opponents over the weight of ninety pounds (Doleschal, 2006).

In the case of *Zipper v. Ocean Ice Palace* a thirteen year old hockey player attended to a one week hockey camp with other players from ages sixteen through eighteen. The plaintiff's team played against a group of counselors and instructors in an "all star" game. During this game, the plaintiff was injured when he was struck in the leg by a slap shot taken by a nineteen year old player. As a result, the plaintiff filed suit against the hockey rink under a negligent mismatch theory. At the trial it was established that the plaintiff's leg pads were made for competition among players of the plaintiff's age group and skill, and that they were not made for shots from players of heightened skill and ability. It was further

established that the mismatch in the age and skill of the two players created an unreasonably hazardous condition. Although the case was remanded on the issue of damages, the coach were found liable for allowing two players of such different skill to compete against one another (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996).

### **6.7.1 Differences between the Coaches' Knowledge about their Duty on Matching Players**

The coaches in this study indicated to have the sufficient knowledge regarding this duty. Furthermore, I could not find any significant differences in this respect between the coaches according to gender, age, educational level, field of study, previous coaching experiences, coaching certification level, championship history, and the type of sport they worked at ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### ***6.8 The Results in the Mirror of International Studies***

The findings of my investigation revealed that the Iranian coaches who work at universities do not have the appropriate knowledge regarding their legal duties toward their students/athletes. On the one hand, these results are surprising if we take into consideration that more than one third of the coaches in question completed their higher education in physical education and sport sciences at the universities and around one third of them got their coaching certification at the highest level from the related national federations. On the other hand, the above situation is not unique to Iran; the Iranian coaches are not worse in this respect than coaches with other nationality. The results of this investigation are similar to research findings found in several other countries (Barron et al., 2009; Bezdicek, 2009; Ransone and Dunn-Bennett, 1999). According to the above results, the Iranian university coaches do not have enough knowledge about some legal duties including *supervision, facilities and equipment, warning of risk, knowledge of the player, and medical care*. On the other hand, they proved to have sufficient knowledge in two duties, namely *matching players* and *instruction and training*.

The findings of my investigations related to the coaches' knowledge about training and instruction are supported by previous studies in which coaches had good performance in teaching the related techniques and tactics of specific sports (Gray and Curtis, 1991; Gray and McKinstrey, 1994; Hall and Kanoy, 1993; Wolohan and Gray, 1998).

It seems that the coaches' knowledge in training and instruction is in connection with their education. It should be mentioned that formal coaching education program includes several theoretical and practical courses in which coaches learn how to coach. Coaches learn sport regulation, skills, and methods of planning and managing sports through formal coaching programs. They learn how to planning an appropriate activities for athletes and how to taking time for finding and foreseeing potential problems (Borkowski, 2004). Training and instruction is one of the essential elements of any coaching program and all coaches must learn them before starting a coaching career.

Considering *supervision*, it is indicated that the Iranian university coaches did not have enough knowledge about this duty. This result is similar to the findings of Singh and Surujlal (2010) who found inadequate supervision by coaches or administrators in special areas, such as locker rooms, weighting rooms or gymnasiums. Bodey and Moiseichik (1999) showed that the supervision of athletes is the task of coaches with the lowest rank. Borkowski (2004) believes that the lack of supervision is the most-cited complaint against coaches in wrongful injury lawsuits.

*Supervision* is a broad duty implying responsibility for the safety of physical locations and of program activities (Olsen and Kowalski, 2010). According to Gaskin (2003) supervision includes coordinating, directing, overseeing, implementing, managing, superintending, and regulating. The coaches as supervisors should constantly be moving when observing the athletes: looking up and down, right and left, over and under, inspecting and viewing all aspects of the equipment, the facilities, and the activities (Bruya et al., 2002). A supervisor should never leave alone the team, class, or group under his supervision; especially if he/she knows that members of the team may engage in unsafe activities while he/she is away (Hronek and Spengler, 2002). The coaches' presence during an activity is the first line of defense against potential problems (Borkowski, 2004). In order to avoid distractions, the coaches should be scanning the activity from the best

vantage point, which is usually with coaches' "back to the wall". While coaches are supervising, there is no time to talk to others (Borkowski, 2004). Briefly, supervision can be identified as controlling the situation through coaches' knowledge and planning. Therefore, the coaches must be completely familiar with the whole scope of this duty (Borkowski, 2004).

The lack of the coaches' sufficient knowledge might be related to the broad area of this duty, including supervising the athletes in training and in competition, supervising them in the classes and in the locker rooms as well as during the travel time. The coaches are also supposed to control the athletes' nutrition and the nutrition supplements they use. This broad area of duty is not completely performed by the Iranian university coaches due to various reasons. The lack of the coaches' information and their awareness regarding all aspects of this task is one of the reasons in this regards. Moreover, the coaches' performance and behavior are not supervised of in Iran, for instance, most of university coaches are seldom controlled whether they start the sport classes in the right time or not. This issue is one of the common risk factors according to the Iranian court cases. Kordi et al. (2010) found that the direct catastrophic injury rate among wrestlers in Iran (calculated in their study, from July 1998 to June 2005) was about two times higher than among the high school wrestlers in the USA and about three times more than among the collegiate wrestlers in the USA. They found that the most important reason for these differences is the low level of coaching supervision during wrestling training.

There are many different cases related to this subject at Iranian courts. For instance: A 19 year old university sophomore was fatally injured while participating in a practice scrimmage. He was tackled in a head-on collision while carrying the ball on a kickoff (gridiron). At the same time the coach was drinking tea with his college. The injured student collapsed and lost consciousnesses and he died 3 days later. The Court found that level of coaching supervision during practice had not been enough, thus, the coach was liable because of his negligence.

In another case, a coach left the class during the time of a football class for a personal emergency subject without asking an assistant to coach the class. During his absence a 20 year old football player was tackled after catching a pass. He fell to the natural

turf and his hip, shoulder, and head was injured. He died from a head injury as a result of his head hitting the ground. The coach was found legally responsible for neglecting his supervision duty.

Similarly, a judo player died due to a hard injury caused by hitting his head to another student's knee. The Local Court held that the coach was liable for the death of the player because he failed to provide proper supervision. The Local Court found that in the time when this accident happened the coach was concentrating solely on another judo player and without paying attention to the other players. The court noted that the accident would not have occurred if the coach had paid attention to proper supervision.

In another case, a coach was found legally liable when a wrestler was injured during practice with one of his teammates. The District Court found that the coach failed to supervise properly because he was supervising two matches at the same time. The court stated that the coach should have been supervising only one match at one time in order to minimize the risk of unnecessary injury to the wrestlers. The court also noted that if the coach had been fully supervising the match, he could have recognized that one of the wrestlers was having difficulty with the hold and could have instructed the other wrestler to release the hold before the injury happened.

Another coach was held liable for the death of a student-athlete who was electrocuted while using a whirlpool bath in the locker room. In its reasoning, the Court of Appeals held that the coach should have supervised his players in the locker room.

The coaches in my study reported not to have enough knowledge either regarding inspecting *facilities and equipment*. It turned out that they do not check regularly the facilities and equipment to ensure the safety and finding any failure there. Kordi et al. (2010) in their study found that the difference between the rate of injury among wrestlers in Iran and USA might be related to the higher quality of facilities in the wrestling clubs in the USA compared with Iran. Similarly, Gray and McKinstrey (1994) and Wolohan and Gray (1998) discovered that inspecting the facilities and equipment had usually performed to a lower degree than other duties. It seems that the coaches do not pay enough attention to this duty. One of the most important reasons of this negligence in Iran is that there is not a clear written policy that identifies who is responsible for the inspection and maintenance of safe

sport facilities. Singh and Surujlal (2010) also revealed the same weakness in South Africa. The fact is that there are other responsible persons at the universities whose task is to check regularly the facilities and equipment before starting the practice and competition instead of coaches, because the coaches are the employee of the universities and university, as the owner of facilities and equipment also has a duty to check the sport facilities. In fact, all persons involved in youth sport activities including the coaches, administrators, managers, facilities staff, and sponsors should regularly and thoroughly inspect facilities and equipment (Almquist et al., 2008). In other words, university and team officials should closely co-operate and inspect together all equipments used by students/athletes. They also should be familiar with the risks involved in the use of such equipment (Almquist et al., 2008). Hall and Kanoy (1993) also stated that although the major responsibility for supervising, directing, and controlling the athletic activities in public high schools falls on the coaches and athletic directors, they and all school administrators should share the responsibility for creating a healthier and safer environment for the student-athlete.

The lack of proper inspection of the facilities and equipment increases the rate of injury at the Iranian universities like in other countries. Some examples of these injuries are cited in the following. A junior university girl was injured as she landed in the long jump pit which had been prepared by a university employee. The girl sustained an injury to her knee which required surgical replacement of a ligament in her knee. The injury resulted in a permanent disability in her right knee which adversely affects the mobility and stability of the knee and which will, for the rest of her life, require her to wear an orthopedic brace when engaging in sports activities. The girl brought suit against the university for providing an unreasonably dangerous condition because the employee did not adequately prepare the pit for long jumping. The university, in an attempt to show that they were not negligent, brought the girl's coach into the suit as a third party defendant. The Jury found the coach to be liable for the girl's injury. The coach argued that the girl observed the pit and had jumped into it several times prior to the injury and therefore assumed the risk of jumping into the pit that day. The court found that the girl did not assume the risk and did not relieve the coach of his duty to provide a reasonably safe jumping pit.

In another case, a nineteen year old taekwondo athlete's head was seriously injured during the training time because he fell heavily on the ground. The court held that the taekwondo mats was not in a good condition and that the incident had happened for that reason. Therefore, the university was instructed to improve the process of checking and the coaches were warned to check the taekwondo mats before starting the training.

Some of the cases linked with this duty are about the athletes' equipment, although the coaches usually have less control over them (McCaskey and Biedzynski, 1996). For instance: a 25 year old player was seriously injured during taekwondo training while wearing no protective equipment and the coach did not prevent the player from playing. The court held that it is also common knowledge that injuries of this nature can occur even when players are professionally trained and equipped. Thus, the fact that no protective equipment was supplied made the likelihood of injury clearly greater.

In another case The District Court of Appeals reversed a directed verdict in favor of a university where a helmetless freshman taekwondo player sustained injuries as a result of striking his face on another player's foot during a drill. The coach was found liable for permitting some of the team's players to practice drills without helmets.

The results of my study indicated that the coaches' knowledge regarding the *warning the players of risk* also was insufficient. These findings are similar to the results found by Gray and McKinstrey (1994) and Wolohan and Gray (1998). The coaches' failure in this duty might be related to the potential assumption of risk in sport. This means that athletes who participate in sporting activities are supposed to be familiar with the inherent risks involved in that specific sport. In other words, as the athletes voluntarily participate in sporting activities, they accept the inherent risks of sport, because participating in sport involves certain necessary and inevitable risks from flying objects to flying bodies. Thus there will be no liability for coaches where an injury arises from the reasonable risks inherent in the game (Labuschagne and Skea, 1999). Hence, the coaches assume that the athletes read and see the alarm and sing of dangers of an activity before starting to training or competing and they are aware of the inherent risks involved in specific sport.

On the other hand, Borkowski (2004) stated that some coaches feel that if they inform student-athletes about the potential injuries of sport, they will stop participating.

Therefore, they usually do not prefer to talk about the risks rarely happen in the trainings or competitions. The following examples are related to some of injuries cases that happened because of the coaches' negligence in this duty. An 18 year old football player died after suffering a head injury in a game. The injured player was making a tackle and his head made contact with the thigh of the ball carrier. He was playing defensive back and tackling the pass receiver in the open held. The injury happened because of coach missed to warn the player about the risks inherent involved in tackle skill.

In another case, a 19 year old graduate athlete was playing defensive tackle for his football team. His shoulder was injured during the game. The athlete filed suit against the coach that he negligently failed to warn them of the potential risk of injury inherent in playing football; if he had been warned he would not have chosen to play football. The court found that coach is liable due to negligence to inform the athlete about the inherent risk in football.

There also was a case related to a coach who was held liable for the injuries of a soccer player who fall during a soccer match played on a wet and slippery field. The court found that the coach was negligent because the playing conditions were dangerous and the player could not assume the risk of injury by playing on such a field.

Similarly, a beginner gymnast student was injured as a result of a faulty somersault performed on a mini trampoline. A caution label was affixed to the trampoline which gave a very broad and accurate description of the dangers involved in the use of this specific equipment. It was also specified that the use of the equipment was only intended for properly trained and qualified participants under supervised conditions. When the mini trampoline was assembled by a member of the staff, and it was placed in such a manner that the warning label was on the bottom, facing the floor and therefore out of sight of anyone attempting to use it. There were also warnings printed on the frame, but they were covered by frame pads and were also out of sight. The coach in question was found liable for breach the duty of warning the athlete of the risk.

In another case, an injured mountaineer alleged that the coach was negligent to inform him about the correct ways in a specific mountain and failed to give notice of

hidden dangers. The court concluded that the coach did owe the athlete a duty of warning about the risk in this case. Thus, he was found liable for athlete's injury.

The results of this study also showed the Iranian university coaches did not have sufficient knowledge regarding the *medical care* duty. The lack of the coaches' awareness regarding this duty is not a new subject in sport. The review of the relevant literature consistently demonstrates that coaches from different countries, at all levels of experience and with different levels of certification have inadequate information about emergency medical care (Barron et al., 2009; Castro, 2010; Cunningham, 2001; Flint and Weiss, 1992; Ransone and Dunn-Bennett, 1999; Rowe and Miller, 1991; Valvovich-McLeod et al., 2008). Findings of several investigations revealed many coaches' confession according to which they are not adequately trained for providing first aid and therefore, they do not feel capable of administering emergency medical care (Hage and Moore, 1981). Moreover, many coaches have the feeling not to have an adequate level of injury management education (Kenny, 1987; Rowe and Miller, 1991; Sherman, 1985).

Several injuries occurred in Iran in university sport because of the above problem. For instance, two football coaches were found liable for the death of a football player as a result of heart stroke which happened because they failed to give a prompt medical assistance. The Court of Appeals noted that the coaches provided medical assistance only two hours after the football player first exhibited signs of heat exhaustion. Therefore, the court stated that the coaches acted with unreasonable neglect.

In another case, a college volleyball player was struck in her eye by an errantly thrown ball during a team practice. Unfortunately, the injured player was not taken to a doctor until the following day when the plaintiff's eye began to hemorrhage. Ultimately, the eye became infected and the player lost her vision. The expert testimony revealed that immediate medical treatment might have prevented the permanency of the injury. The court found that the coach had a duty to provide prompt medical attention and affirmed a jury verdict in favor of the plaintiff.

The instance of a university coach who was found liable for moving a judo player after he sustained a severe knee injury also can be cited. The coach was found guilty

because of failed to contact the proper medical authorities or the player' parents after the occurring the injury

In another court case is about a university handball coach who was found legally liable for rendering medical treatment in a negligent manner by immersing a student' infected finger in scalding water.

Some experts made attempt for defending the coaches' ignorance regarding this duty. They argued that this task in real terms is the duty of the team trainers and physicians (Almquist et al., 2008). However, since the proper medical personnel are not available occasionally and coaches may be required to act in a first aid capacity, they should be educated in this area. These reasons could also be valid in the case of the Iranian university coaches. Besides, the coaches should have some knowledge about sports medicine if their universities do not ensure the appropriate medical treatment (Cunningham, 2001; Hage and Moore, 1981).

On the other hand, having a wide range of duties (such as supervision, instruction, training, etc.) is another reason of the Iranian university coaches' negligence regarding first aid and medical care. Abraham (1970) and Flint and Weiss (1992) also reported about similar reasons for the lack of coaches' awareness in connection with *medical care*.

The results of this study also showed that the Iranian university coaches did not know sufficiently their players. In other words, they do not have appropriate knowledge about various physical, psychological, etc. of their players. This result is in line with the findings of Singh and Surujlal (2010) who reported that the mentioned legal duty is generally rated low by coaches. This problem might be related to the fact that other liable persons, such as the athletes' sport physicians, team physicians, athletic trainers, or team club responsible also have this duty toward athletes. They are responsible for preparing the medical history of each athlete based on pre-participation in PPE, and they are required to record all injuries happened to the athletes in training and competition. The Iranian university coaches also might assume that since their athletes was previously affirmed by team physician, the latter take continuously responsibility for them. Moreover, the coaches might suppose that their athletes would inform them about their potential health problems

or their previous injuries and the athletes' parents also have a duty to inform the coach if their children have a health problem (Figone, 1989).

There were many court cases in Iran in which the coaches were found liable due to negligence of *first aid* or *medical care*. For instance: a 22 year old football player had a breathing problem while standing on the sidelines at practice after being involved in stretching and warm-up drills, and then he suddenly died from natural causes related to his heart problem. Coach found legally liable although he argued that he did not know about the player's heart problem. If he had been informed, he would not let him to participate in practice. In a similar event a 19 year old football player stopped playing one minute before the end of the game and complained of blurred vision. After that he collapsed in the locker room and died. The autopsy report stated that his death was not caused by a specific injury but it was due to a congenital blood vessel defect in the brain. The court convicted his coach arguing that the athletes' death might have been prevented if his coach had been dealt with the medical history of his athlete.

In another case, one of the best college basketball players collapsed, after making a slam dunk in a semifinal match. One hour and forty minutes later he was dead. This was not the first time that he collapsed while playing basketball. He also collapsed three months earlier and then he began taking medication since a medical test indicated an irregular heartbeat. He continued to play basketball but he soon realized that he was no longer "a dazzling scorer and rebounder". After his death rumors stated that he had stopped taking his medication and his coaches were not only aware of it, but they encouraged the player to continue and allowed him to play. The deceased student's family alleged that their son was misdiagnosed and he was not fully informed about the seriousness of his condition. Furthermore, the lawsuits alleged that due to the pressure from the coach, the physicians ordered a lower dosage of medication to the student in order that he could continue to play even at higher level to which he was accustomed.

Another example refers to a student-athlete was paralyzed during a football game. He successfully sued the team coach for allowing him to play with an injury.

Although many judicial instances were cited, it has to be emphasized that much more similar events do not come up to trial. The coaches are not brought to justice, among

other reasons, because many people associated with sports choose to ignore rules and regulations. They act in the spirit of law mainly when they are forced to comply by court order (Lewis and Appenzeller, 1985). In addition, the athletes and their parents often are not aware of the athletes' rights and if they are, the high costs of lawsuits often prevent them from going to court (Schwarz, 1996). ). Karns' research findings (1986) also support assumption that very few of the known negligent conduct come up to trial.

On the other hand, the fact that the injured athletes and the parents of the deceased athletes do not always take legal actions against the coaches when they would have all right to do it, might contribute to the insufficient knowledge of the coaches about their legal duties (Citron and Ableman, 2003; Cunningham, 2001; Schwarz, 1996).

## ***6.9 Major Factors Affecting the Coaches' Knowledge about their Legal Duties***

### **6.9.1 Gender**

The results showed that coaches' gender affected the level of their knowledge about their legal duties. The male coaches reported to have higher knowledge than the females in most of duties (*supervision, instruction and training, facilities and equipment, warning of risk and knowledge of player*). The data did not show significant differences between the male and female coaches' knowledge in two other duties (*matching of players and medical care*). There are several researches which studied the differences between male and female coaches in various areas; most of them found considerable differences between the coaches' characteristics based on their gender (Benari, 2010; Bon, 1996; Dubois, 1990; Hart, 1986; Johnson, 2008; Kajtna, 2008; Krečič, 2002; Millard, 1996; Newell, 2007; Newsom and Dent, 2011; Reade et al., 2009). For instance, Bon (1996) emphasized that the female coaches are simply different than the male coaches; not necessarily better or worse, but different in their ways of thinking, abilities to communicate and to adapt themselves and in their attitudes toward coaching career.

Iran is an open society in some ways, but the traditions are respected very much. It is quite interesting that the ideal image of a female coach is quite similar to the ideal image

of a male coach, indeed people expect the female coaches to be like male coaches. At the same time there are serious discrepancies between the image of an ideal female coach and the female coaches as they really are. The perceived image of a female coach is closer to the traditional image of a female (being considerate, paying attention to the quality of communication and the quality of the coach-athlete relationship, minding the athlete's health etc.). Finally, female coaches clash with a very old stereotype: "*She cannot be a coach, she's a woman!!!*" (Bon 1996, p. 56.).

Female coaches in the Iranian society often face conflicting situations. From social aspects they should be at home; they are in charge of upbringing and caring the children, as well as managing the household, etc. There might be a considerable conflict between the roles of a mother/wife and a coach. Furthermore, women with coach's certification in Iran are offered fewer employment opportunities than the male coaches; they are less motivated and have lower self esteem.

### **6.9.2 Education, Field of Study, Certification**

Academic background was also found as an effective factor influencing the coaches' knowledge regarding their legal duties toward their athletes. I found that Iranian university coaches with higher level of education stated on higher knowledge in *supervision, instruction and training, facilities and equipment and knowledge of players*. The impact of the level of education on the coaches' knowledge is reported in various studies (Bloom et al., 1998; Demers et al., 2006; Duffy, 2008; Gilbert and Trudel, 2001; Irwin et al., 2004; Jones et al., 2004; Salmela, 1994; Wright et al., 2007). Corso (1992) believed that the coaches' knowledge is founded in classrooms. According to the results of his research, education is one the most important factor which makes differences between the coaches and there is a significant difference in the legal knowledge of coaches depending on their educational levels. These differences could be explained simply by the fact that more education means a greater level of awareness in general and regarding the legal issues in particular.

The field of study also has an impact on the content of the coaches' knowledge. The results indicated that the coaches who studied PE have more knowledge regarding their legal duties about *supervision, instruction and training, facilities and equipment, warning of risk, and knowledge of player* than others who studied in other study fields. These findings are in line with the results obtained by Gray and McKinstrey (1994). Similarly, Gray and Park (1991) found that the athletic directors who had sport related educational backgrounds performed their duties better than those whose educational backgrounds were not related to sport.

On the other hand, the study field (sport major or non-sport major) does influence on the coaches' knowledge in first aid and *medical issues*, since there is not a special training program about them in the PE students' curriculum at the Iranian universities. The coaches should participate in other courses (FA or CPR) out of the universities for improving their knowledge in this regards, which is rarely happen in Iran. These findings are similar to the research results of Aaron (2004) and Asghari et al. (2011).

Every profession is characterized by a body of knowledge unique to that profession. Athletic coaches also should possess technical, theoretical, and practical knowledge as well as experience in their profession (Ball, 1980). Thus, coaches in any level of experience should be educated to teach properly a special sport. Coaching courses which are organized by national federations are a major step to getting special knowledge about sports (Adams, 1979). The certified coaches have some training in proper practices and procedures of teaching sports (Cunningham, 2001). Hage and Moore (1981) believed that the mandatory certification for coaches also implies a higher standard of knowledge regarding how to take care for the athletes, which may lead to fewer injuries and more lawsuits.

The results of this study indicated that coaches who had higher level of coaching certification had more knowledge in *supervision, instruction and training, facilities and equipment* as well as *knowledge of player*. However, in *warning of risk, matching players and medical care* there was not differences between them. This might be related to the curricula in the coaching education programs at the Iranian sport federations. Some essential subjects related to coaches' legal duties (warning of risk, matching players, and medical care) are not taught at any levels of the coaching education programs. All special

subjects related to risks involved in sports and to the legal duties of coaches are missing from the coaching courses in Iran. This problem is one of the main weaknesses of the Iranian coaching education system. The sport federations as the only responsible bodies for qualifying the coaches are supposed to educate the coaches in every respect of coaching; failure in the education programs might have a serious negative impact on the sport in the countries.

### **6.9.3 Age and Experience**

The coaches' age and partly in connection with it their experiences inevitably affect the level of the coaches' knowledge and performance (Gilbert and Trudel, 2001). Corso (1992) found that both cognitive learning, which could occur through coaching-specific academic courses, and experiential learning, through observations and practical coaching experiences under supervised conditions were equally important in increasing the coaches' knowledge. It is apparent that most coaches took a more professional and serious look at coaching only after they were employed as a coach (Corso, 1992). Comparing experienced coaches with inexperienced ones demonstrated that the coaches in the first group were more diligent planners, spent more time to planning and expressing greater confidence in the efficiency of the plan (Jones et al., 1997).

The number of years spent to coaching is highly associated with the coaches' age. In general, the younger coaches have fewer years of coaching experience than the older coaches. It is obvious that the younger coaches cannot have more years of experience than their age and it happens rarely that one can find older coaches with few years of coaching experience (Johnson, 2008). Therefore, the age can influence the coaches' knowledge as well as their experiences (Barron, 2004; Johnson, 2008).

According the findings of my study, the highest knowledge of legal duties about *supervision, instruction and training, facilities and equipment, and knowledge of player* is owned by the oldest coaches with the longest experience. Similarly, Aaron (2004) found that the athletic directors who had long experiences in sport through participation or coaching would be more likely to perform risk management behaviors at a higher level than directors without this kind of experience.

In fact, the middle aged and older coaches at the Iranian universities, like coaches in other countries, know better where, when and how injuries can happen, thus, they have higher chance to prevent them. These results are in line with the findings of Mesquita et al. (2011).

#### **6.9.4 Type of Sport, Championship History**

The results of my thesis showed that the type of sport also has a significant impact on the coaches' knowledge about their legal duties toward their athletes. The coaches who worked with individual sports reported to have higher knowledge than those who coached in team sports. Johnson (2008) found that coaches in some particular sports (gymnastics, dance, volleyball, and swimming) had higher level of knowledge than coaches in other sports, and most of these sports are individual sports.

In general, the risk of injury in individual sport, especially in non-contact sports, seems to be lower compared to the team sports. This is, in part, might be because of lower the number of athletes participating in training and competition at the same time. In part, the coaches in individual sports have a closer relationship with their athletes, they have more time to share with them; consequently, they learn more about their athletes' physical and mental condition, their potential problems as well as their previous injuries. Moreover, the coaches in individual sports might feel a higher responsibility for their athletes' performance. Therefore, they might pay more attention to their duties to prevent injuries.

Beside the type of sports, the coaches' previous personal involvement in the given sports as athletes contributed not only to the level of their professional knowledge but to their responsibility to get legal information as well. The results of this study showed that the coaches who had success in national or international competitions in their youth in specific sport had a higher level of knowledge and awareness than other coaches in *supervision, facilities and equipment and knowledge of player*. Their championship history was somehow in connection with their coaches' experiences. Since Iran is a big country, there are many rivals among the university athletes for having the right to participate in national or international championships. Indeed, only the very talented athletes have the

opportunity to participate in such competition and if they remain in sport as athletes, they benefit from their sporting past.

## **7. DISCUSSION**

According to the results of relevant international researches, the most important factors responsible for the low level of the coaches' knowledge generally are the following: the lack of specific information related to legal liability practices in collegiate sport (Robert et al., 2008), the focus on sporting practice or competition, rather than on the health care of athletes (Calvert, 1979), multiplicity of the coaches' duties and their role conflicts (Abraham, 1970; Flint and Weiss, 1992), choosing the job of coaching because of personal financial problems and working as a coach in part time.

There are also wide-ranging reasons to explain the results of my research presented in the previous chapters; partly they are similar to the causes published in the international literature, partly they are specific to the Iranian situation. In this chapter the explanation pertaining to my subject is presented along three major dimensions. Since the findings of the in-depth interviews helped a lot to interpret the research data, at first the reasons given by the coaches themselves for their insufficient knowledge about legal issues are shown. Then two actual hindering factors the coaches referred to the most frequently, namely the weaknesses of the coaching education system in Iran and the university coaches' unsatisfactory social recognition are discussed.

### ***7.1 Coaches' Explanation Concerning their Insufficient Legal Knowledge***

Most Iranian university coaches went along with the research data about their unsatisfactory legal knowledge without counter-argument. However, they did not accept the responsibility for it; they rather blamed their limited opportunities for knowledge acquirement.

During the in-depth interviews most interviewees criticized heavily regarding the system of coaching education in Iran; they argued that it is not efficient. They emphasized that the coaching classes are generally too crowded. The curricula are almost the same at the higher and at the lower levels (level III, II, and I). The teaching periods are too short; it is not sufficient for learning the lessons. Moreover, some important topics are missing from

the coaching education programs. Several interviewees with different gender and age and from different sport complained as follows:

“Many people participate in the classes; some of us did not even have a seat.”

“Not only me, but most coaching candidates believe that the materials taught in coaching programs are useless, they are too old and not up to date. The organizers do not care about the quality of the programs, they just want our money.”

“Some valuable subjects, such as first aid in sport, sport law, the method of communication and interaction with athletes, etc. are not included in the coaching education programs.”

“The final exam is formal. Anybody who registers (pays the tuition fee) and participates in the classes would be given a certification.”

Moreover, both male and female interviewees working either with individual or in team sport argued that they do not have any other sources of coaching knowledge acquisition in their own country.

“We do not have any other sources for improving our knowledge in coaching; there are not enough special books and magazines. All sport newspapers and magazines are related to football, deal with top football players, and pay attention even to marginal issues in football. There is only one valuable TV program, the “Navad” which focuses on the players, referees and coaches in football.”

Most coaches admitted that they do not have enough knowledge about the legal aspects of sport. Some of them even confessed that they do not have correct information about their responsibilities toward their athletes and about their legal duties in sport, and they are lucky that most athletes are not aware of their rights.

“Law is not my field. If I had a legal problem, I would ask a lawyer to help me. None of my injured athletes complained to the court because they were injured in sport, not in the street, they had no chance in court.” (Young male coach from team sport)

“I am not familiar with legal issues in sport. As far as I’m concerned, this is the lawyers’ business not the coaches’.” (Middle aged female athletes from individual sport)

There were a few coaches who declined; they unambiguously refused that they have to be responsible for their athletes. I met male and female as well as younger and older coaches who manifested similar opinions as the one cited below:

“I am not responsible for my athletes because they are matured adults (older than 25 years). Also, the responsibility for safety of sport facilities and equipment is not only mine either, other persons, such as officials of sport departments should always check the equipment.”

Taking into consideration that both male and female coaches attended course with similar curricula, it can be rightly assumed that the male coaches acquired their knowledge outside the training system, probably in their everyday experience. This potential explanation is in harmony with the findings of the quantitative results which revealed that the coaches’ age and the length of their previous experiences in coaching also had an impact on the level of their familiarity with their legal duties.

Many coaches confessed that they were not motivated at all to improve their knowledge and to obtain the higher coaching levels. Some of them admitted that they were lazy; some others blamed the objective circumstances for their lack of ambition. For instance, a 37 year-old coach criticized the low social status of coaching:

“Coaching in this country is just for fun, there is no money and no one appreciates us. Coaching in Iran is really nothing, so why should I try to improve my coaching level?”

An older coach complained about the underestimation of knowledge in sport.

“I just need to have some connections with an important person in the federation, if I want to have the better job. The sport managers do not care about the level of the coaches’ certification or their experience.”

## ***7.2 System of Coaching Education in Iran***

Generally speaking, the coaching education programs include several theoretical and practical courses in which the future coaches learn how to coach. Among others, they have to study the method of training, the regulations of the given sports, the planning of the training programs, and managing their sports. All coaches must learn the essential elements of the coaching programs before starting a coaching career.

In Iran many coaches get their certification in coaching as a second qualification in special courses. The National Sports Federations are responsible for the coaches' education and qualification. Regardless of the sporting background of the candidates, everybody has the opportunity to participate in the coaching programs. However, there are some other requirements for participating at the coaching programs, such as police clearance certification, addiction clearance certification and middle level diploma (The Ministry of Sport and Youth, 2010).

The Iranian coaching education system consists of three levels. This means that there are three main degrees in coaching: *level III*, *level II* and *level I*, the latter is the highest stage. More than 70% of the Iranian coaches have the lowest level of coaching; the *level III* (IRNA.ir, 2013). The curriculum of each level is presented in Table 2.

**Table 2** The title of courses taught in different coaching levels

<i>Level III</i>		<i>Level II</i>		<i>Level I</i>	
<b>Course</b>	<b>Time/ Hour</b>	<b>Course</b>	<b>Time/ Hour</b>	<b>Course</b>	<b>Time/ Hour</b>
Practical Courses Related to Specific Sport	60	Practical Courses Related to Specific Sport	60	Practical Courses Related to Specific Sport	60
General Anatomy and Physiology	12	Sport Physiology. I	6	Sport Physiology. II	6
Programming and Exercise Designing. I	4	Programming and Exercise Designing. II	6	Programming and Exercise Designing. II	4
Coach's Role In The Class. I	6	Coach's Role In The Class. II	4	Coach's Role In The Class. III	4
Nutrition. I	6	Nutrition. II	4	Nutrition. III	4
Safety In Sport. I	4	Safety In Sport. II	4	Safety In Sport. III	4
Skill Analysis. I	4	Skill Analysis. II	4	Skill Analysis. III	4
Foundation of Fitness. I	8	Measurement and Evaluation In Sport. I	4	Coaching Psychology	6
Motor Development. I	6	Motor Development. II	4	Research Method In PE	6
Sport Psychology. I	6	Sport Psychology. II	4		
Foundation of PA. I	4				
<b>Total</b>	120		100		100

(The Ministry of Sport and Youth, 2012)

The coaching training programs consist of 60 hours practical classes in their sport and 60 hours theoretical classes on each level, which are taught in a one or two-week-long period. This time is too short for learning all materials; most candidates do not have sufficient knowledge, if any, even about the method of coaching and about the regulations of their specific sport. Moreover, during the training periods the candidates are required to participate in the courses 8-10 hours a day, which can be too intensive and do not create an efficient learning environment. The general and specific courses are finished by final exams

at each coaching level and after taking it successfully; the candidates can officially start working as coaches at sport clubs, federations, schools, universities, ect.

The system of the coaches' training has a lot of other weaknesses in Iran. In most sports there are only a few issues in the coaching curricula which are addressed to the questions of the athletes' safety. Many important subjects, among others, sport law are ignored in the curriculum of the coaching educational programs. Indeed, the subject of sport law does not have a proper position in the Iranian' educational system. Sport law is considered neither at the universities nor in the sport federations as an important subject. Legal subjects are included in the compulsory curriculum at the Iranian universities, neither for law students nor for PE students. They are optional for master students in physical education, and only two credits can be gained for it. The content of the credits belongs mainly to introductory issues to sport law; most students with a sport related major do not learn about their future responsibilities, duties and liabilities toward their students during their PE studies at higher education.

Similarly, very few credits are given for courses related to safety in sport at each level of the coaching education, and these subjects are taught to coaching candidates only in four hours. Moreover, there are very few experts in the field of sport law in the country who could teach this subject properly. This is another main reason why most coaches, sports officials and managers involved in Iranian sport (and athletes) do not have adequate knowledge about their rights, duties and about the legal aspects of sport, the lack of which might often cause them legal problems.<sup>5</sup>

In the international arena Iran is one of the most problematic countries regarding legal issues related to sport, most litigations in the FIFA are from Iran (Jamejamonline, 2013). These facts also show that most coaches do not care about sport law (ISNA.ir, 2013).

---

<sup>5</sup>For instance, there are many court cases in which coaches forced to pay compensation to athletes due to negligence to performing their duties toward athletes that comes from their lack of legal knowledge. Citing another example: an Iranian basketball club, a member in the Iranian basketball league was punished by the FIBA because the club's management did not have proper knowledge regarding the international law in sport (jamejamonline.ir).

### ***7.3 Coaches' Social Recognition Regarding their Profession***

Voluntary work is not accepted in the Iranian culture, except some religious programs (e.g. *Marasem-e Azadari Dar Mah-e Moharam*) in which the Iranian people are involved voluntarily. Similarly, Iranian coaches do not work voluntarily; they do this job for money. Notwithstanding, coaching in Iran is not a full-time job; most coaches choose it as a second or third career. Therefore, it is difficult to get exact information about how many coaches work in Iran, what are their social and demographic characteristics and what is the social recognition of their activity. According to reliable estimation four times more men choose this job than women in the country, and similarly the number of male coaches is higher than female coaches at the Iranian universities, because there are more opportunities for the male students than for the female students to participate in sports females (Mirsafian et al., 2013). Since they have more than one job, many Iranian coaches are overworked, their quality of life is low and their mental health is poor (Nasri and Vayez Mosavi, 2006; Ramezanejad et al., 2010).

Examining the question of coaches' social prestige in society I could rely mainly on the results obtained through the in-depth interviews on the basis of which coaching at universities is not considered in Iran as a very prestigious occupation. In terms of social status, coaches belong to the lower middle class, with the exception of a small group of professional coaches employed at the first league sport teams. The latter can reach even upper middle class status and earn huge money.

At the primary and secondary schools some coaches often teach two or three sports to the students in spite of the fact that they do not have coaching certification in these sports, and consequently, they do not have enough knowledge about how to teach those sports properly. At the universities, the situation is a little better; however the coaches with the lowest level of coaching certification are generally employed there because of the poor financial situation at universities.

All in all, coaching is not regarded as a socially recognized, attractive career in Iran; consequently the quality of the coaches' performance on several levels is not as good as it should be.

The coaches' low social prestige led to a non desirable consequence: more and more young people chose this profession who were unsuited for the job. The older coaches accepted their situation when they were young. During the interviews they argued that at the beginning they had a positive attitude to the coaching career; they were motivated to improve the athletes' achievement and to develop their knowledge in coaching, however, later they lost their enthusiasm. Most coaches belonging to the young generation did not have the same attitude than the older ones; from the very beginning they regarded coaching just as a job with the help of which they could earn money. Their major problem was that they did not have a clear vision about their future professional career. A 28 years old male coach told the following when he was interviewed:

"I do coaching because I have nothing else to do. There is not any job opportunity for me so I do coaching, It is better than nothing".

A young female coach expressed her negative attitude in the following way:

"I do not have any future in coaching career; my contract is just for six months at the university. I would leave this job if I could find a better opportunity".

There is a mutual interaction between the low social prestige of coaching common people (and not elite athletes) and the social composition of the university coaches' newer generation. Since coaching at the universities is not a recognized job in the Iranian society, in these days a lot of young people without true ambition are working at universities. This statement is well illustrated by the following citations from the in-depth interviews:

"Honestly, I do not like my third job (coaching) and I am not enthusiastic to do it after working many hours in my main job. I just need the little money earned by that job". (Young female university coach)

"I would prefer to find a job related to my study field (economic sciences), however due to the lack of better job opportunities and to my financial problems I do coaching. It is not my real interest". (Young male university coach)

There is a vicious circle: on the one hand, the lack of the university coaches' social recognition led to an increased heterogeneity of their young generations, on the other hand,

the heterogeneous composition of the coaches often rightly strengthens and sometimes justifies the underestimation of their profession.

## 8. CONCLUSIONS

In recent years, the number of court cases has increased in connection with sport and physical activity. The majority of the sport related court cases were initiated by athletes; they brought suit against the alleged liability or the negligent acts of their coaches. It may seem obvious that the coaches are at risk the most when it comes to sport related litigation. The coaches are in direct contact with the athletes and therefore, they have specific legal duties towards their athletes. The breach or failure to perform these legal duties often results in the athletes' injuries, which then might result in litigation.

The increasing number of sport related litigation is not without cause (Baley and Matthews, 1984). Its most important reason is increasing the participation in sports. The changing societal values are another reason in this regard. The individuals are more aware of their rights than they were in the past decades. In today's society several television programs, newspapers articles and other sources of the mass media inform them about their rights (Schwarz, 1996). Having the knowledge of these rights, many individuals are quick to identify the situations when they believe that their rights have been infringed on (Pittman, 1992). This can be well seen in athletics, where "the students' rights issue has gone from the archaic concept that the coach is all powerful and can do no wrong, to the current litigious climate of our society where everyone feels he/she is a lawyer and will sue over just about anything" (Adams, 1992, p.25). Therefore, in order to protect themselves from sport related litigation, the coaches as well as the responsible for athletic programs should be aware of their legal duties and liabilities related to such programs. Of course, the coaches with well founded legal information might be able also to protect their athletes better from injuries and possible death and even from psychological and financial damages.

All these mean that the importance of the coaches' knowledge about legal topics in connection with their profession has increased recently. The changes in this overall social background motivated me to investigate the level of Iranian coaches' knowledge in this regard.

## ***8.1 Checking the Hypotheses***

My research had been carried out in a sample consisting of coaches employed at Iranian universities. Regarding the fact that the athletes at universities are young and they have little experience, many of them lack the ability to recognize and minimize the probable risks in sport; therefore the likelihood that they would be injured in sport during workout and competitions is higher than it is with older athletes. Consequently, they would need special attention; the coaches working with them should take special care of them. They can reduce the likelihood of the occurrence and the frequency of their students' injury if they are aware of their legal duties and act accordingly. The findings of my investigations showed a contradictory picture in this respect.

*The first hypothesis according to which the Iranian university coaches have sufficient knowledge regarding their legal duties toward their athletes had to be for the most part rejected.* It turned out that the Iranian university coaches do not have appropriate knowledge regarding five elements of their legal duties toward their athletes (*facilities and equipment, knowledge of player, supervision, medical care and warning of risk*). This means that they hardly have any chances to perform properly perform these duties toward their athletes; consequently their athletes often might be in a risky situation. On the other hand, the Iranian university coaches gave account about sufficient knowledge regarding the elements of their legal duties, namely *matching players* as well as *instruction and training*, so in this context the first hypothesis is justified.

*Based on the results the second hypothesis is accepted.* It was assumed that the Iranian university coaches' age, gender, the level of their education and the field of their study affected their knowledge about legal issues related to sport and the research findings fully supported this supposition. It was found that the older coaches have higher knowledge than the younger coaches regarding their mentioned duties. It was also revealed that the level of the male coaches' knowledge and awareness regarding their legal duties toward their athletes is significantly higher than the female coaches'.

The results showed unambiguously that the level of coaches' education also influenced to their knowledge and awareness about their legal duties toward athletes.

According to the research data, the university coaches whose educational level was the highest had the best knowledge and they were aware the most of their legal duties compared with other coaches. Similarly, it was found that the coaches with PE degree had better knowledge and were more aware of their legal duties than coaches who graduated in other fields of study.

*Based on the results the third hypothesis is also confirmed.* It was assumed that the coaches' championship history, their coaching experiences, the level of their coaching certification and the type of sport (individual or team sport) they are involved in have a significant impact on the level of their knowledge regarding their legal duties toward their athletes. The findings of the investigation discovered that the coaches who had sporting successes at national or international levels reported to have higher knowledge about most elements of their legal duties related to sport than other coaches. Similarly, the coaches with longer coaching experiences stated to have higher knowledge regarding their duties toward their athletes than coaches with shorter experiences. Also, according to the research data, the coaches who worked in individual sports and who had higher level of coaching certification stated to have more knowledge about their legal duties related to sport than coaches who worked in team sports and had lower level of coaching certification.

*Finally, on the basis of the research findings, the fourth hypothesis, according to which the coaches' profession and the quality of their activity are recognized at the universities and in the broader social context, is denied.* This assumption had to be rejected because it turned out that the coaches' profession and their activity are appreciated neither at the universities nor in the society at large. Although the university coaches are the employees of the universities, their colleagues who teach theoretical subject disdain them, and their salary is lower. They are also treated scornfully in the broader society, where their social prestige is low; they are not regarded as university persons but as sporting people with low qualification. By birth many of them came from the lower middle class and in spite of their college or university degrees, relatively few of them were able to upgrade their social status.

## ***8.2 Recommendations***

The detailed analysis of the Iranian case shows that, in the first place, not the coaches themselves but their educational, social and economic circumstances can be blamed for their insufficient knowledge about sport related legal issues. The following recommendations on how to improve some elements of these circumstances and thereby to promote indirectly the coaches' knowledge acquisition can serve as modest contributions to solving this group of problems in university sport.

Since the lack of appropriate training programs offered by the sport federations is one of the major reasons for the deficient knowledge of the Iranian coaches, it could be and probably would be an efficient step to supervise the curricula of the coaching courses in all sports and at all levels, and to complement them by the necessary subjects and topics.

In order to increase the coaches' legal knowledge they should have much more opportunities for learning about it. Special courses, including legal topics, should be offered, and some of them should be compulsory to the coaches. In addition, informal (e.g., interacting with older and peer coaches) and special learning situations (e.g., attending seminars, workshops and courses outside the official systems) should be available to the coaches (Nelson et al., 2006).

It is an axiom, but since in the Iranian training system it is often forgotten, it has to be emphasized that one of the most effective ways of developing the young coaches' knowledge would be a close co-operation with highly experienced, older colleagues, as a kind of mentoring system; this would provide the beginners with opportunities for exchanging information and for learning from the best experts' everyday practice (Mesquita et al., 2010).

Sport newspapers, magazines, radio and television channels could also contribute to the coaches' informal learning in this area if they devoted separate programs to sport related legal issues. The latter is almost totally missing from the Iranian mass media.

Seeing that the lack of it is a serious problem, a clear written policy should be introduced in Iran identifying the coaches' legal duties toward their athletes; their

knowledge about legal issues should be a criterion of their employment, and the existing knowledge should be appreciated both morally and financially.

Until most coaches are underpaid at the universities, their social prestige would not improve; so their salary should be increased but depending on the level of their qualification. In this way they could be motivated to broaden their knowledge also on an individual basis.

## **9. SUMMARY**

### ***9.1 Summary in English***

Risk is an inseparable part of sport. Its total removal from it is not possible; however the number of injuries and death cases can be reduced if the coaches are knowledgeable about their legal liability. The purpose of this thesis is to discuss the coaches' knowledge about their legal duties toward their athletes at the Iranian Universities and to reveal the impact of various demographic and social factors on their knowledge. The thesis is based on a comprehensive empirical research. These issues have never been examined in Iran in their entirety. The theoretical framework was based on the coaches' legal duties categorized in seven major groups by several authors. The method of the research includes survey method and in-depth interviews. The survey method was designed for the population of coaches employed at all public universities in Iran (N=1863) in the 2013 academic year. The method of sampling was gradual. First the universities were selected by random sampling, secondly all coaches employed at the selected universities were invited to participate in the study (n= 322). The answering rate to the questionnaire was 55.9% (n=180). Inferential and descriptive statistics were used for analyzing the data. In-depth interviews were made with coaches from both genders, from all sports practiced at the universities and from all selected universities. (n= 40). The results showed that the system of the coaches' training has a lot of weaknesses in Iran, including the negligence of legal issues, the consequence of which is that the university coaches do not have sufficient knowledge about most elements of the legal issues in general and they are not aware of their duties toward their athletes in particular. It was found that their age, gender, the level and the field of their education, their championship history, their coaching experiences, the level of their coaching certification and the type of sport they are involved in have a significant impact on the level of the university coaches' legal knowledge and behavior. The findings also revealed that coaching is not considered in Iran as a prestigious occupation; the coaches belong to the lower middle class. It is concluded that not the coaches themselves but their educational, social and economic circumstances can be blamed for their insufficient knowledge about and awareness of the legal aspect of the coaching career. Finally, the author made some

recommendations on how to improve the coaches' knowledge and awareness regarding their legal duties toward their athletes.

## ***9.2 Summary in Hungarian (Összefoglalás)***

A kockázat egy elválaszthatatlan része a sportnak, ami teljes mértékben soha nem lesz elkerülhető. Azonban ha az edzők rendelkeznek a megfelelő tudással a balesetek és halálesetek száma redukálható. Ennek a szakdolgozatnak a célja, hogy megvitassa az edzők tudását az őket érintő kötelességekről a sportolóik felé az Iráni Egyetemeken, valamint hogy felfedje a tudásuk különböző demográfiai és társadalmi tényezőinek hatását. A szakdolgozat alapjaként egy átfogó empirikus kutatás szolgál. Ezeket a kérdéseket teljes egészében még soha nem vizsgálták Iránban. Az elméleti keret az edzők kötelességeinek számos szerző által való hét fő csoportba kategorizálásán alapul. A kutatás módszerét a kérdőívek által nyújtott információk és mély- interjúk szolgálták. A kérdőíves eljárás az összes Iránban lévő (N=1863) állami egyetemen foglalkoztatott edzőkre lett tervezve a 2013-as akadémiai évben. A felmérés módszere fokozatos volt. Először az egyetemek kerültek kiválasztásra véletlenszerűen, majd az összes ott dolgozó edző meghívásra került a tanulmányban való részvételre (n= 322). A kérdőív válaszadási aránya 55.9% (n=180) volt. Az adatok inferenciális és leíró statisztikával kerültek kielemezésre. Az edzőkkel készített mély-interjúk alanyai mindkét nemből, az összes egyetemen megtalálható sportból és az összes kiválasztott egyetemből kerültek kiválasztásra (n=40). Az eredmények azt mutatják, hogy az edzők edzés rendszerének több gyenge pontja is van Iránban, beleértve a gondatlanság jogi kérdéseit, a következtetés, amely szerint az egyetemi edzők általában nem rendelkeznek elegendő ismerettel a legtöbb jogi kérdésben és különösen nem ismerik a kötelességeiket az sportolók felé. Ez megtalálható volt minden életkorban, nemből, oktatás szintjében, bajnoki történelemben, annak edzési tapasztalataiban. Fellelhetőek az edzés bizonyítvány szintjében és a sportnak, amit űznek, van egy jelentős hatása az egyetem edzőinek jogi tudásának és viselkedésének szintjére. A kutatások is feltárták, hogy Iránban az edzői munka nem tekinthető nemes foglalkozásnak; az edzők az alsóbb középosztályhoz tartoznak. Ez arra a következtetésre vezet, hogy nem az edzők maguk, de az ő oktatása szociális és gazdasági körülményeik hibáztathatóak a nem megfelelő ismereteikről és tudatosságukról az edzői karrier jogi nézetről. Végül, a dolgozat összefoglal pár ajánlást

azzal kapcsolatban hogyan lehetne fejleszteni az edzők tudását és tudatosságát a jogi kötelességeik tekintetében a sportolókkal kapcsolatban.

## 10. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

*I would like to take this opportunity to express gratitude to those people without whom completion of this study would not have been possible.*

*My husband, Hamid, my deepest love and gratitude is reserved for him. Thank you for putting up with me. This is for you. I love you*

*Prof Foldesine, for her guidance and supports. Thank you for challenging me to do my very best. I believe I am graduating with a new and improved ' college of knowledge ' thanks to you!*

*My supervisor, Prof Andres Nemes, for all his helps. A world of thanks to you. For your support and encouragement.*

*Dr Tamas Doczi, who is one of the intelligent scientists in Semmelweis University. Thank you for all helps.*

*My mother and Father, Manzar and Morteza. Thank you for being my motivation to stick with it and see it through. Thank you for your encouragement and support.*

*And most of all,*

*My God, through Him only could I accomplish anything on this earth and to Him alone do I give the Glory, and Honor, and Praise.*

## 11. REFERENCES

1. Abraham, J. N. (1970) Trainer's Role in High School Athletics. *NY State J Med*, 70, 537-542.
2. Abraham, A., Collins, D. and Martindale, R. (2006) The Coaching Schematic: Validation through Expert Coach Consensus. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 24(6), 549-564.
3. Adams, S. H. (1979) Coaching Certification: The Time is Now. *U.S.S.A. News*, 3, 4, 1-3.
4. Adams, S. H. (1992) Student rights - athlete rights. *The Washington Coach Spring*, 25-26
5. Aiken, T. D. (1994) *Legal, Ethical, and Political Issues in Nursing*. F. A. Davis Company, Philadelphia.
6. Ammon, R. J. R. (1993) *Risk and Game Management Practices in Selected Municipal Football Facilities*. PhD thesis. University of Northern Colorado.
7. Anderson, D. F. and Gill, K. S. (1983) Occupational Socialization Patterns of Men's and Women's Interscholastic Basketball Coaches. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 6, 105-116.
8. Anderson, M. A. and Gray, G. R. (1994) Risk management behaviors in division III athletic programs. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*, 4(1), 78-84.
9. Albrecht, J. M. (2009) *A Determination of Basic First Aid Qualifications and Knowledge Among Youth Sport Coaches in Organized Sport*. PhD thesis. North Dakota State University.
10. Almquist, J., Valovich McLeod, T. C., Cavanna, A., Jenkinson, D., Lincoln, A. E., Loud, K., Peterson, B. C., Portwood, C., Reynolds, J. and Woods, T. S. (2008) Summary Statement: Appropriate Medical Care for the Secondary School-Aged Athlete. *J Athl Train*, 43(4), 416-427.
11. Alonso, J., Anto, J. M. and Moreno, C. (1990) Spanish version of the Nottingham health profile: translation and preliminary validity. *American Journal of Public Health*, 80(6), 704-708.

12. Aaron, T. C. (2004) *Factors Affecting the Performance Level of Risk Management Behaviors of Florida High School Athletic Directors*. PhD thesis. The Florida State University.
13. Asghari, A., Easapour, K., Alavi, S. A. and Poursaleh, A. (2011) Pool Managers' Opinions about Risk Management and Examining Risk Management Practices in Pools. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 7 (5), 796-800.
14. Baley, J. A. and Matthews, D. L. (1984) *Law and liability in athletics, Physical education, and recreation*. Allyn-Bacon, Boston.
15. Ball, P. R. (1980) *Professional Preparation and Certification of Secondary School Coaches: an Analysis of Positions Taken by State Leaders in Related Professional Organization*. PhD thesis. Oklahoma State University.
16. Bodey, K. and Moiseichik, M. (1999) Risk management in collegiate sports: Whose responsibility? *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*, 9(2), 113-119.
17. Barron, M. J. (2004) *The Assessment of First Aid and Injury Prevention Knowledge and the Decision Making of Youth Basketball, Soccer and Football Coaches*. Master thesis. Michigan State University.
18. Barron, M. J., Powell, J. W., Ewing, M. E., Nogle, S. E. and Branta, C. F. (2009) First Aid and Injury Prevention Knowledge of Youth Basketball, Football, and Soccer Coaches. *International Journal of Coaching Science*, 3(1), 55-67.
19. Bell, G. W., Cardinal, R. A. and Dooley, J. N. (1984) Athletic Trainer Manpower Survey of Selected Illinois High Schools. *Athletic Training*, 19, 23- 24.
20. Benari, A. P. (2010) *Analysis of High School Coaches' Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices about Nutrition for Athletes*. PhD thesis. Boston University.
21. Bezdicek, P. W. (2009) *Risk Management Practices in High School Athletic Departments*. Master thesis. University of Wisconsin – La Crosse.
22. Bloom, G. A. and Salmela, J. H. (2000) Personal characteristics of expert team sport coaches. *Journal of Sport Pedagogy*, 6, 56-76.
23. Blomberg, R. (1981) Trainers for high school athletes: Seattle develops a model program. *Physician and Sports Medicine*, 9(11), 113-118.

24. Bloom, G. A., Durand-Bush, N., Schinke, R. J. and Salmela, J. H. (1998) The Importance of Mentoring in the Development of Coaches and Athletes. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 29, 267-281.
25. Bloom, G. A. and Salmela, J. H. (2000) Personal characteristics of expert team sport coaches. *Journal of Sport Pedagogy*, 6, 56-76.
26. Bon, M. (1996) Ženski Rokomet v Sloveniji: Trenutno Stanje in Perspective. (Slovenia: Female Handball in Slovenia – Current State and Perspectives). *Trener Rokomet*, 3(2), 54-60.
27. Borkowski, R. P. (2004) *Coaching Management*. Retrieved from <http://www.momentummedia.com/articles/cm/cm1203/safelandings.htm>  
Downloaded: 2012.04.08.
28. Brown, D. A. and Sawyer, T. H. (1998) Risk Management Study of NCAA Division II Athletic Directors. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*, 8(1), 24-32.
29. Bruya, L. R., Hudson, S., Olsen, H., Thompson, D. and Bruya, L. (2002) *S.A.F.E. Supervision Manual*. Cedar Falls, IA: National Program for Playground Safety.
30. Burden, P. (1990) Teacher development. In Robert Houston W. (ed.) *Handbook of research on teacher education* 311-328. New York: Macmillan.
31. Burnstein, B. A. (2011) *An Assessment of Medical Care Provided by Nevada's High School Athletic Programs*. PhD Thesis. University of Nevada.
32. Business Dictionary. Retrieved from <http://www.businessdictionary.com/>, 2012.2.6.
33. Cadkin, J. (2008) Sports Official Liability: Can I Sue if the REF Missed a call? *Sports And Entertainment Law Journal*, 5, 51-63.
34. Calvert, R. J. (1979) *Athletic Injuries and Deaths in Secondary Schools and Colleges. A Report on the Survey Mandated by Section 826 of Public Law 93-380*. National Center for Education Statistics (DHEW), Washington, DC.
35. Carpenter, L.J. (1995). Legal concepts in sport: A primer. *Reston, VA: American*
36. *Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD)*, 40-45.

37. Carpenter, L. J. (2008) *Legal Concepts in Sport: A Primer* (3<sup>th</sup> ed.) Sagamore Publishing LLC, United States.
38. Carter, A. D. and Bloom, G. A. (2009) Coaching Knowledge and Success: Going Beyond Athletic Experiences. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 32(4), 419-437.
39. Carter, A. F. and Muller, R. (2008) A Survey of Injury Knowledge and Technical Needs of Junior Rugby Union Coaches in Townsville (North Queensland). *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*, 11 (2008), 167-173.
40. Castro, L. (2010) *Assessment of First Aid Knowledge and Decision Making of Coaches of Youth Soccer*. Master thesis. San Jose State University.
41. Chapin Metz, H. (1989) *Iran: A Country Study* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.) Kessinger Publishing, Washington.
42. Citron, J. A. and Ableman, M. (2003) Civil liability in the arena of professional sports. *UBC Law Review*, 36(2), 193-230.
43. Clear, D. K. and Bagley, M. (1983) Coaching athletics: A tort just waiting for a judgment. *Scholastic Coach*, 53 (11), 68-69.
44. Clement, A. (1988) *Law in Sport and Physical Activity*. Brown & Benchmark Pub, United state.
45. Clickard, D. (1991) Sports Medicine: Prevention, Care of Athletic Injuries Begins with Athletes, Coaches and Parents. *Interscholastic Athletic Administration*, 17(4), 14-17.
46. Cooney, M., Coleman, F. and Flynn, A. (2000) A Study of the Knowledge that School Rugby Coaches Have in the Management and Prevention of Serious Neck Injury. *Ir Med J*, 93(6), 171-4.
47. Corso, M. E. (1992) *Coaches' Perceptions of the Knowledge, Skills, and Experiences Necessary to Fulfill Their Coaching Role*. PhD thesis. University of Northern Colorado, .
48. Cotton, D. J., Wolohan, J. T. and Wilde, T. J. (2001) *Law for Recreation and Sport Managers*. Kendall/Hunt Publishing, Dubuque.

49. Cregan, K., Bloom, Q. A. and Reid, G. (2007) Career Evolution and Knowledge of Elite Coaches of Swimmers with a Physical Disability. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 75, 339-350.
50. Culpepper, M. I. (1986) The Availability and Delivery of Health Care to High School Athletes in Alabama. *Physician and Sport Medicine*, 14 (1), 131-137.
51. Cunningham, R. J. (2001) *Perceptions of Coaches in Small Colleges Regarding Sport Law and Sport Injury*. PhD thesis. University of North Dakota.
52. Cunningham, A. (2002) An Audit of First aid Qualifications and Knowledge among Team Officials in two English Youth Football Leagues: A Preliminary Study. *British Journal of Sports Medicine*, 36(4), 295-299.
53. Cushion, C. J., Armour, K. M. and Jones, R. L. (2003) Coach Education and continuing professional development: Experience and learning to coach. *Quest*, 55, 215-230.
54. Demers, G., Woodburn, A. J. and Savard, C. (2006) The Development of an Undergraduate Competency-Based Coach Education Program. *Sport Psychologist*, 20(2), 162-173.
55. Dimitriadi, A. and Dimitriadi, S. (2007) A Conceptual Model of Risk Management and its Importance for Sport and Leisure. *Sport Management International Journal*, 3 (1), 19-26.
56. Dubois, P. E. (1981) The youth sport coach as an agent of socialization: An exploratory study. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 4(2), 95-107.
57. Dubois, P. (1990) Gender Differences in Value Orientation towards Sports: A Longitudinal Analysis. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 13(1): 3-14.
58. Doleschal, J. K. (2006) Managing Risk in Interscholastic Athletic Programs: 14 Legal Duties of Care. *Marquette Sports Law Review*, 17(1), 295- 339.

59. Dougherty, N. J., Goldberger, A. S. and Carpenter, L. J. (2007) *Sport, Physical Activity, and the Law* (3<sup>th</sup>ed.) Sagamore Publishing, LLC, United States.
60. Duffy, P. (2008) Implementation of the Bologna Process and Model Curriculum Development in Coaching. In Petry K., Froberg K., Madella A. and Tokarsky W. (eds.) *Higher Education in Sport in Europe. From labour market demand to training supply*. Meyer & Meyer Sport, Maidenhead. 80-108.
61. Dunn, L. R. (1995) *Assessment of First aid Knowledge and Decision Making of High School Coaches*. Master thesis. San Jose State University.
62. Erickson, K., Côté, J. and Fraser-Thomas, J. (2007) The sport experiences, milestones, and educational activities associated with the development of high-performance coaches. *The Sport Psychologist*, 21, 302-316.
63. Fast, K. S. (2004) *Sport Liability Law: A Guide For Amateur Sports Organizations And Their Insurers*. Dolden Wallace Folick LLP, Vancouver.
64. Faure, C. E. and Pemberton, C. L. A. (2011) An Examination of Idaho High School Football Coaches' General Understanding of Concussion. *The Sport Journal*, 14(1).
65. Feiner, S. (1997) The Personal Liability of Sports Officials: Don't Take the Game Into Your Own Hands, Take Them to Court. *Sport Lawyers Journal*, 4 (1), 213-229.
66. Figone, A. J. (1989) Seven Major Legal Duties of a Coach. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 60(7). 71-75.
67. Flint, F. A. and Weiss, W. R. (1992) Returning Injured Athletes to Competition: A Role and Ethical Dilemma. *Canadian Journal of Sports Science*, 17(1), 34-40.
68. Gallup, E. M. (1995) *Law and the Team Physician*. Human Kinetics, Champaign, United State.
69. Gaskin, L. (2003) Supervision of Participants. In: Cotton D. J. and Wolohan J. T. (eds.), *Law for Recreation and Sport Managers* (3<sup>th</sup>ed.) IA: Kendall/Hunt, Dubuque. 138-148.
70. Gilbert, W. D. and Trudel, P. (2001) Learning to Coach through Experience: Reflection in Model Youth Sport Coaches. *Journal of teaching in physical education*, 21, 26-34.

71. Gilbert, W. D. and Trudel, P. (2004) Analysis of coaching science research published from 1970-2001. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 75(4), 388-399.
72. Gilbert, W. D. and Trudel, P. (2005) Learning to coach through experience: Conditions that influence reflection. *The Physical Educator*, 62, 32-43.
73. Gould, T. and Deivert, R. (2003) Secondary School Administrators' Knowledge and Perceptions of Athletic Trainers. *Athletic Therapy Today*, 8(1), 57-62.
74. Gray, G. R. (1995) Risk management behaviors of high school principals in the supervision of their high school physical education and athletic programs. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*, 5(1), 52-59.
75. Gray, G. R. and Crowell, S. E. (1993) Risk Management Behaviors in NCAA Division I Athletic Programs. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*, 3(2), 64-70.
76. Gray, G. R. and Curtis, P. (1991) Risk management behaviors of soccer coaches at three levels of varsity competition. *Applied Research in Coaching and Athletics Annual*, 6, 149-164.
77. Gray, G. R. and McKinstrey, J. P. (1994) Risk Management Behaviors of NCAA Division III Head Football Coaches. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*, 4, 63-71.
78. Gray, G. R. and Park, S. R. (1991) Risk Management Behaviors among Iowa High School Athletic Directors. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*, 1, 57-65.
79. Gurchiek, L. R., Holbrook, J. E. and Erdmann, J. W. (1998) The Role of Today's Coach in the Prevention and Care of Athletic Injuries. *Kentucky Association of Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance Journal*, 34(1), 36-38.
80. Guskiewicz, K. M. and Pachman, S. E. (2010) Management of Sport-Related Brain Injuries: Preventing Poor Outcomes and Minimizing the Risk for Legal Liabilities. *Athletic Training & Sports Health Care*, 2 (6), 248-252.
81. Hage, P. and Moore, M. (1981) Medical Care for Athletes: What is the Coach's Role, *The Physician and Sports medicine*, 9(5), 140-151.
82. Haines, A. (1984) Principles of emergency care. *Athletic Journal*, 64 (4), 8-10.
83. Hall, R. G. and Kanoy, R. W. (1993) A Survey of Selected North Carolina High Schools: Liability of Coaches/Trainers. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*, 3(2), 44-49.

84. Hart, B., Hasbrook, C. and Mathes, S. (1986) An Examination of the Reduction in the Number of Female Interscholastic Coaches. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 57, 68-77.
85. Henderson, D. H. (1987) Negligent liability suits emanating from the failure to provide adequate supervision: a critical issue for teachers and school boards. *Journal of Law and Education*, 16, 435-440.
86. Hensch, L. P. (2006) Legal Issues for Coaches. *Soccer Journal*, 51(7), 14-15.
87. Hoch, D. (1985) What is Sports Law? Some Introductory Remarks and Suggested Parameters for a Growing Phenomenon. *Quest*, 37, 60-70.
88. Hronek, B. B. and Spengler, J. O. (2002) *Legal Liability in Recreation and Sports*. Sagamore Publishing, LLC, United State.
89. Hurst, T. R. and Knight, J. N. (2003) Coaches' Liability for Athletes' Injuries and Deaths. *Seton Hall Journal of Sport Law*, 13, 27-52.
90. Irwin, G., Hanton, S. and Kerwin, D. G. (2004) Reflective practice and the origins of elite coaching knowledge. *Reflective Practice*, 5(3), 425-442.
91. Johnson, M. V. M. and Easter, B. A. (2007) Legal Liability for Cheerleading Injuries: Implications for Universities and Coaches. *Journal of legal aspects of sport*, 17(2), 213-252.
92. Johnson, T. (2008) *Knowledge and Attitudes Regarding the Menstrual Cycle, Oral Contraceptives, and Sport PORT Performance: the Conceptualization and Development of a Questionnaire for Athletic Coaches*. PhD thesis. Florida State University.
93. Jones, M. E. (1999) *Sports Law*. Prentice Hall, Saddle River, N J, United State.
94. Jones, D. F., Housner, L. D. and Kornspan, A. S. (1997) Interactive Decision Making and Behavior of Experienced and Inexperienced Basketball Coaches During Practice. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 16(4), 454-468.
95. Jones, R. L., Armour, K. M. and Potrac, P. (2004) *Sports coaching cultures: from practice to theory*. Routledge, London.
96. Kajtna, T. (2008) Demographic Characteristics of Slovene Female Coaches. *Kinesiologia Slovenica*, 14(2), 75-83.

97. Karns, J. E. (1986) *Negligence on the Playing Field: Determining the Scope of Legal Liability*. Bureau of Business and Economic Research, University of North Dakota.
98. Kenny, J. (1987) Athletic injury care training in high school coaches. *Canadian Journal of Allied Health Physical Education and Recreation*, 53(2), 14-20.
99. Khan, A. N. (1999) Liability of Teachers and Schools for Negligence in England. *Journal of Law & Education*, 20(4), 537-551.
100. Kimiecik, J. C. (1988) Who Needs Coaches' Education? US Coach do. *The Physician and Sports Medicine*, 16(11), 124-136.
101. Kordi, R., Akbarnejad, A. and Wallace, A. W. (2010) Catastrophic Injuries in the Olympic Styles of Wrestling in Iran. *Br J Sports Med*, 44, 168–174.
102. Krečič, U. (2002) *Ženske v Trenerstvu in na Vodilnih Položajih v športu - Diplomsko Delo* (Females as Coaches and Sport Directors). Ljubljana: Univerza v Ljubljani, Fakulteta za šport.
103. Labuschagne, J. M. T. and Skea, J. M. (1999) Liability of a Coach for a Sport Participant's injury. *Stellenbosch Law Review*, 10(2), 158-183.
104. Lester, R. A. (1985) The coach as codefendant: Football in the 1980's. In Appenzeller H. (Ed.) *Sport and law: Contemporary issues*. Michie Co, Charlottesville, VA. 108-114.
105. Leverenz, L. J. (1989) *An Analysis of Case Law Which Affects Athletic Training Education*. PhD thesis. University of Iowa.
106. Lewis, G. and Appenzeller, H. (1985) *Successful Sport Management*. Charlottesville, Michie.
107. Lhotsky, G. J. (2005) *An Analysis of Risk Management at NCAA Division 1-A Football Stadiums*. PhD Thesis. Florida State University.
108. Lindaman, L. M. (1991) Physician Care for Interscholastic Athletes in Michigan. *American Journal of Sports Medicine*, 19, 82-87.
109. Mathews, E. and Esterson, P. (1983) Sports Medicine in Northern Virginia High Schools. *Athletic Training*, 18, 181-182.
110. McCaskey, A. S. and Biedzynski, K. W. (1996) A Guide to the Legal Liability of Coaches for a Sports Participant's Injuries. *Seton Hall Journal of Sport Law*, 6, 7- 125.

111. McGirt, M. D. (1999) Do Universities Have a Special Duty of Care to Protect Student-Athletes from Injury? *Villanova Sports & Entertainment Law Journal*, 6, 219- 241.
112. McGrath, B. T. (2012) *Sudden Death in Sport at the Secondary School Level: A Perspective of the Head Football Coach*. Master thesis. University of Connecticut.
113. McGreevy, M. (1980) Litigation and the coach. *Scholastic Coach*, 50(4), 6-10.
114. Mesquita, I., Borges, M., Rosado, A. and De Souza, A. (2011) Handball Coaches' Perceptions about the Value of Working Competences According to their Coaching Background. *Journal of Sports Science and Medicine*, 10, 193-202.
115. Mesquita, I., Isidro, S. and Rosado, A. (2010) Portuguese Coaches' Perceptions of and Preferences for Knowledge Sources Related to their Professional Background. *Journal of Sports Science Medicine*, 9, 480-489.
116. Mickle, A. (2001) *Athletic Training Risk Management: Developing Policy and Procedure from Case Law Analysis*. PhD thesis. New Mexico State University.
117. Millard, L. (1990) *A study of overt coaching behaviors of high school soccer and volleyball coaches*. Unpublished manuscript. Springfield College, Springfield, MA.
118. Millard, L. (1996) Differences in Coaching Behaviors of Male and Female High School Soccer Coaches. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 19(1), 19-31.
119. Mirsafian, H., Dóczy, T. and Mohamadinejad, A. (2013) Attitude of Iranian Female University Students to Sport and Exercise. *Iranian Studies*, 46(6), 1-16. doi: 10.1080/00210862.2013.823790.
120. Nadeau, S. R. (1995) *The Legal Aspects of Rights of the Student Athletes, Coaches and Administrators at the Collegiate Level*. PhD Thesis. University of Bridgeport.
121. Nasri, S. and Vayez Mosavi, M. K. (2006) Baresi Salamte Ravani Va Keifiate Zendegi Morabian Dar Keshvar (Iran: study of Mental health and quality of life of coaches in country). *Research in Sport Science*, 13, 51-79.
122. Nelson, L. J., Cushion, C. J. and Potrac, P. (2006) Formal, Non-Formal and Informal Coach Learning: A Holistic Conceptualization. *International Journal of Sport Science and Coaching*, 1(3), 247-259.

123. Newell, B. (2007) *The Relationship of Coaches' Leadership Styles and Gender to Performance Outcomes and Academic Performance in College Basketball*. Master thesis. The Faculty of Humboldt State University.
124. Newsom, G. and Dent, E. B. (2011) A Work Behaviour Analysis of Executive Coaches. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 9 (2), 1-22.
125. Nygaard, G. and Boone, T.H. (1985) *Coaches Guide to Sport Law*. Human Kinetics, United State.
126. O'Donoghue, E. M., Onate, J. A., Van Lunen, B. and Peterson, C. L. (2009) Assessment of High School Coaches' Knowledge of Sport-Related Concussions. *Athletic Training & Sports Health Care*, 1(3), 120-132.
127. Olsen, H. and Kowalski, Ch. L. (2010) Enhancing Program Quality and Care through Supervision. *Afterschool Matters*, Special Issue, 37-43.
128. Orr, B., Brown, C., Hemsing, J., McCormick, T., Pound, S., Otto, D., Emery, C. A. and Beaupre, L. A. (2011) Female Soccer Knee Injury: Observed Knowledge Gaps in Injury Prevention Among Players/Parents/Coaches and Current Evidence (the Know Study). *Scand J Med Sci Sports*, 1-10.
129. Osborne, B. (2001) Principles of Liability for Athletic Trainers: Managing Sport-Related Concussion. *Journal of Athletic Training*, 36(3), 316-321.
130. Paiement, C. A. and Payment, M. P. (2011) Event Management for Teacher-Coaches: Risk and Supervision Considerations for School-Based Sports. *Strategies*, 24(5), 35-37.
131. Perdeu, C. L. (2001) *Coaches' knowledge of basic injury management*. Master thesis, San Jose State University.
132. Pittman, A. T. (1992) The interaction of sport and law: Where has it been, where is it now, and where is it going? *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport*, 2(2), 64-75.
133. Porter, M., Noble, H. B., Bachman, D. C. and Hoover, R. L. (1980) Sports Medicine Care in Chicago Area High Schools. *Physician and Sport Medicine*, 8(2), 95-99.
134. Ramezaninejad, R., Rahmaninia, F. and Taghavi, S. A. (2010) Baresi vaziat ejtemai eghtesadi va angizesh sherkat konandegan dar varzeshhai hamegani (Iran: A Study of

- Socioeconomic Status And Motives of Participants In Sport for All). *Sport Management*, 1(2), 5-19.
135. Ransone, J. and, Dunn-Bennett, L. R. (1999) Assessment of First-Aid Knowledge and Decision Making of High School Athletic Coaches. *Journal of Athletic Training*, 34(3), 267-271.
136. Reade, I., Rodgers, W. and, Norman, L. (2009) The Under-Representation of Women in Coaching: A Comparison of Male and Female Canadian Coaches at Low and High Levels of Coaching. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 4(4), 505-520.
137. Redfearn, R. W. (1980) Emergency Medical Skills in High School Coaches. *The Physician and Sports medicine*, 8(11), 115-116.
138. Rowe, P. J. and Miller, L. K. (1991) Treating High School Sports Injuries: Are Coaches/Trainers Competent? *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 62(1), 49-54.
139. Rowe, P. J. and Robertson, D. M. (1986) Knowledge of Care and Prevention of Athletic Injuries in High Schools. *Journal of Athletic Training*, 22, 116-119.
140. Sailor, J. and Township, C. (2007) Sport, Physical Activity, and the Law. In Dougherty N. J., Goldberger A. S. and Carpenter L. J. (eds.) *Sport, Physical Activity, and the Law* (3<sup>th</sup> ed.) Sagemore, LLC, United State.
141. Salmela, J. (1994) Learning from the development of expert coaches. *Journal of Coaching and Sport Science*, 1, 1-11.
142. Santosa, S. F. M., Mesquita, I. M. R., Graca, A. B. S. and Rosado, A. F. B. (2010) What Coaches Value about Coaching Knowledge: A Comparative Study Across a Range of Domains. *International Journal of Applied Sports Sciences*, 22(2), 96-112.
143. Sawyer, T. H. (1998) Legal issues in coaching. In Seefeldt V. and Clark M. A. (Eds.) *Program for Coaches' Education* (3<sup>th</sup> ed) MI: Cooper, Traverse City, 298-310.
144. Schempp, P. (1993) Constructing Professional Knowledge: A Case Study of an Experienced High School Teacher. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 13(1), 2-23.

145. Schinke, R. J., Bloom, G. A. and Sahnala, J. H. (1995) The Career Stages of Elite Canadian Basketball Coaches. *Avante*, 1(1), 48-62.
146. Schot, N. (2005) Negligent Liability in Sport. *Sports Law E Journal*, 2, 1-14.
147. Schubert, G. W., Smith, R. K. and Trentadue, J. C. (1986) *Sports Law*. West Publishing Company, New York.
148. Schwarz, T. C. (1996) *Coaches and Liability: Preventing Litigation through the Legal Duties of Coaches*. PhD thesis. Washington State University.
149. Sherman, B. (1985) A new approach to athletic training in southern Wisconsin high schools. *The Physician and Sportsmedicine*, 13 (1), 57-64.
150. Sherman, M. and Hassan, J. (1986) Behavioral Studies of Youth Sport Coaches. In Piéron M. and Graham G. (Eds.) *The 1984 Olympic Scientific Congress Proceedings Sport Pedagogy*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 103-108.
151. Singh, C. and Surujlal, J. (2010) Risk Management Practices of High School Sport Coaches and Administrators. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*, 32(1) 107-119.
152. Stapleton, K. L., Tomlinson, C. M., Shepard, K. F. and Coon, V. A. (1984) High School Coaches' Perceptions of Their Responsibilities in Managing Their Athletes' Injuries. *Journal of Orthopedic and Sports Physical Therapy*, 5, 253-260.
153. Staurowsky, E. J. and Weight, E. A. (2011) Title IX Literacy: What Coaches Don't Know and Need to Find Out. *Journal of Intercollegiate Sport*, 4, 190-209.
154. Sullivan, E. J. and Decker, P. J. (2005) *Effective Leadership and Management in Nursing*. Pearson/Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ, United State.
155. Tappen, R. M., Weiss, S. A. and Whitehead, D. K. (1998) *Essentials of Nursing Leadership and Management*. F.A. Davis, Philadelphia.
156. Vallée, C. N. and Bloom, G. A. (2005) Building a successful program: Perspectives of Expert Canadian female coaches of team sports. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 17,179-196.
157. Valvovich-McLeod, T. C., McGaugh, J.W., Boquiren, M. L. and Bay, R. C. (2008) Youth Sports Coaches do not have Adequate Knowledge Regarding First-Aid and Injury Prevention. *Applied Research in Coaching and Athletics*, 23, 130-145.

158. Van der Smissen, B. (1990) *Legal Liability and Risk Management for Public and Private Entities*. Anderson Publishing, Cincinnati, United State.
159. Van der Smissen, B. (2001) Elements of Negligence. In Cotton D. J., Wolohan, J. T. and Wilde, T. J. (eds.) *Law for Recreation and Sport Managers*. Kendall/Hunt Publishing, Dubuque.
160. Wenham, D. G. (1994) Health and Safety in Further Education: Why Should it be Managed? *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 18(2), 94-101.
161. Wenham, D. (1999) Civil Liability of Schools, Teachers and Pupils for Careless Behaviour, Educational Management and Administration. *Educational Management & Administration*, 27(4), 365-374.
162. Werthner, P. and Trudel, P. (2006) A new theoretical perspective for understanding how coaches learn to coach. *The Sport Psychologist*, 20, 198-212.
163. Wham, G. S., Saunders, R. P. and Mensch, J. M. (2010) Key Factors for Providing Appropriate Medical Care in Secondary School Athletics: Athletic Training Services and Budget. *Journal of Athletic Training*, 45(1), 75-86.
164. Wiedner, T. G. (1989) Injuries: Are Coaches Prepared? *Journal of Physician Education, Recreation and Dance*, 60(2), 82-84.
165. Williams, Y. (2003) Government sponsored professional sports coaches and the need for better child protection. *Entertainment Law*, 2(1), 55-84.
166. Wright, T., Trudel, P. and Culver, D. (2007) Learning how to coach: the different learning situations reported by youth ice hockey coaches. *Physical Education & Sport Pedagogy*, 12(2), 127-144.
167. Wong, G. M. (2010) *Essentials of Sports Law* (4<sup>th</sup> ed) PRAEGER, United States.
168. Wolohan, J. T. and Gray, G. R. (1998) Risk management behaviors of collegiate ice hockey coaches. *Journal of Legal Aspect of Sport*, 8(1), 35-38.
169. Zimmerman, E. P. (2007) *Risk Management Practices of Collegiate Athletic Trainers: An Examination of Policies and Procedures*. PhD thesis. Marshall University.
170. Hamshahri Online. (2013) <http://www.hamshahrionline.ir/details/180240>
171. IRNA.ir. (2013)  
<http://www3.bandarabbas.irna.ir/fa/News/80499957/%D9%88%D8%B1%D8%B2%D>

8%B4%DB%8C/70\_%D8%AF%D8%B1%D8%B5%D8%AF\_%D9%85%D8%B1%D8%A8%DB%8C%D8%A7%D9%86\_%D9%88%D8%B1%D8%B2%D8%B4%DB%8C\_%D8%A7%D8%B3%D8%AA%D8%A7%D9%86\_%DA%A9%D8%B1%D9%85%D8%A7%D9%86\_%D8%B1%D8%B4%D8%AA%D9%87\_%D8%AA%D8%AD%D8%B5%DB%8C%D9%84%DB%8C\_%D8%BA%DB%8C%D8%B1\_%D9%85%D8%B1%D8%AA%D8%A8%D8%B7\_%D8%AF%D8%A7%D8%B1%D9%86%D8%AF

172. ISNA.ir. (2013)

<http://isna.ir/fa/news/91102514232/%D8%A2%DB%8C%DB%8C%D9%86-%D9%86%D8%A7%D9%85%D9%87-%D9%82%D8%B1%D8%A7%D8%B1%D8%AF%D8%A7%D8%AF%D9%87%D8%A7-%D8%AF%D8%B1-%D9%81%D9%88%D8%AA%D8%A8%D8%A7%D9%84-%D8%A7%DB%8C%D8%B1%D8%A7%D9%86-%DA%86%D8%B1%D8%A7%D8%BA>

173. Jamejamonline. (2013)

<http://www.jamejamonline.ir/NewsPreview/920755834132290131>

174. Mehr News. (2013a) <http://khabarfarsi.com/ext/152032>

175. Mehr News. (2013b) <http://www.mehrnews.com/detail/News/2198144>

176. Mehr News. (2013c) <http://www.mehrnews.com/detail/News/1764604>

177. The Ministry of Sport and Youth. (2012)

178. <http://www.esfahansport.ir/Packages/PageMaker/ShowPage.aspx?24219hL067T145136205266LT4202159133457T143L708G32c12658>

## 12. LIST OF THE AUTHOR'S PUBLICATIONS

### PUBLICATIONS RELATED TO THE TOPIC OF THE THESIS

- **Mohamadinejad A.**, Mirsafian, H (2014). Connection between the Legal Knowledge and Social Background of Sports Coaches at Iranian Universities, *Iranian Studies*. DOI: 10.1080/00210862.2014.894746
- **Mohamadinejad, A.**, Mirsafian, H. and Kiraly, I. (2013) Az edző és a sportoló közötti jogi felelősség (Hungary: Legal Relationship between Coach and Athlete). *Magyar Sporttudományi Szemle*, 14(3), 4-8.
- **Mohamadinejad, A.** and Mirsafian, H. (2013) Sources of Knowledge Acquisition of Coaches: A Review of Literature. *Studia Universitatis Educatio Artis*, 3, 37-44.
- **Mohamadinejad, A.**, Mirsafian, H., Nemes, A. and Soltanhoseini, M. (2012) Assumption of Risk and Consent Doctrine in Sport. *Physical Culture and Sport Studies and Research*, 1, 1-9. DOI: 10.2478/v10141-012-0012-5
- **Mohamadinejad, A.**, Mirsafian, H. and Soltanhoseini, M. (2012) Civil Liability of Referees in the Sport Competitions. *Journal of Human Sport and Exercise*, 7, 24-34. DOI: 10.4100/jhse.2012.7.Proc1.04
- **Mohamadinejad, A.**, Mirsafian, H. and Nemes, A. (2012) Iranian Regulation Regarding Sport Accidents. *International Sports Law Review Journal*, 9(3), 293-405.

### OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- Mirsafian, H., Doczi, T. and **Mohamadinejad, A.** (2013). Attitude of Iranian Female University Students to Sports and Exercise. *Iranian Studies*. DOI: 10.1080/00210862.2013.823790
- Mirsafian, H., **Mohamadinejad, A.**, Homaie, R. and Hédi, C. (2013) Motivation of Iranian University Students for Participation in Sporting Activities. *Physical Culture and Sport Studies and Research*, 59, 42-48.

- Mirsafian, H. and **Mohamadinejad, A.** (2013) Motivations and Perceived Constraints toward People's Participation in Physical Activities and Sports: A Review of Qualitative Studies. *Studia Universitatis Educatio Artis*, 3, 45-56.
- Mirsafian, H., **Mohamadinejad, A.** and Bardocz, M. (2013) Szabadidő-sportolók néhány demográfiai és szociológiai jellemzője egy iráni nagyvárosban (Hungary: Study on the Socio Economic Situation (SES) of Participants in the Public Sports at One of the Large Cities of Iran). *Magyar Sporttudományi Szemle*, 14(3), 27-32.
- Mirsafian, H. and **Mohamadinejad, A.** (2012) Sport Volunteerism: A Study on Volunteering Motivations in University Students. *Journal of Human Sport and Exercise*, 7, 73-84.
- Mirsafian, H. and **Mohamadinejad, A.** (2011) Overview of University Sport in Iran. *Physical Culture and Sport Studies and Research*, 52, 61-68.

## 13. APPENDICIES

### 13.1 Appendix A: Questionnaire in English

**Dear Coach,**

Please read this questionnaire carefully and answer to questions. Your honest answers help to the sport responsible to make more effective decisions for coaching educational programs in future.

Thanks for your cooperation.

• **Gender:**

Male  Female

• **Age:**

Younger Than 30 Years  30-40  40-50  Older Than 50

• **Study Field:**

Physical Education and Sport Sciences  Other study Fields

• **Level of Education:**

Diploma  Bachelor  Master  PhD

• **How Many Years Do You Have Coaching Experience?**

Lower Than 5 Years  5-10 Years  Higher Than 10 Years

• **What Your Coaching Certification Level Is?**

Level I  Level II  Level III

**• Do You Have Championship History in National or International Level?**

Yes

No

**• Do You Have First Aid Certification?**

Yes

No

**• Please Write the Name of Sport That You Coach. .... .**

<b>Which of The Following Statements Are Considered As Coach's Legal Duty Toward His/Her Athletes?</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>
1. A coach has a duty to completely present during practice and contests.					
2. A coach has a duty to assign a competent supervisor to supervise practice and contest when s/he absent.					
3. A coach has a duty to see that the efforts of athletes are coordinated with the instruction.					
4. A coach should not leave the athletes during the practice and contests, even if there is necessary.					
5. A coach has a duty to provide proper supervision in locker rooms or other related settings.					
6. A coach has a duty to exercise proper supervision to transporting athlete to contest or practice.					
7. A coach should realize the legal implication of giving athlete food or dietary supplement.					
8. A coach has a duty to have specific plan for whole season and each training section.					
9. A coach has a duty to explains to each athlete the necessary rules and regulation of the sport.					
10. A coach has a duty to explain to each athlete all of the up to date techniques and tactics of the sport.					
11. A coach has a duty to correct athlete's mistakes.					
12. A coach has a duty to teach athletes procedures and methods to reduce the risk of injury to themselves and other participants.					
13. A coach has a duty to train participant what to do, and what not to do when an injury occur.					
14. A coach has a duty to practice drills sequenced in order of complexity.					
15. A coach has a duty to instruct athlete's the proper use of equipment.					
16. A coach has a duty to know about the standard of sport equipment used in contests or practice.					
17. A coach has a duty know about the safety of sport equipment used in contests or practice.					
18. A coach has a duty to inspect player's equipment in practice and contest					

19- A coach has a duty to inspect physical indoor facilities, outdoor playing facilities and assessment of weather condition.					
20. A coach has a duty to prevent athlete to use unsafe equipments and facilities.					
21. A coach has a duty to consider to "Natural hazards" around playing fields.					
22. A coach has a duty to modify activities if the facilities and equipment are not prepared.					
23. A coach has a duty to be sure that the first aid kits are available at all practices and contests.					
24. A coach should be able to recognize symptoms that indicate injuries.					
25. A coach has a duty to know when to apply first aid and when to seek medical aid.					
26. A coach has a duty to prevent athlete return to play if his injury is severe.					
27. A coach has a duty to refrain from actions that might aggravate an injury.					
28. A coach has a duty to render assistance before the medical personnel arrive.					
29. A coach has a duty to exercise reasonable care in sending an injured athlete for medical treatment.					
30. A coach has a duty to know about the athlete's medical history.					
31. A coach has a duty to keep accurate records of injuries occurring during practices and contests.					
32. A coach has a duty to record all medical treatment given to athletes.					
33. A coach has a duty to know about the player's physical condition.					
34. A coach has a duty to determine a starting point for each athlete based on his readiness and skill.					
35. A coach should be sure that his/her athletes are ready physically to safety training and competition.					
36. A coach has a duty to ensure that annual physical exam is done.					
37. A coach has a duty to organized activities according to age and maturity of players.					
38. A coach has a duty to organized activities according to, size, height and weight of players.					

39. A coach has a duty to organized activities according to strength and skill or fitness level of players.					
40. A coach has a duty to perform the proper matching in both non-contact and contact sport.					
41. A coach should know that the proper matching is necessary in group contact as well as individual contact.					
42. A coach has a duty to perform the proper matching in both practice and contest.					
43. A coach has a duty to warn certain dangers about the nature of the activity.					
44. A coach has a duty to explain clearly to athletes the inherent risks in practice.					
45. A coach has a duty to explain clearly to athletes the inherent risks in competition.					
46. A coach has a duty to warn certain dangers about the use of equipment.					
47. A coach has a duty to warn certain dangers about playing surface.					
48. A coach has a duty to warn certain dangers about technique involved in the activity.					

## 13.2 Appendix B: Questionnaire in Persian

• مربی گرامی:

خواهشمند است با کمال دقت سوالات مذکور را مطالعه کرده و پاسخ دهید . پاسخ صادقانه شما موجب می گردد تا مسولین ورزش کشور اقدامات منطقی تری را برای برنامه ریزی کلاس های مربیگری انجام دهند.  
از همکاری شما سپاسگذارم.

• جنسیت:

مذکر  مونث

• سن:

کمتر از ۳۰ سال  ۳۰-۴۰ سال  ۴۰-۵۰ سال  بالاتر از ۵۰ سال

• رشته تحصیلی:

تربیت بدنی  دیگر رشته ها

• مدرک تحصیلی:

دیپلم  کارشناسی  کارشناسی ارشد  دکتری

• چند سال تجربه مربیگری دارید؟

کمتر از پنج سال  ۵-۱۰ سال  بیشتر از ۱۰ سال

• درجه کارت مربیگری شما چیست؟

درجه یک  درجه دو  درجه سه

• آیا در رقابت های ملی و یا بین المللی تاکنون موفق به کسب مقام شده اید؟

بله  خیر

• آیا کارت کمکهای اولیه دارید؟

بله  خیر

• لطفا نام رشته ورزشی خود را بنویسید. ....

کاملا مخالفم	مخالفم	نظری ندارم	موافقم	کاملا موافقم	کدامیک از موارد زیر جزو وظایف حقوقی مربی محسوب میشود؟
					۱. مربی موظف است در تمام طول زمان تمرین و مسابقه در کنار ورزشکار حضور داشته باشد
					۲. مربی موظف است در زمان غیبت خود در تمرین و مسابقه جایگزینی مناسب بجای خود قرار دهد
					۳. مربی وظیفه دارد که بر کلیه تمرینات ورزشکاران در راستای هماهنگی آنها بر اساس دستورالعمل مربوطه نظارت داشته باشد
					۴. مربی نباید ورزشکاران را در حین انجام تمرین یا مسابقه ترک کند اگر چه ضروری باشد
					۵. مربی وظیفه دارد که بر فعالیت های ورزشکاران در رختکن و یا سایر امکان مرتبط با ورزشکاران نظارت داشته باشد
					۶. مربی موظف است در زمان انتقال ورزشکاران به مکان مسابقه یا تمرین نظارت لازم را اعمال نماید
					۷. مربی وظیفه دارد که بر تغذیه و مکملهای غذایی مورد استفاده ورزشکاران نظارت داشته باشد
					۸. مربی وظیفه دارد که برنامه مشخصی برای تمام فصل ، و هر یک از جلسات تمرین داشته باشد
					۹. مربی موظف است قوانین و مقررات ضروری در ورزش را برای همه ورزشکاران توضیح دهد.
					۱۰. مربی موظف است تمام تکنیکها و تاکتیکهای جدید را به ورزشکاران آموزش دهد
					۱۱. مربی موظف است اشتباهات فنی ورزشکاران را اصلاح کند
					۱۲. مربی موظف است روشهای کاهش ورود آسیب به ورزشکار و دیگر شرکت کنندگان را به ورزشکاران آموزش دهد .
					۱۳. مربی وظیفه دارد که بایدها و نبایدها در هنگام بروز آسیب دیدگی را به ورزشکاران آموزش دهد
					۱۴. مربی وظیفه دارد تمرینات و تکنیک های ورزشی را از ساده به پیچیده به ورزشکاران آموزش دهد
					۱۵. مربی موظف است روش استفاده صحیح از وسایل ورزشی را به ورزشکاران آموزش دهد
					۱۶. مربی موظف است از استاندارد بودن وسایل ورزشی مورد استفاده در تمرین و مسابقه آگاهی داشته باشد
					۱۷. مربی موظف است از سالم بودن وسایل ورزشی مورد استفاده در تمرین و مسابقه آگاهی داشته باشد
					۱۸. مربی وظیفه دارد تجهیزات ورزشکاران که در تمرین و مسابقه استفاده میشود را بررسی کند
					۱۹. مربی وظیفه دارد که امکانات ورزشی مکانهای سرباز و سرپوشیده را بررسی کرده و از سلامت شرایط جوی برای تمرین اطمینان حاصل کند
					۲۰. مربی موظف است مانع استفاده ورزشکار از وسایل و تجهیزات ناسالم شود

				۲۱. مربی موظف است خطرات طبیعی اطراف محیط ورزشی را بررسی کند
				۲۲. مربی موظف است فعالیت های ورزشی را با توجه به شرایط تجهیزات ورزشی تغییر دهد
				۲۳. مربی موظف است از وجود وسایل کمکهای اولیه در طول تمرین و مسابقه اطمینان حاصل کند
				۲۴. مربی باید قادر به تشخیص علائم آسیب دیدگی باشد
				۲۵. مربی باید بداند چه زمانی به ورزشکار آسیب دیده کمکهای اولیه و چه زمانی مراقبتهای پزشکی ارایه دهد
				۲۶. مربی باید از بازگشت ورزشکار آسیب دیده به فعالیت ورزشی جلوگیری کند اگر آسیب وارده جدی باشد
				۲۷. مربی باید از انجام عملی که باعث تشدید آسیب میشود خودداری کند
				۲۸. مربی وظیفه دارد که در هنگام ایجاد آسیب برای ورزشکار، کمکهای لازم را تا قبل از رسیدن گروه پزشکی برای او انجام دهد
				۲۹. مربی باید مراقبت های منطقی را برای انتقال ورزشکار آسیب دیده جهت درمان اعمال کند
				۳۰. مربی باید در خصوص سابقه پزشکی ورزشکاران اطلاع داشته باشد
				۳۱. مربی وظیفه دارد تمامی آسیبهایی را که به ورزشکار در طول تمرین و یا مسابقه وارد میشود ضبط و نگهداری کند
				۳۲. مربی موظف است تمام خدمات پزشکی ارائه شده به ورزشکار آسیب دیده را ضبط و نگهداری کند
				۳۳. مربی باید از شرایط فیزیکی بازیکن اطلاع داشته باشد
				۳۴. مربی باید نقطه شروع برای هر ورزشکار را بر اساس آمادگی و مهارت وی تعیین نماید
				۳۵. مربی باید از آمادگی فیزیکی ورزشکار برای تمرین یا مسابقه مطمئن باشد
				۳۶. مربی وظیفه دارد از انجام آزمونهای سالانه سنجش سلامت ورزشکار مطمئن شود
				۳۷. مربی موظف است فعالیتهای ورزشی را بر اساس سن و میزان رشد (بلوغ) هر بازیکن تعیین نماید
				۳۸. مربی موظف است فعالیتهای ورزشی را بر اساس سایز، قد و وزن هر بازیکن تعیین نماید
				۳۹. مربی موظف است فعالیتهای ورزشی را بر اساس توانایی و مهارت یا سطح آمادگی جسمانی هر بازیکن تعیین نماید
				۴۰. مربی وظیفه دارد هماهنگی بین ورزشکاران را هم در ورزشهای تماسی و هم غیر تماسی رعایت کند
				۴۱. مربی وظیفه دارد هماهنگی بین ورزشکاران را در هر دو ورزشهای گروهی و فردی رعایت کند
				۴۲. مربی وظیفه دارد هماهنگی بین ورزشکاران را هم در مسابقه و هم در تمرین رعایت کند
				۴۳. مربی وظیفه دارد ورزشکاران را از خطرات طبیعی ورزشها آگاه نماید

					۴۴. مربی وظیفه دارد خطرات ذاتی موجود در تمرینها را به ورزشکاران گوشزد نماید
					۴۵. مربی موظف است خطرات ذاتی موجود در زمان مسابقه را به ورزشکاران توضیح دهد
					مربی موظف است خطرات استفاده از وسایل ورزشی را به ورزشکاران ۴۶. هشدار دهد
					۴۷. مربی موظف است خطرات موجود در محیط ورزشی را به ورزشکاران . هشدار دهد.
					۴۸. مربی موظف است خطرات موجود در تکنیکهای ورزشی را به ورزشکاران هشدار دهد.

### **13.3 Appendix C: Guideline for the In-depth Interviews**

- \_ What is your opinion about coaching profession in Iran?
- \_ What is your opinion about the situation of coaches in Iran?
- \_ What is your motivation for having this career?
- \_ What is the financial situation of coaching in Iran? What is the effect of that in your attitude, motivation and in your career?
- \_ What are the factors influencing your social recognition regarding your profession?
- \_ What is the situation of coaching educational programs in Iran?
- \_ What is your motivation for improving your coaching certification level?
- \_ What sources are available for coaches to improve their coaching knowledge in Iran?
- \_ What is your knowledge about legal issues in sport in general and in your specific sport in particular?
- \_ What are your duties and responsibilities toward your students/athletes?