

KINESIOLOGY & COACHING

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Judo Coaches: An International Contextualization on Professional Education and Career

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Abstract

Background. An increasing international competitiveness in sports have induced nations to adopt a range of strategies to foster elite sports development. One of these strategies include the recognition of coaches' qualification to support athletes' preparation. However, understanding on how coaches are trained to fulfil their roles within elite sports is still required.

Problem and Aim. Knowledge on coaches' professional education and career is scarce in a range of sports, including judo. In this context, the purpose of the study was to analyze top-level judo coaches' professional education and career across countries.

Methods. Qualitative comparative analysis method framed the study. Participants included 17 judo coaches of top-level youth teams from 14 countries. Data were generated through semi-structured interviews and examined by a process of content analysis.

Results. Seven categories were generated: athlete life, career transition, qualification, professional education, career, job assignments and professional training process. The main findings suggested that judo coaches' professional education and career can be described into four groups at an international level, depending on the presence/absence of characteristics that connect/distance

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the coaching activity to/from the scientific-professional perspective. The four groups were described as institutionalized by sports organizations, based on academic knowledge provided by universities, partially institutionalized by sports organizations, and based on practical experience acquired as an athlete.

Conclusions. The study suggested a relationship between national sports systems and judo coaches' education and career. The study supported the need for countries to elaborate policies for judo coaches' development to work with elite sports.

Introduction

An increase in international competitiveness, associated with the financial and media growth of sports, mobilizes efforts from different countries for a sport policy [Green, Oakley 2001; Digel 2005]. In a way, the expression "Sport Policy" can mean different situations or set of specific actions related to the management of sports activities for a population and, obviously, this differs depending on the socio-cultural context of each country [Bergsgard *et al.* 2007]. Generally, the objectives of states' sport policies are related to the pursuit of the overall wellbeing of a population by using sports as an educational tool, and with the development of athletes to achieve sporting success in competition [Houlihan, Green 2008].

Sports continue to be considered a tool of political interest, serving to achieve goals such as better diplomatic prestige/national pride (both through international sporting success) and efficient propaganda about a country's socioeconomic development [Houlihan, Green 2008; Grix, Carmichael 2012; Brouwers Sotiriadou, De Bosscher 2015]. Among the strategies adopted by countries, the following stand out: increased participation of teams in international events; investments in sports infrastructure; policies on sports participation, at the levels of mass, leisure and elite sports; talent development; support for athletes' careers and post-careers; connection with science; and investment in coach development [De Bosscher *et al.* 2006; Brouwers, Sotiriadou, De Bosscher, 2015; Thomas 2001; Truyens *et al.* 2016]. From this perspective, there is a trend of advancement in processes focused on sports development, including improvements in the development of athletes, as well as in the professional education of the coaches who works with them.

Among Olympic sports, judo has a great representativeness of Olympic achievements, represented by 56 medals disputed (60 as of the XXXII Olympic Games), with the possibility of each country winning a total of 14 medals per edition (15 as of the XXXII Olympic Games). In this sense, numerous countries have judo as a strategic sport for their Olympic aspirations and adopt different strategies for the specific development of the modality [Nolte, Burnett, Hollander 2017; Mazzei *et al.* 2020; Nolte, Burnett 2020]. Other important points are related to the constant changes in competition rules [Samuel *et al.* 2020], and the implementation of the world judo circuit from 2009 to classify athletes for the Olympic Games [Julio *et al.*, 2013], which raised the level in athletes' preparation and required the adoption of different strategies.

At the center of the process, the role of the coach stands out as the main person responsible for preparing athletes for the demands of high-performance sports [Plisk, Stone 2003; Sterkowicz, Garcia Garcia, Suay i Lerma 2007; Mallett *et al.* 2009]. Specifically in judo, despite the great international representativeness of the sport, with 68 countries winning medals in world championships of the modality and 204 countries registered with its international federation [IJF, no date], information about the professional education and career of judo coaches is scarce when it comes to the process of professionalization. There is a tension between the maintenance of traditional training models and the development of coaching models based on professional and scientific knowledge [Saeki 1994; Ebell 2012]. This tension is not exclusive to sports, Cariou [2021] highlighted there are four stages in the human thought (mythical, naturalistic, critical and scientific), so there is a tension between to critical and scientific thinking.

This tension can be verified when studying how coaches learn, acquire skills for their job, mobilize knowledge and shape their habitus. From this perspective, Drigo [Drigo, 2007, 2009a] pointed out that the job of a judo coach used to be ruled by "artisanal" knowledge, that is, knowledge derived from know-how, from practical experience [Day 2011; Santos *et al.* 2015]. However, more recent studies [Osipov *et al.* 2017; Osipov *et al.* 2017a; Tavares Junior, Drigo 2017] pointed out a tendency to a paradigm shift from know-how (artisanal knowledge), in which traditions and practical knowledge were sufficient for the job, to a professional paradigm based on technical-scientific knowledge.

Other studies have also found signs of this paradigm shift, such as: a set of specific skills that coaches must master in order to do an efficient job [Sterkowicz *et al.* 2007; Adel *et al.* 2015; Santos *et al.* 2015]; organization of teaching-learning sessions by coaches based on sports science and sports pedagogy [van Kooten 2016; Veloso, Botelho, Aranha 2016]; and preparation of athletes [Osipov *et al.* 2017; Tavares Junior, Drigo, 2017].

Another important evidence of the growing interest in the professionalization of coaches is the publication of guidelines for the process of long-term sports preparation of athletes (also known as 'pathways'). For instance, Judo Canada prepared a comprehensive guide for the Olympic program, with specific references to judo [Judo Canada, 2006], in alignment with the national sport policy [Balyi 2001; Balyi, Hamilton 2004]. Other countries have been organizing themselves to compose similar

documents, such as Australia, France and the United Kingdom [Australia, no date; France, no date; British Judo 2016; Ward 2016].

Considering that judo coaching is still in the process of professionalization [Taylor, Garrat 2010], the purpose of this study was twofold: (1) to describe the professional education and career of top-level judo coaches in an international context; (2) to identify similarities and differences across countries elite sport systems influencing judo coaches' professional education and career.

Methodology

This study employed a qualitative approach [Flick 2009] and the qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) method [Ragin 1998]. The research was submitted to and approved by the Research Ethics Committee Involving Human Beings of the (Protocol 1.976.301).

Participants

Participants included 17 judo coaches of top-level youth teams from 14 countries. The selection of the participants was intentional and the main criterion was nations' representativeness in the competitive Olympic scenario. Representativeness was defined following Mazzei and collaborators' classification [2020] of 20 prominent countries in the Olympic judo scenario: Japan, France, Korea, Cuba, China, Russia, Germany, Brazil, Netherlands, Italy, Georgia, Spain, Belgium, United States, Hungary, United Kingdom, Mongolia, Azerbaijan, North Korea and Poland. Although Canada was not listed as one of the countries with high representativeness in judo, it was included in the study because it has a judo-specific systematization – "Long Term Athlete Development (LTAD)" [Judo Canada, 2006]. In addition, a coach from Portugal and another from Denmark were also interviewed, as they had worked for these countries before migrating to one of the top 20 countries. Of the 17 coaches, 16 were men, and one was a woman. The participants were 46.4 ± 10.7 years old on average. They had been judo athletes for 20.0 ± 5.3 years, judo coaches for 20.5 ± 12.4 years and, specifically coaches of high-performance athletes for 16.6 ± 9.9 years.

Data collection

Data were produced through semi-structured interviews, using six questions: a) What is your current position and details of your career as a coach?; b) Tell me about your career as an athlete; c) How did you become a coach? d) What types of training and certifications did you have? e) In your opinion, what steps are necessary to build a

coach career? f) Does your country have any model or sports system for judo long-term development?

A total of 13 face-to-face interviews were held at places suggested by the participants during the competition rounds of the international judo circuit, between April 2016 and October 2019. Four interviews were conducted remotely using the Skype® software. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim for analysis (the interviews lasted between 20-60 minutes each). The transcripts were sent to the participants for validation. The interviews were conducted by the first author, who was also an elite judo coach and therefore was familiar with the context of study.

Data analysis

The analysis method used was Content Analysis [Krippendorff 2013; Bardin 2016]. In accordance with this method, a first pre-analysis step was carried out, which involved reading and familiarization with the transcribed data. In the second step of data exploration, units of analysis were selected using data segments. In that phase, 134 textual elements were selected for the initial coding. Through successive readings and an analytical procedure for data interrogation in relation to the study questions, the data were grouped into categories and subcategories. Seven categories were generated in relation to the professional education and career of the elite judo coaches, as described in Chart 1.

Data analysis was performed by two authors of this study, using a peer-analysis process. The subcategories and categories were sent to two co-authors and an external researcher for debriefing, in which they made other interpretations, inducing the researchers to critical reflections [Lincoln, Guba 1985]. This strategy helped throughout the analysis process, mainly in the condensation and refinement of subcategories and categories [Li, Pitts, Quarterman 2008; Krippendorff 2013]. Based on an inductive approach, the interviews were coded by their meanings, giving rise to 22 subcategories and grouped into seven categories. Occurrences of categories and subcategories is shown below, in Chart 1

After the categorization process, a qualitative comparative analysis was performed [Ragin, 1998], using Boolean mathematical logic, four groups were identified through the "truth-table" regarding the similarities and differences between the sports systems of the nations that influence the professional training of judo coaches. The formulation of this table allows us to summarize the data, evaluate hypotheses and develop theoretical arguments [Berg-Schlosser *et al.* 2009].

After the four groups were formatted, the interviewees were asked to rank their country in one of them. However, the interviewees had not been informed about the classification carried out by the researchers. It should

Chart 1 – Occurrences of categories and subcategories

Categories	Description	Subcategories	Occurrences
Athlete life	Related to the coach's sport career as a judo athlete, journey and achievements	Athlete career	17
Transition	Information relating to their transition from an athlete career to a coach career	Intentional	9
		Opportunity	4
		Invitation	4
Qualification	Refers to the legal prerequisites for starting work as a judo coach	Institutionalized	10
		Black belt	10
Professional education	Encompasses the elements of professional education, such as university admission, courses or certifications	Steps	6
		University	5
		In transition	8
Career	Identifies the steps taken by the coach while working, such as positions held	Start in the national team	2
		Start in clubs	7
		Career system	7
Job assignments	Related to the assignments of the coach for the position they hold, as well as their work regime	Exclusive	10
		Split	7
Proposals and challenges	Identifies proposals and challenges pointed out by the coaches for their professional education process	Centralized document	9
		Training coaches with courses	7
		Specializing coaches along the steps	8
		Mentorship processes	2
		Meeting among coaches	3
		Updating as to the literature	4
		Database	1
		Interpersonal skills	3
Total of occurrences	143		

be noted that all of the interviewees' responses matched the researchers' initial classification. This strategy was used to validate the researchers' analysis and keep the rigor [Nowell *et al.* 2017] of analysis.

Results and Discussion

In summary, based on the data, seven categories were created: a) athlete life; b) transition; c) qualification for the job; d) professional education; e) coach career; f) job assignments; g) procedures for professional training. The categories, subcategories and their occurrences are shown in Chart 1.

Relationship between the sports organization and the coach's career

When deepening the analysis of the categories, it was identified that coach training and sports systems differ from one country to another. However, from constant comparisons, we found similarities between some coun-

tries, which allowed gathering them into four groups, then validated by the interviewees. In order to classify the groups, aspects related to the country's sports structure were analyzed, and so were the professional education, training and qualification of coaches.

The sports structure was analyzed considering the degree of centralization within the scope of training of judo athletes. We identified countries with: a) centralized structure, in which athletes are referred to training centers associated with government institutions or federal systems in the country [Green, Oakley 2001; Digel 2002, 2005]; b) partially centralized structure, with mixed organizations, in which part of the athlete's sports education comes from gyms and clubs, but, when they are in a high performance situation, preparation actions are developed in national centers under the tutelage of national coaches and; c) decentralized structure, in which the preparation of athletes happens primarily in clubs and gyms, with obligations with the national team being specific only.

To classify professional education, the coach's main source of education was taken into account. The results indicated that all study participants are former athletes of the modality and, therefore, practical training is implicit

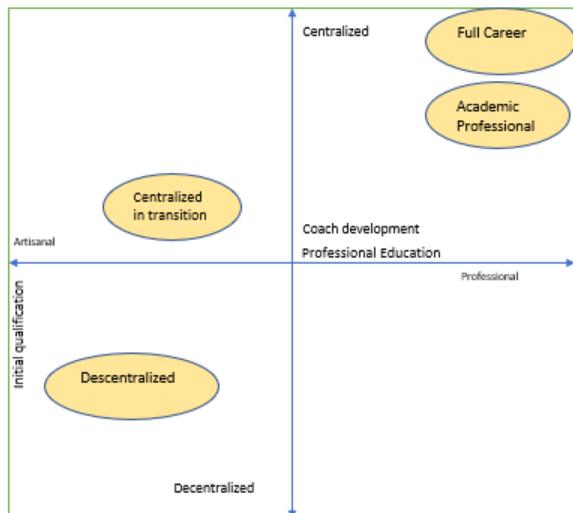
for all of them [Taylor, Garrat 2010]. It was possible to identify three main types of education: a) Institutionalized by steps, in which the coaching school is linked to the country's sport policy that determines the coach's scope of practice, represented by the step system; b) University, in which university education is a prerequisite for the coach to work in a country and; c) Federal accreditation – in these countries, national federations represent the places to develop coaches through short courses [Drigo *et al.* 2011].

As for professional training, we observed four possibilities: a) related to the steps: the career development process is linked to the levels of education in the national system itself; b) related to university education: coaches are trained through a formal education system [Nelson, Cushion, Potrac 2006; Mallett *et al.* 2009; Milistetd *et al.* 2018]; c) in the process of implementation: process for implementing a system to train coaches and; d) identified need: indicative of the need to train coaches in the country.

Initial qualification relates to the minimum prerequisite for starting work as a coach: a) steps or university: in the case of countries with a step system, coaches must go through the elementary levels to start the job, or have a validation with a college degree; b) University: some countries require a college degree for one to start their career as a coach and; c) black belt: in some countries, being a black belt is already a prerequisite for starting the career.

In this way, it was possible to identify four groups among the countries of the studied coaches: "full career", "academic-professional", "centralized in transition" and "decentralized". In summary, the groups present the following characteristics (Chart 2).

Chart 2. Characteristics of the groups as to sports structure, professional education, training and qualification.



Based on this classification, it was possible to verify that groups 1 - Full career and 2 - Academic-professional are closer to the professional paradigm, since the pro-

cesses involving qualification and training for the job, as well as the career dynamics, are more systematized and correlated with institutionalized professional education (provided by universities or national coaching schools) and based on accumulated scientific knowledge [Larson 1979; Lawson 1984; Taylor, Garrat 2010]. While in groups 3 - Centralized in transition and 4 - Decentralized, characteristics that can be considered artisanal predominate [Drigo 2009; Day 2011].

Preparation to be a judo coach

Although all study participants are former athletes, in the first two groups the coaches expressed intentions to act as coaches and, therefore, had a prior preparation and formal education for the job. The data indicated that nine participants intentionally planned and sought to develop their coaching career.

So it's part of my decision, after meeting many coaches, and judo teachers, so after taking care of myself, I want to give back to the field the things I learned and that's why I started to study because I wanted to be a coach (Coach 9)

The coaches in groups 3 and 4, on the other hand, show that the beginning of their career as coaches and the positions they held were related to the sport performance they achieved as athletes, to the detriment of professional education. In four cases, they started to work after invitations from managers in the modality with high-performance athletes.

I want you to start teaching me judo, at the club, on the team... it's an invitation from... I couldn't decline such a forceful offer. (Coach 15)

In four cases, the coaches began to work by occasional opportunity.

And I got a job opportunity at the school (Coach 1)

Likewise, countries have different requirements and, therefore, different practice perspectives.

Actually, this coach career was a complement... I took a course for trainers, coaches, later... I didn't study physical education, I have a degree in business administration" (Coach 5).

In groups 1 and 2, it was possible to find a formal requirement to start work; in the case of the full-career group, the step system is highlighted:

(...) at level 1 and level 2 you need more or less than a year of monitoring and 6 months for you to complete the modules "... this way, you get this license for you to work as a national coach in the country, and then, the Olympic committee, together with the federation, selects

coaches to participate in this program “...” which is level 4, which is 2 years of training” (Coach 6).

And in the academic-professional group, university education is required.

In ‘...’ you need to have a ‘teaching diploma’. You must have at least a technical high school diploma in ‘physical culture’...” (Coach 7).

In other countries, there has been a transition process in relation to the requirements for obtaining a judo coach license.

“Before, back in my days, you didn’t have this system quite like that, for example, a teacher at a judo club, institute and school, many teachers and coaches are not like judo teachers or a sports teacher (with a degree), in my case, because I’ve been practicing since when I was a child... I am a history teacher, ..., but now they are requiring a diploma for you to be able to teach judo, it’s 4 years to get the diploma of sports teacher, right now we can elect a sports teacher and be an expert in judo by finishing college” (Coach 13).

The “athlete life” and “transition” categories help understand how coaches enter the job market. Social capital [Bourdieu 1990; Drigo 2007] and experience accumulated in the modality as an athlete seem to be crucial factors for access to the coaching job [Drigo 2007; Sterkowicz, Garcia Garcia, Suay i Lerma 2007; Santos *et al.* 2015; He, Trudel, Culver 2018]. As already observed in other sports, the experience acquired by a coach as an athlete is meaningful in the early years of their career [Taylor, Garrat 2010; Molina *et al.* 2012; Mendes *et al.* 2020]. The relationship of these categories with qualification, training and career are also meaningful for understanding a coach’s professional education and career structuring.

The “qualification for the job” category is directly related to the different types of accreditation that qualify one to work as a coach, in different countries. Understanding this category allows inferring that the status of a coach is closer to a professional paradigm, as observed in groups 1 and 2, which encompass the characteristics of an elitist education, associative capacity, professional autonomy and monopoly of the job market [Larson 1979; Lawson 1984; Freidson 2001; Brint 2006; Jenkins 2014].

In this sense, “professional education” is related to coaches’ education processes and the professional training system to which they are subjected, although studies have highlighted that coaches are constantly learning [Vargas-Tonsing 2007; Molina *et al.* 2012; He, Trudel, Culver 2018], from formal, non-formal and informal sources [Cushion, Armour, Jones 2003; Nelson, Cushion, Potrac 2006]. The analysis performed focused on the institutionalized education and training process, considering formal means (academic institutions) and non-formal means (mandatory accreditation and training courses).

Career and job assignments

About career, the coaches took several pathways to reach the level of national coaches of youth teams. In the centralized-in-transition group, in two cases, their career as coaches started with the national team of their country:

(...) I finished my participation in the London Olympics and then I started my job as a Junior coach, a coach “...” left and I was hired to coach the national team... I started in the main team and then I moved to the junior team (Coach 16)

It is important to note that coach 16 reported that he was a world and Olympic champion, and was invited to be a national coach while he was still an athlete.

In seven cases, the coaches started their careers at smaller clubs and moved up the ranks until reaching the national team.

(...) since I was 17 years old I’d already help in the club, I’d already help in some schools as a coach to teach judo classes to the little ones” (Coach 8).

In the full-career group, seven other coaches had their career promotion structure directly linked to their country’s step system:

“you have to get some qualification, because you have a lot of steps to qualify “...” C is required for you to work at the Olympic center and be a national coach, after that I studied for 3 years in “...” you can see it was one last step. (Coach 2).

This distinction between groups implies differences in the career development process and, consequently, in the prospects for preparation for the job market of coaches. Thus, groups 1 and 2 conditioned the evolution of the positions they have held throughout their careers to professional education and training. In groups 3 and 4, there are no requirements for formal courses that justify career progression.

Another difference found between the first two groups in relation to the last two is the market primacy that demands qualified professionals with specific certifications mandatorily. In countries that adopt the models of groups 3 and 4, there is no clarity about the set of skills and certifications that a coach must have in order to apply for the position, with the decision being determined by subjective criteria set by management groups. In this regard, Taylor and Garrat [2010] indicate that:

The model is premised on the assumption that ‘knowledge of how to do’ is easily transferred to ‘knowledge on how to coach, how to do’, in the absence of any educational experience on the part of the neophyte coach. Such schemes seem to have an almost mesmerizing attraction to policy-makers, who actively work to privilege and promote ex-athletes (...). (p. 106)

One of the aspects that can influence the maintenance of this model in the countries of groups 3 and 4 is the fact that hands-on mastery as artisanal knowledge is more valued, at the expense of professional knowledge [Drigo 2007]. This aspect is seen in the study by Sterkowicz et al. [2007], in which much of what is learned and deemed important in the job of a coach comes from their practice and experience as an athlete in the modality [Santos et al. 2015]. Based on the assumption that, in high performance, the work consists of identifying and developing talented athletes, a lack of parameters in fight modalities such as judo can reinforce the supremacy of knowing how to do over scientific and professional knowledge, reinforcing the importance of aspects such as instinct or intuition acquired through practice [Day, 2011; Roberts et al. 2019, 2020, 2021].

Particularly concerning these countries, the concept of expertise for the job seems to have more to do with the social recognition arising from sport performance than with the skills developed for professional work [Nash, Collins 2006; Cote, Gilbert 2009; Nash, Sproule 2009]. This model hinders the professionalization process of coaches, considering that the prospects for career development is not directly linked to qualifications, but to results as an athlete. Even though, as mentioned by some coaches, this process is in transition and, therefore, there is a tendency towards implementing educational and professional training systems.

The job of national coach is not always a coach's sole occupation; seven coaches said that they accumulate roles with clubs:

"I'm the club's high-performance judo coordinator "... and I'm still on the national team to this day "... (Coach 2).

Nine coaches reported that they were responsible for teams of different categories, sexes and, sometimes, for U-18, U-21 and senior teams.

So today I'm responsible for the team of the athletes of "... we have 42 athletes in the teams split into men's and women's" (Coach 5).

And ten coaches work exclusively for the national team:

"I'm the head coach of the national team "... of the men's program" (Coach 6).

The occurrence of roles being split between the national team and other obligations and roles outside the country's sports federation was found only in groups 3 and 4. In groups 1 and 2, the coaches reported working exclusively in the national team and, in some cases, accumulating roles in national sports centers, but in the same position. As pointed out, the qualification and career process in groups 3 and 4 does not guarantee specialization and the application of knowledge, and work at different levels of the sport can cause confusion regarding one's professional identity [Ryrie, Lafferty 2019].

Challenges to the professional education process of coaches

The professional education of coaches has advanced in recent years [Collins 2009], including structured educational processes [Milistetd et al. 2014; Milistetd et al. 2018], study meetings and discussions among coaches [Jones, Allison 2014]; mentorship processes (Nash, 2009; Saiz, Calvo 2009; Haggard et al. 2011), as well as a better understanding of non-formal and informal training processes [Mallett et al. 2009; Nash, Sproule 2009]. The coaches indicated important aspects such as challenges to be overcome. The first is linked to the need for a document to guide coaches:

"I believe that if there was a basic model, a model that's ready to use, athletes, coaches "... they'd be able to have something to guide them, to support them, and to be able to apply it during training sessions or while coaching their athletes" (Coach 5).

This perspective is aligned with the "pathways", documents guiding the long-term process used by some countries [Australia no date; Judo Canada 2006; British Judo 2016; Ward 2016]. Although the effectiveness of these documents has been questioned in the literature [47], they can still be a starting point for the internal organization of countries attuned to an artisanal perspective when it comes to professional education.

Another challenge highlighted by the coaches was the need for training, similarly to the results found by Mazzei et al. [2020]. Training could be provided by means of courses to fill knowledge gaps, as part of a specialized step system associated with educational institutions.

Coach education... How would that be? With a connection with universities and professionals trained to develop a plan and insert this plan that the cultural reality allows. (Coach 6)

There should be a level-based national coach course. For example, a beginner coach course for one to be able to work statewide, a course for one to be able to work nationwide and worldwide "... That's why I say that a professional's training will have to be broad. "... they have to go through the levels because each level will specifically deal with that age group. (Coach 1)

The coaches also pointed out that mentorship processes and meetings among coaches are other effective ways for training. These aspects are related to exchange of experiences and to one's ability to mobilize tacit knowledge [Nash, Collins 2006; Nash, Sproule 2009].

Conclusion

This study sought to analyze the professional education and career structuring of top-level judo coaches

in the international context. The main findings indicate that professional education, as well as the career of judo coaches at international level, can be described into four groups, depending on the presence/absence of characteristics that connect/distance the coaching activity to/from the scientific-professional perspective. In countries with full and academic-professional careers, career is directly linked to professional education, either through university education or through each nation's coaching schools. In the decentralized and transition groups, professional education is not a condition to have the job, being more related to sport performance as an athlete and the opportunity for action generated by the sports organization.

Considering the importance of developing several aspects involving scientific knowledge in judo, the results of the study pointed to the need for countries to have documents that can assist coaches in the process of long-term preparation and training of athletes, such as parameters for professional practice. Thus, as future implications, further research should be conducted in order to identify the main gaps concerning the long-term training process that can support the preparation of guiding documents, in addition to know-how (experiential knowledge) and literature studies aimed at high-performance sports to discuss and systematize practical knowledge as a prerequisite for professional education and training, judicious entry and occupation of judo coach positions.

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Trenerzy judo: Międzynarodowy kontekst edukacji i kariery zawodowej

Słowa kluczowe: coaching, kształcenie trenerów, profesjonalizacja, sporty walki, sporty elitarne

Streszczenie

Tło. Rosnąca międzynarodowa konkurencyjność w sporcie skłoniła kraje do przyjęcia szeregu strategii wspierających rozwój sportu elitarnego. Jedną z tych strategii obejmuje uznawanie kwalifikacji trenerów w celu wspierania przygotowania sportowców. Jednak nadal wymagane jest zrozumienie, w jaki sposób trenerzy są szkoleni do pełnienia swoich ról w sporcie na najwyższym poziomie.

Problem i cel. Wiedza na temat edukacji i kariery zawodowej trenerów jest niewielka w wielu dyscyplinach sportowych, w tym w judo. W tym kontekście, celem badania była analiza edukacji zawodowej i kariery trenerów judo na najwyższym poziomie w różnych krajach.

Metody. W badaniu zastosowano metodę jakościowej analizy porównawczej. W badaniu wzięło udział 17 trenerów judo z najlepszych drużyn młodzieżowych z 14 krajów. Dane zostały wygenerowane poprzez częściowo ustrukturyzowane wywiady i zbadane w procesie analizy treści.

Wyniki. Stworzono siedem kategorii: życie sportowca, ścieżka kariery, kwalifikacje, edukacja zawodowa, kariera, zadania zawodowe i proces szkolenia zawodowego. Główne ustalenia sugerują, że edukację zawodową i karierę trenerów judo można opisać w czterech grupach na poziomie międzynarodowym, w zależności od obecności/braku cech, które łączą/oddalają działalność trenerską od/z perspektywy naukowo-zawodowej. Te cztery grupy zostały opisane jako zinstytucjonalizowane przez organizacje sportowe, oparte na wiedzy akademickiej dostarczanej przez uniwersytety, częściowo zinstytucjonalizowane przez organizacje sportowe i oparte na praktycznym doświadczeniu zdobytym przez sportowca.

Wnioski. Badanie sugeruje związek między krajowymi systemami sportowymi a edukacją i karierą trenerów judo. Badanie potwierdziło potrzebę opracowania przez kraje polityki rozwoju trenerów judo do pracy ze sportami elitarnymi.