

CONCEPTUALISING SAFETY CULTURE FOR SAFEGUARDING CHILDREN IN SPORT

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By

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Abstract

Research over the past 30 years suggests that sport can provide a context in which children are subjected to several forms of maltreatment. Various countries, regions, sports and individual organisations have responded to this evidence, causing a proliferation of methods used to safeguard children from harm. However, one approach that is yet to be considered is the safety culture approach. This is despite its potential to address all of the potential risk factors of child maltreatment in sport, and its evidenced ability to tackle a wide range of safety concerns in fields as far-reaching as healthcare, aviation and energy production. Based on this, the aim of this thesis was to conceptualise safety culture in sport from a child safeguarding perspective. A total of 45 interviews and 7 focus groups were conducted with participants from five organisations which differed on the grounds of size, mission and geographical location. Data was analysed using thematic analysis. Findings suggested that safety culture in sport is influenced by the presence and nature of; safety management systems, committed leadership and stakeholder engagement. Findings also suggested that these factors have an interconnected relationship, which influences the nature and strength of the safety culture. These factors and their subsequent safety culture were also found to be influenced by a multitude of internal and external contextual factors. Therefore, the findings of this thesis are used to present the Safety Culture Model for Safeguarding Children. This is the first of its kind as both a model of safety culture in sport, and a safety culture model that specifically relates to safeguarding children. Practical implications and avenues for future research are also presented.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Approximately 55% of child abuse, violence and neglect victims knew their perpetrator (Radford et al., 2011). In most cases the perpetrator was a trusted figure with significant access to the child. This allowed the enactment of at least one harmful incident, with potentially devastating short and long term social, psychological and physiological effects (Wright, 2007; English et al., 2009; Greenfield, 2009). Research suggests that access to victims is most frequently gained through the family unit (Radford et al., 2011; Bentley, O'Hagan, Raff & Bhatti, 2016). However, with ongoing research, case review and heavily publicised occurrences of child maltreatment, there is growing awareness of the potential for individuals to exploit their close engagement with children through trusted and respected organisations. The Penn State University child sexual abuse trial, the recent exposure of youth football coach Barry Bennell, reports of child abuse in the Catholic Church and the now infamous case of Jimmy Saville have all provided evidence that the threat of child maltreatment lies not only in the family, but also in and through those trusted organisations that provide access to children on a regular basis.

Of those organisations that enable regular access to children, many do so with the provision of sport (a universal term used hereafter to describe all forms and levels of sport, exercise, sport for development and physical education). Though in comparison to schools, religious institutions and hospitals, sporting organisations have received comparatively less scrutiny (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). Historically, sport has been regarded as beneficial for young people, playing a central role in positive youth development (Lang & Hartill, 2015), and much has been said of the health, fitness, social, economic and cultural benefits of sport, be it competitive, recreational or leisure based (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2010; Lang & Hartill, 2015). With the acceptance of this research, research and initiatives on child maltreatment in sport have

been slow to materialise. Indeed, it has been said that “the institution of sport was, at one time, a cultural and political island, defined as separate and free from the rest of society, with Cinderella status” (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014, p.329).

Despite these romantic and idealistic perspectives of sport, there is increasing awareness regarding the prevalence of various forms of child maltreatment in sport (Coalter, 2007; Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014; Kerr, 2010). Globally, research suggests that various forms of abuse, violence, neglect and other forms of maltreatment are prevalent (Stirling, 2009; Lang & Hartill, 2015). In a recent book, evidence of child maltreatment was presented from countries as wide ranging as; Japan, South Africa, Denmark, the UK, China, and Slovenia (Lang & Hartill, 2015). The wide scope of child maltreatment in sport has also been presented in a collaborative sourcebook on global issues which recognised that the potential for child maltreatment in sport is evident globally (Brackenridge, Kay & Rhind, 2012). Therefore, despite findings that certain types and levels of sport may be subject to unique risk factors that make them more susceptible to the occurrence of particular forms of abuse (Owusu-Sekyere & Gervis, 2016; Brackenridge & Rhind, 2010), there is a growing consensus that child maltreatment is a concern for all involved in sport. Based on this increasing awareness, sport is experiencing a swell of research and initiatives dedicated to protecting children from harm, or ‘Safeguarding’. This is a broad term used to describe the reasonable actions taken to ensure that all children involved in a program are safe from harm (Lang & Hartill, 2015; Rhind, Brackenridge, Kay & Owusu-Sekyere, 2016; Parton, 2016).

1.1 Global Developments in Safeguarding in Sport

The growing awareness of the need to have safeguarding measures in sport may be a reflection of global political developments. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the

child established the protection of children as a fundamental human right in 1989 (United Nations General Assembly, 1989). This has formed the basis of change in a host of fields, as those who engage with children regularly are showing an increasing willingness to consider children's rights (Gilbert, Parton & Skivenes, 2011). Sport has been slower to respond than many of these fields, and Lang and Hartill (2015) argue that in some countries, progress has not been prompted by knowledge of international legislation, or even moral obligation, but instead by high-profile cases of abuse covered by domestic media. Nonetheless, there are some developments which demonstrate the significance being placed on safeguarding children in sport from a global perspective.

The International Olympic Committee (IOC), which is regarded as the world's most influential sports organisation (Lang & Hartill, 2015), have released various consensus statements on matters such as; sexual harassment and abuse in sport, safely training elite youth athletes', evaluating the health of youth athletes' and the impact of sport on young people's health and wellbeing (Mountjoy, Rhind, Tiivas & Leglise, 2015; Lang & Hartill, 2015). The IOC have also included safeguarding as an integrated component of the Youth Athletic Development Model (Mountjoy et al., 2015). Likewise, the United Nations Office for Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) identified the protection of children from all forms of harm as a strategic priority in 2009, while the world's largest children's charity (according to Lang & Hartill, 2015), The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) commissioned a review of the available empirical research and policy initiatives on safeguarding (Brackenridge, Fasting, Kirby & Leahy, 2010).

These developments have largely contributed to what Mountjoy and colleagues have referred to as the 'internationalisation' of safeguarding in sport (Mountjoy et al., 2015). They have been

seminal in progressing efforts to safeguard all children in all types and levels of sport, while contributing to the construction of the International Safeguards for Children in Sport. Launched in 2014, this framework sets out the eight components that all organisations' working in sport should have in place to ensure children are safe from harm (International Safeguarding Children in Sport Working Group, 2016). These components were originally compiled by the United Kingdom's National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC) and Keeping Children Safe, but were refined by a specialist working group after a year-long piloting stage and an independent study with stakeholders from over 50 sporting organisations around the world. The project included some of the most influential organisations in sport, producing a set of 'safeguards' which reflect international legislation and declarations, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and current research on safeguarding children in sport. The International Safeguards represent the latest global development in safeguarding children in sport, and exemplify the growing relevance of safeguarding children in this context. Considering the United Nation's most recent Sustainable Development Goals for the period of 2015 to 2030 which include the prevention of child maltreatment (United Nations, 2015), the International Safeguards and sports global effort to safeguard children is likely to further increase in significance and relevance.

1.2 Current Approaches to Safeguarding Children in Sport

Having taken substantial steps in the global effort to safeguard children in sport, three main approaches have emerged; the individual, interpersonal and systems based approaches. The individual approach focusses on the attitudes, values and beliefs of potential perpetrators, the interpersonal approach focuses on regulating adult interactions with and access to children, while the systems based approach seeks to ensure that the organisation has sufficient and adequate

systemic elements for the prevention of child maltreatment (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). Early safeguarding work focussed on individual and interpersonal issues. For example, by developing codes of conduct that seek to obligate individuals to behave in particular ways or perform particular safeguarding tasks, or with training programmes that increase individual's awareness and knowledge of safeguarding issues (Malkin, Johnson, Brackenridge, 2000; Brackenridge, 2001; Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). However, the popularity of such approaches has waned due to the acknowledgement of non-relational forms of maltreatment (such as discrimination) (Stirling, 2009), the recognition that almost anyone can be a perpetrator (including peers) (Rhind, McDermott, Lambert & Koleva, 2015), and the expansion of the remit of safeguarding to include the protection of harm that is outside of the competitive environment (Mountjoy et al. 2015). Therefore, with the International Safeguards at the forefront, there is an increased focus on systems based approaches which seek to enhance organisational responsibility and improve organisation wide proficiency at preventing and responding to safeguarding concerns.

The focus on organisational systems is given credence by research which has increasingly discussed the complex organisational influences of child maltreatment in sport. For example, in a qualitative study with safeguarding professionals in the UK, Hartill and Lang (2014) recognised the multifaceted organisational factors that can put children at risk, and influence the success of safeguarding initiatives. Similarly, Jacobs, Smits and Knoppers (2016) conducted a qualitative study with elite youth coaches and sporting directors who highlighted the institutional contexts of child abuse in sport, and the potential for it to be normalised and rationalised. This offers support to Brackenridge and Rhind's (2014) argument that "systemic organisational elements...are likely to lead to more sustainable prevention and, ultimately, safer sport for all" (p. 333).

The systems based approach is however subject to its own criticisms. Just as the interpersonal and individual approaches can be criticised for their narrow outlook, so too can a focus on systems which occurs to the neglect of individual and interpersonal issues. Equally this may address merely a fraction of the organisations safety performance. Even when the systems approach addresses these potential issues, there is also increasing realisation that in order to be successful, it must also consider other intangible social factors that can impact safety directly and indirectly (Hartill & Lang, 2014; Mountjoy et al., 2015; Brackenridge, 2001). The most prominent of those social factors emanate from the organisation's culture.

Mountjoy et al., (2015) have discussed the potential for 'unhealthy' cultures to create inherent underlying threats to children. Empirical evidence has also demonstrated the significance of organisational cultures. For example, Rhind, Cook and Dorsch (2013) have found evidence to suggest that organisational culture can impact the incidence of child maltreatment. Brackenridge, Kay and Rhind (2012) presented findings from a review of safeguarding within industrialised countries which stated that organisational cultures can limit or exacerbate the incidence of maltreatment. While a longitudinal study by Tibbert, Anderson and Morris (2015) found that organisational cultures can be so influential that victims of maltreatment may become enculturated, rationalising and normalising maltreatment that they previously condemned. Therefore, based on this and the assertion that there is merit in adopting an organisation wide approach that considers how the culture of the organisation can impact safeguarding efforts (Mountjoy et al., 2015), this thesis seeks to develop a new approach to safeguarding children in sport by considering it from a cultural perspective, and rooting it in the concept of 'safety culture'.

1.3 Safety Culture: A New Approach to Safeguarding Children in Sport?

The term safety culture first came to prominence in a 1986 report by the International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group on the infamous Chernobyl nuclear power plant disaster (Cooper, 2000). This report cited the absence of a safety culture as a key contributing factor of the disaster (Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013). Although the report failed to adequately define, conceptualise or provide an explanatory model of the concept, therefore, rather than clarify matters, the report stimulated further academic debates about what a safety culture is, how organisations come to possess one and the process through which it may improve safety performance (Choudhry, Fang & Mohamed, 2007b).

At present, many definitions of safety culture have been produced. The vast majority of which consider safety culture as a subset of organisational culture (Antonsen, 2009; Fernández-Muñiz, Montes-Peón & Vázquez-Ordás, 2007a). This includes Edwards, Davey and Armstrong (2013) who define safety culture as,

“...the assembly of underlying assumptions, beliefs, values and attitudes shared by members of an organisation, which interact with an organisation’s structures and systems and the broader contextual setting to result in those external readily visible, practices that influence safety” (p. 77).

Research has also produced a host of models of safety culture (e.g. Cooper, 2000; Parker, Lawrie & Hudson, 2006), which have been adopted for the improvement of safety performance in industries as diverse as construction (Abdullah & Wern, 2012; Ismail, Salimin & Ismail, 2012), aviation (Lin, 2012) and healthcare (Halligan & Zecevic, 2011). Such research suggests that in its ideal state, a positive and strong safety culture can enhance safety performance, morale and productivity (Glendon & Santon, 2000; Cooper & Phillips, 2004), while stimulating

employees' motivation to engage and purposefully interact with the organisation's safety management initiatives (Podgórski, 2006).

Despite these findings and its popularity in the aforementioned industries, the concept of safety culture has received little attention in sport, and has never been applied to safeguarding children specifically. This is surprising considering the growing global significance of safeguarding, and increasing awareness of the impact that organisational culture may have on safeguarding children in sport (Brackenridge, Kay and Rhind, 2012, Mountjoy et al., 2011). Possible reasons for this include the recognition that perpetrators of child maltreatment in sport are not just organisation's employees, which safety culture research tends to focus on, but also peers, spectators and parents (Mountjoy et al., 2011). Alternatively, researchers and practitioners may consider 'safety' as a generic term that does not necessarily address the breadth of issues that are directly relevant to safeguarding children in sport. Nevertheless, based on findings of its impact, applicability and adaptability, there is potential to conceptualise safety culture in a manner that is relevant to the unique challenges of safeguarding children in sport. Consequently, through the concept of safety culture, sport may find a fresh and holistic approach to safeguarding which addresses those social and cultural factors that research has discussed as fundamental to the success of safeguarding children in sport (e.g. Mountjoy et al., 2011; Rhind, Cook and Dorsch, 2013; Brackenridge, Kay and Rhind, 2012, Tibbert, Anderson and Morris, 2015). In recognising its potential value, this thesis aims to provide the basis of a new cultural approach by being the first study to conceptualise safety culture in sport.

1.4 Research Aims and Objectives

This research aims to conceptualise safety culture from a child safeguarding in sport perspective. The following research objectives have been set for this study.

1. Conduct a comprehensive literature review regarding safeguarding children in sport that;
 - a. Evaluates the conceptual issues that underpin safeguarding children
 - b. Defines, categorises and appraises the evidence of child maltreatment in sport
 - c. Provides an evidence based rationale for a cultural approach to safeguarding children in sport.
2. Conduct a comprehensive literature review regarding safety culture that;
 - a. Analyses the broader concept of organisational culture, to provide a basis for understanding safety culture.
 - b. Defines and conceptualise the concept of safety culture.
 - c. Review the safety culture literature for evidence of its key influencing factors.
 - d. Consider the applicability of safety culture and its key influencing factors to sport and safeguarding children in sport specifically.
3. Consider critical methodological issues and provide a reasoned and evidence-based process for data collection.
4. Collect qualitative data from global key informants of safeguarding children in sport.
5. Conduct thematic data analysis to;
 - a. Consider whether the concept of safety culture has applicability in sport for the purposes of safeguarding children.
 - b. Explore the applicability of safety culture factors identified from previous research.
 - c. Explore the nature of the relationships between safety culture factors in sport (if any).

6. Develop a conceptual model for the understanding of safety culture from a child safeguarding perspective.

1.5 The Structure of This Thesis

Chapter 2 presents a review of the child protection, safeguarding and child maltreatment literature in sport that is relevant to this thesis. This chapter provides the context and rationale for this thesis, addressing various conceptual and critical global issues, while also defining, categorising and reviewing the evidence of child maltreatment in sport. Chapter 3 presents a review of literature pertaining to safety culture. This explores associated concepts such as organisational culture, and provides a working definition of safety culture and its key factors according to previous research. In doing so, chapter 3 considers the potential for safety culture to be applied to safeguarding and the sporting context. Chapter 4 presents the methods used in this thesis. This includes an explanation of the research paradigm, sampling and data collection process, participant profiles, data analysis and ethical considerations. This chapter also includes a reflexive summary from the author. A detailed discussion of results is performed in chapter 5. This chapter presents each identified or emerging factor, discussing it in relation to previous research findings and the sporting context. The thesis is concluded in chapter 6 where a summary of the findings is presented, along with a reflection on the limitations, practical implications and potential future research.

Chapter 2: Safeguarding Children in Sport

The present chapter provides a review of the child protection, safeguarding and child maltreatment literature in sport that is relevant to this thesis. It serves to provide a significant portion of both the context and rationale upon which the present thesis is conducted. To do so, this chapter has three main objectives, to review the conceptual issues that underpin safeguarding, to define, categorise and review the evidence of child maltreatment in sport and to provide an evidence based rationale for a cultural approach to safeguarding children in sport.

2.1 The Global and Historical Contexts of Child Maltreatment

The present state of safeguarding in sport is a culmination of various events throughout the 20th and 21st century. These developments not only provide valuable insight into the rationale for research and activism on safeguarding in sport today, but also the contexts through which the field has developed. Consequently, a review of the global and historical contexts of child maltreatment is necessary. In order to achieve this, the present section will adopt a definition of the concept of childhood, explaining the basis of a lack of consistency in its definition globally, which remains today, and has hindered the problematisation of child maltreatment. Various factors that contribute to this lack of consistency will be highlighted, along with the necessity for global research to be considerate of the various potential discrepancies so as to avoid confusion and conflation. Having discussed some of the key issues in the definition and conceptualisation of child maltreatment, this section will provide a comprehensive definition of the basis of all child protection and safeguarding initiatives, child maltreatment.

2.1.1 The recognition of childhood. The concept of childhood has not always been universally accepted or understood. Prior to the 16th century, children were perceived to be small adults, and their parents and guardians were given the freedom to interpret what was appropriate

for their child to do or endure, based on their particular competences (Hart, 1991). Cultural variations in matters such as the use of the term 'child', social norms and political systems, meant that childhood has been a highly subjective matter globally (Brackenridge, 2001). Consequently, with no congruence on precisely what childhood is, children were politically powerless, with no rights that recognised their unique challenges and vulnerabilities (Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2013).

After centuries of viewing children as miniature and inadequate representations of their parents, only in the past few hundred years has childhood been 'discovered' as a unique period of time that differentiates younger, developing people from fully developed adults (Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2013). Increasing research and activism contributed towards developments in public awareness of the physical and intellectual limitations that make children vulnerable and malleable in nature (Hart, 1991). Consequently, with this 'discovery' came various interpretations of what a child is, when this stage begins and ends, and what promotes and hinders their development. These interpretations have tended to differ on the grounds of historical timeframe, political and ideological stance, geographical location and cultural contexts (Brackenridge, 2001). In a bid to ensure global congruency for the definition of a child, which would provide the basis for uniform protection of children from various forms of harm, the United Nations (UN) defined the child as a human below the age of eighteen years (United Nations General Assembly, 1989).

The UN definition of childhood has not entirely settled debates about the definition and implications of childhood. Piper, Garratt and Taylor (2013) suggest that childhood is still unreliably defined between different countries and cultures as perceptions of childhood and its implications remain subject to various influencing factors that exert their influence differently

within a particular historical timeframe (Brackenridge, 2001). Such prevailing issues mean that although the UN definition and treaty provide a degree of conformity in theory, it may not always do so in practice. Different appreciations remain of childhood, which may be irrespective of any knowledge of the UN stance on childhood. Therefore, despite the present thesis adopting this definition of childhood, it would be naïve to assume that the definition of childhood is a settled matter, or that the UNs definition is recognised and appreciated in the same manner globally (Piper, Garratt & Taylor, 2013).

2.1.2 The problematisation of child maltreatment. Notwithstanding its conceptual and ideological incongruence, the global recognition of childhood has been central to the problematisation of child maltreatment in the 20th century and beyond. The issue of child maltreatment was brought into public prominence through the seminal article, *The Battered Child Syndrome* (Garbarino, Guttman & Seeley, 1986; Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2013). This focused on the symptoms of deliberate physical childhood abuse, presenting the issue as a matter of public concern, rather than a matter of preference in respects to parenting style. Though this work narrowly focused on the deliberate, physical abuse of children, it did provide a platform for further studies on the broader nature of child abuse and maltreatment (e.g. Garbarino, Guttman & Seeley, 1986), while giving voice to the pre-existing activist movement against child abuse. Additionally, further high-profile scandals in various countries throughout the world (e.g. Scotland, Australia & North America) enhanced the feeling that something needed to be done to ensure the protection of children against neglect, physical, sexual and emotional abuses (Parton, 2006).

The categorisation of children as a unique set of beings, along with the general swell of interest in the protection of children contributed to the development of arguably the most seminal

international legislation for children, the United Nation Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN General Assembly, 1989). Building upon the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and rooted in the UNs definition of childhood, this is a legally binding international treaty that ratifies children's rights globally in a wide variety of matters, most pertinently to this thesis, their right to be protected from violence, abuse, exploitation and neglect. Furthermore, it compels the governments that sign the treaty to act on matters relating to the protection of children, including ensuring there is adequate legislation, policies and practices in place. The treaty also provides those governments with a framework to assess their management and security of children's rights.

As with the UN definition of childhood, this treaty is subject to varying perceptions of significance globally, while it is also questionable how well known the treaty actually is amongst all adults working with children. Furthermore, it must be noted that not all governments throughout the world have signed the treaty, with Somalia and the USA not bound to the treaty at the time of writing. Nonetheless, with the governments of most countries bound to the UNCRC, it can be described as the most influential and applicable legislation for the protection of children globally. This treaty has moved the protection of children from a preference from particular sections of society, to a fundamental human right for the child.

2.1.3 Conceptual issues in the definition and categorisation of child maltreatment.

With the 'discovery' of childhood, the development of the UNCRC and the increasingly powerful argument for the necessity to protect children from various forms of harm, governments have responded accordingly, developing various national strategies and policies for the protection of children from harm (Parton, 2006). Understandably, these approaches have differed on the grounds of the ideological and conceptual differences of those developing them.

These differences may be based on disagreements on the definition and implications of childhood, and the precise definition and categorisation of concepts such as abuse, exploitation, violence, neglect and maltreatment.

Empirical evidence of the extent of these differences is offered by Ferrari who investigated the impact of culture upon parenting practices of 150 Hispanic, African Americans and European descendant participants. This study used a multitude of data collection methods including peer reviewed scales which measured; gender role attitudes, the value placed on children, attitudes towards family, the experience of childhood maltreatment, warmth towards their children and punitive behaviour towards their children. The study also collected participant's ratings of severity in response to several vignettes depicting child maltreatment. Significant differences were found between cultures in regard to their definition of maltreatment, and their actual parenting styles, such as their use of physical punishment. When culture was controlled for, differences also existed between genders in the typical approach taken to discipline, with machismo, regard for the family unit and the parents previous experience of childhood maltreatment impacting males and females differently (Ferrari, 2002). This provides further evidence of the significance of factors such as culture and popularised ideology in understandings of child maltreatment.

Differences in views on child maltreatment may be inevitable to a certain extent, though Crooks and Wolfe (2007) state that maltreatment should be generally viewed as “volitional acts that result in or have the potential to result in physical injuries or psychological harm” (p. 640). This includes acts of omission (neglect), commission (abuse), and exploitation which may be direct, indirect, intentional or unintentional (Parton, Thorpe & Wattam, 1997; Rhind, Brackenridge, Kay & Owusu-Sekyere, 2016). Based on this, maltreatment should be understood

as an all-encompassing term to describe an array of acts that can lead to the physical or psychological harm of children. This is expressed in the World Health Organisation's (WHO) comprehensive definition of child maltreatment, which is offered by Butchart, Putney Furniss and Kahane (2006) and states that maltreatment refers to;

“All forms of physical and/or emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse, neglect or negligent treatment or commercial or other exploitation, resulting in actual or potential harm to the child's health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust or power” (p.59).

The definition offered by the WHO may provide some global conformity on the definition of maltreatment. Though terms such as abuse, neglect and harassment are frequently used interchangeably and there is often a lack of standardisation within the literature in regard to definition and conceptualisation (Porter, Antonishak & Reppucci, 2006). Additionally, at the global, regional and national level, conflict exists regarding the extent to which authority figures should be prescriptive regarding the definition and constituents of maltreatment, or allow cultures to come to their own conclusions on such matters (Parton, Thorpe & Wattam, 1997; Westby, 2007).

One position is that maltreatment should be viewed as a relative matter that is impacted upon by ideological stance, cultural norms and specific historical contexts (Parton, Thorpe & Wattam, 1997). Particularly as key aspects of it, such as abuse, are “socially constructed phenomenon that reflect the values of a particular culture at a particular time” (Parton, Thorpe & Wattam, 1997, p.71). Evidence suggests that there is some credence in this position, and differences in perceptions of the most appropriate manner to administer child discipline, or to foster child development may hinge on cultural influences (Parton, Thorpe & Wattam, 1997

Bornstein & Cote, 2004; Westby, 2007). It can be argued that these differences are so prevalent that in every culture there may be practices that another may deem maltreatment, or at least questionable. Several examples of these discrepancies are offered in an extensive, globally review by Westby who states that, for example, while it is typical practice for North Americans to allow infants and young children to sleep in their own room and bed, some cultures may deem this neglect. Conversely, while some cultures may deem it good practice to sleep in the same bed as an infant child, many North Americans would argue that this is at best inappropriate behaviour (Westby, 2007).

With these differences in definition and categorisation, it is inevitable that variances would also emerge in what is perceived to be the most appropriate means of combatting child maltreatment. In this instance there is global, regional and national conflict between affording civil liberties, and the uniform protection of children (Westby, 2007). Thus, the UN and its constituent governments have had to consider the practical implications of offering various cultures the power to determine what is considered maltreatment and how it is best addressed. Some of the most significant potential implications include large global disparities in the quality of the prevention of maltreatment, tolerance of various forms of culturally rationalised abuse, the development of a dangerous cultural deficit framework and the ultimate inconsequentiality of the UNCRC (Westby, 2007).

With the potential for such negative implications, a strong argument has been that maltreatment should not be presented as a relative matter. Chan, Elliot, Chow and Thomas (2002) have suggested that maltreatment should be determined by the acts of individuals, and there should be a focus on outcomes, rather than intent, be it culturally derived or not. Agreeing with this stance, Westby (2007) argues that “children’s interests are best served by adopting an

absolutist approach...focusing on the experience of the child rather than the intent of the caregivers” (p. 144). This ‘absolutist’ approach argues that cultural practices should not be impregnable to critique. Instead they may be thought of as either beneficial, neutral, potentially harmful or harmful. Thus, maltreatment may be culturally accepted, idiosyncratic from accepted cultural practices, or derived from the societal issues that impact particular cultures (Westby, 2007). Based on this, the responsibility of those in power is to promote beneficial acts, understand and respect neutral acts, educate people over potentially harmful acts and put measures in place to prevent harmful acts (Koramo, Lynch & Kinnair, 2002).

The rationale behind this more objective approach is enhanced by the notion that it may be simplistic to assume that there are normative views of maltreatment that exist within all cultures, and that those views will remain stable throughout time. Particularly as the inextricable link between ideas of maltreatment and individuals sense of morality mean that differences in perceptions of maltreatment may permeate cultures, creating different and developing views, both between and within various cultures and sub-cultures. Therefore, with no end to the potential definitions, understandings and categorisations of abuse, legislating against, preventing and responding to maltreatment could become a simply insurmountable task.

Ideally, this leaning towards a more objective approach to maltreatment should not endorse cultural supremacy. It is still necessary for a debate to be had on the specifics of maltreatment, which should be inclusive, so as to come to a genuine global consensus or at least a majority agreement. For this reason, it is unfortunate that research on maltreatment has tended to experience a bias towards western global north countries, and there are significant gaps in the knowledge base on violence against children in North and sub-Saharan Africa, Asia, Central and African Europe, Asia and the Caribbean (Rhind, Brackenridge, Kay & Owusu-Sekyere, 2016).

This bias may develop understandings of various forms of maltreatment which are not appreciated equally globally. Nonetheless, while this is an area that requires further empirical attention, the present researcher seeks to review the literature that exists on its merit, though remain considerate in its analysis that conformity should not be taken for granted. Therefore, in spite of this limitation to the literature base, a review of existing literature can be conducted to understand currently popularised views of maltreatment and its constituents. This will be conducted based on the notion that maltreatment may be experienced subjectively, but can be defined objectively (Brackenridge, 2001).

2.1.4 Summary. The present section demonstrates the difficulty with which terms such as childhood and child maltreatment can be defined by presenting the global and historical contexts of work in this field. This includes the ‘recognition’ of childhood, the problematisation of child maltreatment and conceptual issues in the definition and categorisation of child maltreatment. Evidence is provided of the extent to which these issues differ on the grounds of ideological and cultural perspectives. Nonetheless, a relative approach to defining child maltreatment is rejected, and with the UN definition of childhood as anybody below the age of eighteen years, child maltreatment is defined as;

“All forms of physical and/or emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse, neglect or negligent treatment or commercial or other exploitation, resulting in actual or potential harm to the child’s health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust or power” (Butchart et al., 2006, p.59).

In this sense child maltreatment is defined as an occurrence which may be experienced subjectively, but can be defined objectively. This is enshrined as a basic right for all children through the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

2.2 Child Maltreatment in Sport

“The institution of sport was, at one time, a cultural and political island, defined as separate and free from the rest of society, with Cinderella status” (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014, p.329). With this wholesome status came an institutional ignorance towards issues of child maltreatment in sport, which in some instances, may have been selective (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014; Brackenridge, 2001; Brackenridge, 1994). This meant that researchers and activists experienced significant resistance and criticism from detractors who questioned the presence of the issue in sport, thus forcing researchers to prove the problem exists (Malkin, Johnston & Brackenridge, 2000; Brackenridge, 2005; Brackenridge, 2001). Consequently, research saw a swell of studies seeking to evidence the various forms of child maltreatment in sport (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014; Brackenridge & Rhind, 2010; Stirling, 2009).

With a growing evidence base and shifts in the global understanding of child maltreatment, sport has had to accept that child maltreatment exists in this context (Coalter, 2007; Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014; Kerr, 2010). Therefore, the extent of resistance to child maltreatment research in sport is likely to have diminished greatly. Nonetheless, it remains crucial for research on safeguarding in sport to provide evidence of the extent of the issue, while also identifying the key risk factors that safeguarding initiatives must address to be effective. Therefore, the purpose of the present section is to define, categorise and review the evidence of child maltreatment in sport. This includes an analysis of both the prevalence and risk factors of child maltreatment at all levels and in all types of sport where available.

2.2.1 Frameworks of child maltreatment in sport. Child maltreatment has typically been grouped into four categories; physical abuse, sexual abuse, neglect and emotional abuse (Raakman, Dorsch & Rhind, 2010; David, 2005). Although within recent years, various other

forms of maltreatment have been identified, and given increased attention in sport. This includes discrimination, corruption, child labour and institutional maltreatment (Raakman, Dorsch & Rhind, 2010; Stirling, 2009). Therefore, there remains a divide in the literature between those who take a narrower, traditional view of maltreatment (e.g. David, 2005), and those who have taken a broader view of maltreatment, including matters such as institutional discrimination (e.g. Stirling, 2009; Mountjoy, Rhind, Tiivas & Leglise, 2015).

Considering the conceptual and ideological differences that exist in regard to the definition of the child, child maltreatment and its constituent terms (e.g. abuse, neglect, violence), the absence of consensus on a framework for child maltreatment in sport creates the potential for an insurmountable number of configurations to exist globally. Researchers and practitioners may operate using the traditional configuration, or an expanded one with any conceivable amount of variation of maltreatment types. This lack of consensus on a framework for child maltreatment in sport is one of the greatest challenges of safeguarding work to date (Porter, Antonishak & Repucci, 2006). It not only hinders understanding, but also the replicability, and transferability of research over time (Stirling, 2009). Thus, the present thesis takes the stance that in order to embrace all potential configurations of maltreatment in sport, it is necessary to adopt a comprehensive view of maltreatment. This should allow the inclusion of various categorisations of maltreatment, while capturing the full spectrum of child maltreatment that may exist in sport.

Though very few frameworks of child maltreatment in sport exist, a comprehensive one is offered by Stirling (2009) (Figure 1). Rooted in Crooks and Wolfe's definition of maltreatment (2007), this framework differentiates relational maltreatment from non-relational maltreatment. Relational maltreatment is understood as maltreatment which occurs "within the context of a

critical relationship role, in which the relationship has significant influence over an individual's sense of safety, trust, and fulfilment of needs" (Stirling, 2009, p.1092; Crooks & Wolfe, 2007). This includes relationships with coaches, medical staff, teammates and parents. Relational maltreatment includes the traditional four forms of maltreatment, physical abuse, sexual abuse, emotional abuse and neglect. Meanwhile, Non-relational maltreatment refers to various types of maltreatment which do not occur within the contexts of a critical relationship between the abuser and the victim (Stirling, 2009). Therefore, while the victim may know the abuser, they would not have a significant relationship with them. This grouping of maltreatment includes previously discussed forms of maltreatment such as physical abuse, sexual discrimination, sexual harassment and sexual abuse. Although non-relational maltreatment also includes broader matters such as bullying, harassment, institutional maltreatment, corruption/exploitation, and child labour.

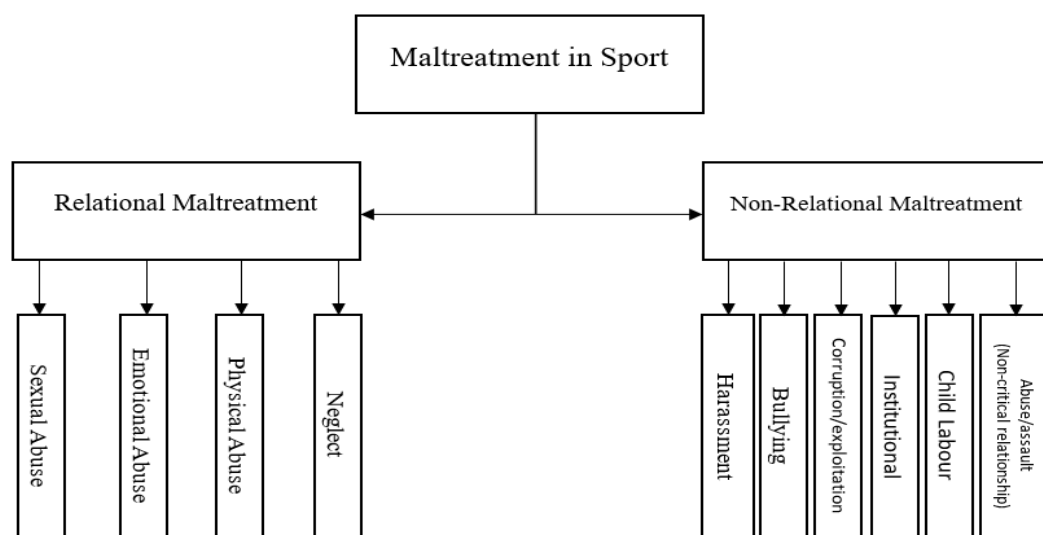


Figure 1. Stirling's Framework of Child Maltreatment in Sport (2009)

Stirling's (2009) framework provides the most comprehensive outlook on child maltreatment that has been offered in sport to date. Though it can be advanced with the addition

of previously neglected, or recently acknowledged forms of maltreatment, such as virtual maltreatment (Kavanagh & Jones, 2014). It can also be advanced with the recognition that child maltreatment may be experienced directly (i.e. specifically aimed at the child in question), or indirectly (i.e. performed in the presence of, but not aimed at the child in question) (Raakman, Dorsch & Rhind, 2010). This is particularly significant considering findings that maltreatment has the potential to impact the wellbeing of children, even when they were not the subject of it (Omli & LaVoi, 2009), and findings from an observational study with football and hockey officials which suggest that approximately 80% of children's experiences of maltreatment are indirect (Raakman, Dorsch & Rhind, 2010). Therefore, as the present section provides evidence for, and discusses the risk factors of child maltreatment in sport, this will generally follow the framework offered by Stirling (2009). Though the present thesis will also consider indirect maltreatment and discuss other forms of maltreatment which have been overlooked by this model.

2.2.2 Sexual exploitation. There is no universally accepted definition of maltreatment of a sexual nature, so discrepancies and inconsistencies exist between ideas of sexual abuse, harassment, exploitation and discrimination (Brackenridge, 2001). Although, it is generally agreed that such maltreatment is a process, rather than an event, and involves sexual attention of varying nature that is unwanted by the victim (Brackenridge, Bishop, Moussali & Tapp, 2008). Brackenridge (2001) has previously identified sexual discrimination, harassment and abuse along a broader continuum of sexual exploitation. In this sense, sexual exploitation should be understood as the broadest form of sexual maltreatment, which consists of discrimination, harassment and abuse (Brackenridge, 2001), as seen in Figure 2). Sexual discrimination may exist across the full spectrum of sexual exploitation, while sexual harassment is considered a

moderate form of maltreatment, as opposed to the most extreme form of maltreatment of a sexual nature, sexual abuse (Brackenridge, 2001; Brackenridge, Bishop, Moussali & Tapp, 2008).

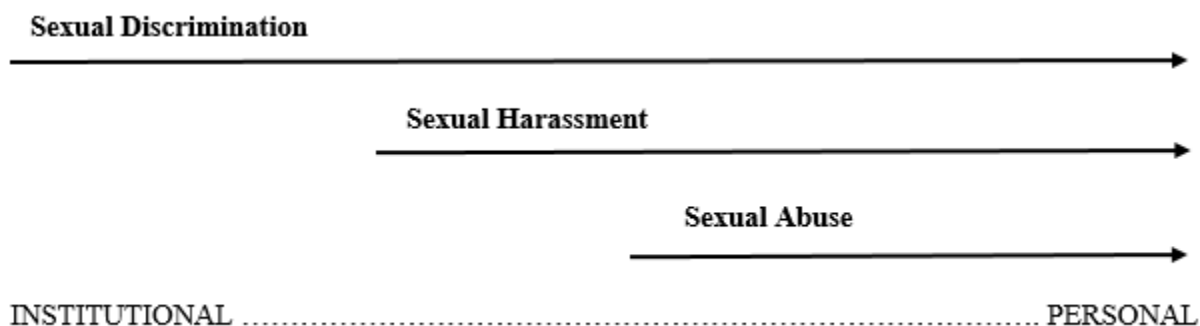


Figure 2. Sexual Exploitation Continuum (Brackenridge, 2001)

At all levels of sexual exploitation, sexual discrimination is present. Sexual discrimination, often colloquially referred to as ‘sexism’ is typically an institutional practice in which people are divided on the grounds of gender, age, race and/or sexuality (Brackenridge, 2001). Examples include institutional policies and practices which oppresses particular demographics, while unfairly promoting or serving the needs or desires of others. This is rarely traceable to one individual, but instead reflects prejudices towards particular groups within society that are defined by their sex or sexuality (Brackenridge, 2001).

Despite the potential for sexual discrimination to also cause significant harm, literature has tended to focus on the forms of sexual exploitation which exist at the moderate to extreme aspect of the continuum, and impact individuals on a personal level; sexual harassment and abuse. Research suggests that despite Brackenridge’s framework presenting a clear distinction between the two, it is difficult to differentiate between sexual harassment and sexual abuse in practice (Brackenridge & Fasting 2005). For this reason, many researchers have highlighted that both involve discrimination and a misuse of power (Brackenridge, Bishop, Moussali & Tapp,

2008), although some researchers have defined them separately, while others have described abuse as a form of harassment.

The categorisation of sexual abuse and sexual harassment is made difficult by variance in their individual definition, although the two terms can be distinguished with a focus on the extent to which the victim is forced to acquiesce with the perpetrators sexual actions. Fasting and Brackenridge (2005) state that the most consistent feature in various definitions of sexual harassment is the notion of “unwanted sexual attention” (p.22). Examples of this include lewd comments, sexual jokes and stalking. Conversely, sexual abuse has been popularly defined as “any sexual interaction with person(s) of any age that is perpetrated against the victims will, without consent or in an aggressive, exploitative, manipulative or threatening manner” (Ryan & Lane, 1997, p.3). Examples of this include non-contact acts such as coerced observation of masturbation, contact acts such as groping, and penetrative sexual acts. Therefore, where sexual harassment involves the victims demonstrable lack of interest in the sexual attention given to them, the victim has not been groomed, coerced or forced to comply with the desires of the perpetrator (Fasting & Brackenridge, 2009; Brackenridge, 2001). Whereas in the case of sexual abuse, the victim is groomed, coerced, or forced to collaborate with sexual acts, typically through entrapment (Fasting & Brackenridge, 2009; Brackenridge, 2001). This is despite a lack of consent, or an inability for consent to be given (Leahy, Pretty & Tenenbaum., 2002).

With these definitions, it is clear that the same act may be deemed harassment or abuse depending on the contexts within which they occur, and whether or not the victim was groomed, coerced or forced to comply. Further, it is possible for one instance of maltreatment to involve both harassment and abuse as the situation progresses (Fasting & Brackenridge, 2009; Brackenridge, 2001). The matter is further conflated by research often referring to sexual abuse,

but providing examples of harassment, or failing to clarify the contexts within which the act may be harassment or abuse. In order to ensure clarity in the present thesis, where the precise form of sexual exploitation cannot be known, the broader term will be used to incorporate sexual discrimination, harassment and abuse, allowing the full breadth of maltreatment of a sexual nature to be represented.

Evidence of sexual exploitation in sport. The issue of child maltreatment in sport was initially brought to prominence through high profile sexual exploitation cases. The most prominent of those cases included former Olympic Swimming coach Paul Hickson, who was convicted of 15 counts of sexual exploitation against teenage swimmers he had worked with in Britain (Brackenridge, 2001), and previously celebrated Canadian ice hockey coach Graham James, who was convicted for sexual abuse of former youth athletes, including the well-known player, Sheldon Kennedy (Donnelly, Kerr, Heron & DiCarlo, 2016). These cases awakened the public to issues of child maltreatment in sport, and contributed to practical and research interest in child maltreatment in this context. Therefore, of all types of maltreatment, sexual exploitation, and sexual harassment and abuse in particular, have received the most attention to date (Brackenridge, 2001).

Initially this work typically utilised quantitative methods to provide evidence of the prevalence of sexual harassment and abuse. Such research has been conducted in a variety of countries including Australia (Leahy, Pretty & Tenenbaum, 2002), the USA (Volkwein, Schnell, Sherwood & Livezey, 1997), Canada (Kirby & Greeves, 1996), Norway (Fasting, Brackenridge & Sundgot-Borgen., 2004), the UK (Benedict & Klein, 1997; Alexander, Stafford & Lewis, 2011) and Denmark (Nielsen, 2001). Within these early studies, and subsequent reconstructions of them, findings of the prevalence of sexual exploitation in sport have differed greatly. For

example, in the first ever national level survey of sexual harassment and abuse in sport, Kirby and Greeves (1996) reported a prevalence of 22% in Canada amongst recently retired high-performance athletes, and a survey conducted in Australia with former elite and club level youth athletes found that 13% of female athletes and 6% of male athletes experienced sexual abuse in the sporting environment (Leahy et al., 2002). More recently, in a national survey on the experiences of children participating in organised sport in the UK, Alexander and colleagues found that 29% of young athletes had experienced sexual harassment, while 3% had experienced sexual abuse (Alexander et al., 2011). In another recent study with over 4,000 former youth athletes in the Netherlands and Belgium, 14% of respondents reported experiencing at least one form of sexual exploitation (Vertommen et al., 2015), while a study from Australia with 107 participants from over 34 different sports found that over 35% of participants had experienced sexual exploitation of some form (McPherson, et al., 2015).

Previously, Brackenridge has described statistics on child sexual exploitation as notoriously unreliable (Brackenridge, 1994). Although it is possible that variance in prevalence rates reported are a consequence of differences in nations, sports, competitive level and the experiences of differing genders. It is also important to note that prevalence may fluctuate with time, and in response to particular contexts, which means that significant differences are not necessarily indicative of variance in the quality of research. Though Fasting suggests that even with these matters accounted for, differences and inconsistencies in prevalence literature often occur due to differences in definition, sampling, response rate and trustworthiness (Fasting, 2005). Similarly, Brackenridge has discussed the political significance of abuse statistics which may cause under reporting of some literature which fails to distinguish the research from its potential political implications (Brackenridge, 2001). Such literature has also tended to

experience a gender bias, with a predominant focus on male perpetrators and female victims (Parent & Bannon, 2012). This may impact prevalence statistics as male victims are less likely to report incidents of abuse, and more likely to use dissociative coping strategies due to fears of losing their masculine identity, or being subjected to subsequent bullying by their peers (Hartill, 2013; Parent & Bannon, 2012). With so many issues in determining the prevalence of sexual harassment and abuse in sport, Brackenridge and colleagues suggest that the actual prevalence of sexual harassment and abuse in sport may be anywhere between 2% and 22% (Brackenridge et al., 2008). Though this is an extremely wide range, it must be considered that globally there are millions of children who partake in sport in a variety of forms. Therefore, whatever figure is accepted within this range, it is at worst an issue of epidemic proportion, and at best a significant issue for children in sport (Brackenridge, 1994).

With the general acknowledgement that sexual exploitation is an issue in sport, qualitative research has sought to further our understanding of the nature of the issue in sport. Some of this work has been on matters such as the grooming process (e.g. Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005), the typically unquestionable power of the coach (Fasting & Sand, 2015), and the consequences of sexual exploitation (e.g. Leahy, Pretty & Tenenbaum, 2003). Though this work has focused mainly on understanding the risk factors of sexual exploitation in sport (Cense and Brackenridge, 2001; Fasting, 2005). Brackenridge (2001) presents a summary of the risk factors of sexual exploitation in sport which separates coach, athlete and organisational variables that must be addressed to mitigate the risk of sexual abuse or harassment in sport. The framework is rooted in the notion that sexual exploitation occurs from expressions of agency, though they only do so within the structural limits and cultural contexts (Brackenridge, 2001). This is not just relevant to perpetrators, but also bystanders who can become permissive within a bystander

culture (Brackenridge, Kay & Rhind, 2012). Therefore, it is argued that the organisational culture is fundamental to preventing sexual exploitation in sport, and Brackenridge (2001) offers support for Fasting and Sand's (2015) finding that risk factors such as the unquestionable power of the coach are exacerbated by unprofessional atmospheres and cultures of unchallenged sexually discriminatory attitudes.

2.2.3 Physical abuse. Physical abuse is the most readily identifiable form of abuse (Stirling, 2009). Often referred to as violence, physical abuse can be understood as the exposure to actual or significant risk of physical harm, trauma or injury (Matthews, 2004; Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2013). This includes acts where physical contact has taken place (e.g. the child has been hit), or where no physical contact has taken place (the child has been coerced to inflict physical pain on themselves) (Stirling, 2009). This is typically inflicted by parents or care givers using inappropriate or excessive physicality to discipline children (Matthews, 2004).

One seminal debate in the definition of physical abuse has been the extent to which the perpetrator must have an intention to do harm before the act can be considered physical abuse. For example, Reiss and Roth (1993) have discussed physical abuse as only entailing intentional acts to harm, while Kerr (2010) discusses a pattern of deliberate behaviour as underpinning physical abuse. Though it seems reasonable to differentiate between those acts with an objective to cause harm, and those without, it is arguable that regardless of an intention to cause harm, actions that expose children to significant risk of, or actual harm are necessarily abusive. Particularly as in many cases it may be impractical to conduct an adequate investigation into the precise intention behind one's actions (Crowell & Burgess, 1996). For this reason, and in order to remain consistent with the previously offered definition of maltreatment, the present thesis adopts the approach of Chan, Elliot, Chow and Thomas (2002) which states that one should

determine maltreatment by the physical acts of individuals, and their outcomes, rather than intentionality.

In this sense intentionality should not be conflated with volition or agency. The present thesis takes the stance that an intention to cause harm is not relevant in the fundamental identification of maltreatment, though it is necessary that such acts should be acts of volition. In other words, while the intention for their actions to be harmful should not be considered in the identification of abuse, the act must be derived from the perpetrator making the choice to voluntarily execute such acts. In this sense, the present thesis is in agreement with Matthews (2004) who defined physical abuse as non-accidental trauma or physical injury, and Crooks and Wolfe (2007) who included volition as a key element of the definition of maltreatment. This includes contact based physical abuse (e.g. punching, kicking, biting etc.), and non-contact based abuse (e.g. forced physical exertion, forcing athletes to take performance enhancing drugs etc.).

Evidence of physical abuse in sport. David (2005) presents the four types of research which are commonly produced in relation to physical abuse in sport; excessive, intensive and inappropriate training where children are socialised to ensure pain and injury (e.g. Fenton & Pitter, 2010), violence during competitions, including that which comes from parents and spectators (e.g. Spaaij, 2014), peer violence, including that which may arise from bullying or hazing (e.g. David, 2005; Stafford et al., 2013) and direct and indirect violence from adults, such as forced physical exertion (e.g. Kerr, 2010). Though research on these topics is not as plentiful as research on other abuses (e.g. sexual abuse). Oliver and Lloyd (2015) state that a dichotomy exists between the positive benefits that conditioning can have for children, and the potential for this to become excessive, inappropriate and abusive. With this, sport has struggled to draw a clear line on when aggressive play, punishment or playing through injury becomes physically

abusive. Instead the acceptance of pain and a desire to be physical and aggressive in the sporting environment is considered normative, or desirable characteristics that contribute to athletic success (Coakley, 2007; Alexander et al., 2011). So much so that athletes, coaches, staff, parents and various other people involved in sport encourage young athletes to conform in order to maintain their athletic image, avoid negative sanctions and win the respect of their peers and coaches (Malcom, 2006; Stafford, Alexander & Fry, 2013). For this reason, there is very little research on physical abuse in sport globally, and it does less to trigger the moral panic that other abuses do (David, 2005; Fenton & Pitter, 2010). Though some evidence does exist.

For example, in Vertommen and colleagues study with over 4,000 former youth athletes in Holland and Belgium, 11% of participants reported experiencing physical violence (Vertommen et al., 2016). McPherson and colleagues also found 34% of 93 former youth athletes in Australia had experienced forced physical exertion, while 12.9% experienced being 'shoved, thrown or shaken' (Vertommen, et al., 2015). In the UK, Alexander and colleagues administered over 6000 questionnaires to former youth athletes, finding that 24% (n=1433) experienced physical abuse, while 10% self-harmed as youth athletes (Alexander et al., 2011). This was similar to Brackenridge and colleagues review of 132 historic cases of abuse in football which found a physical abuse prevalence of 22% (Brackenridge et al., 2005).

It is worth noting that these studies are from organised sport, thus do not necessarily provide evidence for certain aspects of sport for development and recreational sport. Although evidence of physical abuse in other forms of sport is also offered from various other countries. In the United States, in a famous, yet typical case, a 12-year-old boy was hospitalised after his Physical Education teacher forced him to complete over 250 squats (Clarkson, 2006). Evidence is also emanating from eastern societies such as China (Hong, 2004) and Taipei, where 119

Sports students were injured and 20 were hospitalised for excessive training in inappropriate environments (Lin, Lin, Wang & Leu, 2005). While in an international study with adolescent club level swimmers (n=231) from Greece, Japan, Sweden and the U.S it was found that 35% of young athletes experienced symptoms which suggested that they were suffering from overtraining (Raglin, Sawamura, Alexiou, Hassmen & Kentta, 2000).

Though the literature has taken such varied approaches to understanding physical abuse in sport, it has provided evidence that throughout various countries, and at various levels, a range of physical abuses occur in sport (Oliver & Lloyd, 2015; Stafford et al., 2013; David, 2005). Once again, evidence also suggests that contextual, organisational and cultural practices may enable or exacerbate the likeliness of such abuses to occur. For example, after a mixed methods study on childhood experiences of sport in which 107 former youth athletes completed surveys, and 10 participants undertook in depth interviews, McPherson et al., (2015) found evidence that some sporting cultures may not only allow physical abuse, but facilitate it by encouraging and fostering an environment in which extreme training is an expectation for children. This study further found evidence that elite young athletes in particular may become helpless and trapped, in organisational cultures in which colleagues do not challenge their peers' behaviours and promote secrecy in relation to abuse. This provides support for Brackenridge's argument that the physical demands of training, emotional toughness and a culture of resilience in sports may have actually masked abuse (Brackenridge 2005), or at least masked the extent of physical abuse in sport.

2.2.4 Emotional abuse. Emotional abuse is arguably the most inconsistently defined, but prevalently discussed form of maltreatment (Glaser, 2002). It has been operationalised in many different ways and is typically incorrectly conflated or discussed interchangeably with terms

such as psychological abuse, verbal abuse and mental cruelty (O'Hagan, 1995). Additionally, complexities with the identification, definition and characterisation of emotional abuse have meant that it has been described as the 'elusive' form of child abuse (Garbarino, Guttman & Seeley, 1986).

Emotional abuse should be understood as "a repeated pattern of caregiver behaviour or extreme incidents that convey to children that they are worthless, flawed, unloved, unwanted, endangered or of value only in meeting another's needs" (American Professional Society on the Abuse of Children (ASPAC), 1995, p.2). This may be conveyed to the child as the perpetrator administers a variety of potentially emotionally abusive behaviours such as; belittling, humiliating, shouting, scapegoating, rejecting, isolating, threatening, and ignoring (Garbarino, Guttman & Seeley, 1986; Gervis & Dunn, 2004). These behaviours include acts of commission and omission and require no physical contact to have taken place (Glaser, 2002).

With every form of maltreatment, there is an emotional element. For this reason, it has been argued that emotional abuse may occur independently, or in conjunction with another form of maltreatment (APSAC, 1995; Shaffer, Yates & Egeland, 2009). It is also possible for emotional abuse to have occurred even where there is no intention to do harm (O'Hagan, 1995). Although crucial to note is the necessity for such behaviours to be administered in a repetitive and sustained manner, so as to typify the nature of the relationship between the child and their abuser (Gervis & Dunn, 2004; Owusu-Sekyere & Gervis, 2016; O'Hagan, 1995). Further, it is imperative that the behaviours provoke a negative emotional response in the child (O'Hagan, 1995).

Emotional abuse in sport. Research on athletes' experiences of emotional abuse have only recently emerged (Stirling, 2009). One of the first studies on emotional abuse in youth sport

was conducted by Gervis and Dunn (2004) who conducted retrospective interviews with 10 former elite youth athletes from a variety of sports. The study found that all participants had been subjected to emotionally abusive behaviours by their coaches, and had suffered residual effects such as performance decline, feeling worthless, under confident and rejected. This provided evidence for the suggestion that youth athletes typically suffer emotional abuse within the contexts of the coach-athlete relationship. This study directly called into question some accepted coaching practices, arguing that such experiences are unlikely to be isolated incidents, but indicative of a wider issue in sport. Considering the suggestion that emotional abuse implicitly exists in all other forms of abuse (APSAC, 1995; Shaffer et al., 2009), this is highly likely to be the case.

There are some limitations to such studies. The small, female only group of participants provides a lack of diversity in the sample (Stirling & Kerr, 2015). The study is also limited by its retrospective nature, which may lessen, exaggerate or distort the recollections of participants. Nonetheless, ethical considerations suggest that this is the most appropriate and practical manner in which to conduct such research in order to avoid the many potential negative effects of questioning children about their ongoing experience of abuse. Therefore, in spite of these limitations, this study is credited as providing the first substantial evidence that emotional abuse is present in youth sport (Stirling & Kerr, 2015). This claim is provided further support by a subsequent quantitative study with former youth athletes (n=543) from a variety of recreational, club, regional, national and international sporting contexts (Gervis, 2009). This study found that the higher the level of competition, the higher the likelihood that young athletes will experience emotional abuse. For example, while recreational youth athletes stated that at most they had rarely experienced emotional abuse, 20% of national level youth athletes experienced emotional

abuse regularly, while 12% of international level youth athletes reported very often or constantly experiencing emotionally abusive behaviours. This had a detrimental emotional effect, and a negative impact on performance.

More recent evidence of emotional abuse in sport is offered by Stirling and Kerr (2008) who explored the experiences of 14 former elite level youth Swimmers in Canada. Once again, all athletes reported experiencing emotional abuse from their coach throughout their youth careers. This came in the form of a mixture of physical and verbally abusive actions. Additionally, support is offered in more recent large-scale study in which the experiences of over 6000 former youth athletes of various levels were examined. This study found that 75% of male and female young athletes suffered emotional abuse (Alexander et al., 2011). This was perpetrated in the contexts of significant relationships with coaches and parents. Though interestingly, the most commonly reported perpetrators were their peers. The tendency for peers to be the perpetrators decreased as competitive level increased. This study supported the findings of Gervis (2010) that the tendency to suffer emotional abuse from the coach increases as the competitive level increases.

Unfortunately, the vast majority of research on emotional abuse in sport has been conducted in the UK and North America. Therefore, it is difficult to draw conclusions as to how widespread the issue is, though some exceptions have emerged recently. This includes the work of McPherson and colleagues (McPherson et al., 2015), who found that 65% of 107 former youth athletes had experienced some form of emotional abuse in Australia. This included being bullied, shouted and sworn at by peers, coaches, parents and/or spectators. Similarly, in Belgium and the Netherlands, 38% of the 4,000 participants surveyed discussed experiencing at least one incident

of emotional abuse (Vertommen et al., 2016). Therefore, there is emerging evidence that emotional abuse may not only be an issue in these regions, but globally.

Along with these studies of the prevalence of emotional abuse, research has also discussed the risk factors of emotional abuse. Of the most frequently discussed contributing factors are the closeness of the coach-athlete relationship, the significant amount of time spent between the coach and athlete, and the exponential and typically unquestionable power that the coach tends to have over the young athlete and their parents (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2010; Gervis & Dunn, 2004; Stirling & Kerr, 2008). All of these factors tend to increase as a child athlete progresses to higher competitive levels (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2010; Gervis & Dunn, 2004; Stirling & Kerr, 2008). However, there is also evidence of the impact that organisational culture can have, both as a risk factor and through intensifying or facilitating the influence of other risk factors.

Richardson, Andersen and Morris (2008) state that the demands placed on youth athletes are often abusive, yet unchallenged and culturally accepted as a part of sport and a means to demonstrating their toughness. This is supported by empirical research. For example, in a recent qualitative study with 12 elite youth coaches in the UK, it was found that some elite youth coaches may perform emotionally abusive behaviours under the misconception that they are developmental, and will ultimately result in the athlete possessing the type of character that is resistant to the emotional fluctuations that would hinder sporting performance (Owusu-Sekyere & Gervis, 2016). Similar findings have also been found by Stirling (2013), who conducted semi-structured interviews with youth coaches from Canada who admitted to using emotionally abusive behaviours as a means to express their frustrations, and under the genuine belief that they would develop the young athlete. These findings may have applicability beyond competitive

and elite youth sport, and may illustrate the importance of culture which can impact individuals' ideas of what is normal or even beneficial. Stirling and Kerr (2008) found that young athlete's in particular tend to be willing to accept abuse as a part of the process, particularly if they experience respected and more experienced players accepting the same behaviour. Tibbert, Anderson and Morris provided evidence of this in a longitudinal study in which an athlete experienced enculturation and transformed from being resistant to the demands placed on him, to willingly incurring and internalising abuse based on the belief that it demonstrated toughness (Tibbert, Anderson & Morris, 2015). This further suggests the importance of culture on the incidence of child maltreatment in sport.

2.2.5 Neglect. Neglect is the only form of maltreatment which is exclusively defined by acts of omission. Neglect broadly refers to the failure to provide reasonable care (Glaser, 2002). In this sense, reasonable care is defined in relation to accepted societal standards to food, shelter, protection and affection (Crooks and Wolfe, 2007). This may be understood as failing to meet the basic physical and emotional human needs of a child by depriving them of attention (Iwaniec, 2003). Although ones physical and emotional needs are not necessarily linked. One may meet the child's physical needs, while failing to meet their emotional needs, while a failure to meet the child's emotional needs will always result in a failure to meet their emotional needs (Daniel & Taylor, 2004).

Stirling's (2009) framework of child maltreatment suggests that neglect in sport may exist in four forms, where an adult fails to provide reasonable care in relation to the child's physical, educational, emotional and social needs. Neglect may co-exist with other forms of maltreatment, such as emotional abuse, while it may also exist independently (Daniel & Taylor, 2004). Neglect also has varying degrees of severity which can be determined by the duration,

frequency and the magnitude of the outcome of neglect (Miller-Perrin & Perrin, 2013). Neglect that has taken place over a sustained period, with serious consequences, which involve several failures to provide reasonable care are considered the most extreme. With this general principle, individual acts or failure to act can be dismissed as mistakes or single incidents of bad judgment, rather than indicative of maltreatment within a relationship.

Neglect in sport. As neglect can occur in a physical or emotional manner, it is rare for research in sport to discuss neglect as an isolated concept. Stirling (2009) and Kerr (2010) have stated that no dedicated research on neglect in sport actually exists. Instead it is typically included within categories such as emotional abuse, or physical abuse. In the case of emotional abuse, key research in the field such as that conducted by Gervis (2004) may include neglect under the heading of ‘rejecting’, ‘isolating’, or ‘ignoring’. While overtraining, which is a form of physical abuse, may also be considered a form of neglect in which the child’s limitations and need for rest and a more suitable training regime is unrecognised or ignored.

It is therefore questionable how successful literature has been at distinguishing other forms of child maltreatment in sport from neglect, or if this is even possible. Some examples include Rhind and colleagues review of safeguarding cases in the UK. This study found that of a total of 652 cases, 1.2% of cases included allegations in regard to neglect (Rhind et al., 2015). With the nature of 13% of total allegations not recorded, this figure may have been higher, while other forms of maltreatment such as physical and emotional abuse are likely to have included elements of neglect. Similarly, when Brackenridge and colleagues analysed 132 case files from Football in the UK, 3.8% of case referrals were of neglect (Brackenridge, Bringer & Bishopp, 2005). While in a mixed methods study conducted on the sporting experiences of children of mixed ethnicities in Australia, 107 surveys were administered to former youth athletes at varying

levels, with the most extreme cases also conducting follow up interviews (McPherson, et al., 2015). Findings suggested that despite mainly positive experiences in sport, 8% stated that they were regularly ignored in their primary sport, while 9% were regularly ignored in their secondary sport. This demonstrated an emotional neglect, while findings regarding physical harm may also constitute physical neglect, this includes 13% of participants being forced to train while injured.

It is clear that more research is needed in this area on the incidence of neglect as an exclusive form of abuse in sport. With such a paucity of data on neglect in sport, it is difficult to draw much conclusion on the prevalence and risk factors of neglect, particularly with the tendency for neglect to be included as a subcategory of other forms of abuse (e.g. emotional abuse & physical abuse). Also, with no evidence to suggest that the risk factors of neglect differ when it occurs by itself, it can be said that neglect may also be facilitated by the cultural and organisational factors discussed in terms of other forms of abuse.

2.2.6 Non-relational maltreatment. Non-relational maltreatment refers to various types of maltreatment which do not occur within the contexts of a critical relationship between the abuser and the victim (Stirling, 2009). Therefore, this grouping of maltreatment includes previously discussed forms of maltreatment such as physical abuse, sexual discrimination, sexual harassment and sexual abuse. These forms of maltreatment may occur in the form of non-relational maltreatment in which the victim does not have a significant relationship with the perpetrator. In order to avoid repetition, those types of non-relational maltreatment will not be discussed again here.

Despite acknowledgements that non-relational maltreatment may be a significant issue, little empirical research has been conducted on non-relational maltreatment in sport (Stirling, 2009). Instead literature has tended to focus on relational maltreatment and the more traditional

forms of abuse. Therefore, the evidence base for non-relational maltreatment is limited, and this is another area future research may focus on. Even when non-relational maltreatment is discussed in research, it is often conflated with relational maltreatment, limiting understanding of non-relational maltreatment specifically. For example, while Stirling offers the work of Volkwein (1997) as an example of non-relational harassment research, this work is explicit to sexual harassment, and makes no distinction between harassment which is relational or non-relational. Although they have not been covered in great detail, or with great specificity, areas that have been discussed are; institutional maltreatment, bullying and hazing, virtual maltreatment and self-harm and eating disorders.

Institutional maltreatment. Institutional maltreatment describes the abusive, exploitative, discriminatory or neglectful practices of a particular child serving organisation as a whole (Stirling, 2009). Such practices are intertwined in the organisations functioning and may be reflected in their policies or procedures. Therefore, while individuals may enact various other forms of maltreatment, they only do so as they engage with the organisations systematic maltreatment of children. Examples include an institutions failure to meet standards of care for children that are regularly in their care.

There are very few explicit studies on institutional maltreatment in sport (Stirling, 2009). Though there is growing concern of the forms of harm and maltreatment that sport and sporting institutions can cause directly or indirectly to children. One growing area of interest in regard to non-relational maltreatment which may be linked to institutional maltreatment is the exploration of the impact of major sporting events on children, who may or may not be sporting participants. Child rights organisation Ter Des Hommes have recently launched the Children Win campaign to prevent Sexual Exploitation, police violence, forced eviction and displacement and child

labour which is directly and indirectly associated with major sporting events around the world. Following the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, Brackenridge et al., (2013) produced a report based on interviews with 70 experts in non-governmental organisations, sporting organisations and government departments, a systematic literature review and case studies of various global major sporting events (Brackenridge et al., 2013). Findings from this report suggest that as a result of major sporting events, the risk of child labour, trafficking, sexual exploitation and displacement significantly increase (Brackenridge et al., 2013).

A similar follow up study conducted in Brazil found that particularly during the construction phase of major sporting events the risk of maltreatment to children is increased exponentially (Rotteveel, 2014). This is a result of displacement, which separates families and traditional support systems, while forcing children to find means to provide for themselves. These means tend to be prostitution and robbery. Furthermore, the 2014 report also found that while officials do not understand the connection between the events and child maltreatment, staff and associated people brought in to prepare for events themselves can provide a threat to local children. The 2014 report presented tentative evidence to suggest that sexual tourism and the sexual exploitation of children, particularly through forced prostitution tends to increase before and during major sporting events (Rotteveel, 2014).

This form of maltreatment has applicability to the concept of organisational culture. Where maltreatment occurs as a result of the organisations general approach, is intertwined in the organisations functioning and is reflected in their policies or procedures, it is reasonable to suggest that a change in organisational culture may have a significant positive impact by addressing those contributing factors. This is of relevance for all sporting organisations, though in the case of institutional maltreatment which accompanies major sporting events,

Brackenridge, Rhind and Palmer-Felgate (2015) point to the seminal position of governing bodies. They state that “positive leadership from these culturally powerful bodies could prove decisive in shifting hearts, minds, and actions in the direction of improved safety for children” (p.247). This suggests that along with those organisations who focus on the delivery of sport, the development of a cultural approach to safeguarding children should also consider influential governing bodies who are tasked with regulating their specific type or level of sport.

Bullying and hazing. Hazing describes humiliating or dangerous acts that individuals are forced to partake in to join a group, regardless of a willingness to partake (Hoover, 2000, as cited in Stirling, 2009). This form of maltreatment is based on an imbalance of power, with one or more existing members of a group victimising a new or aspiring member (Stirling, 2009). Within Stirling’s (2009) framework, hazing is coupled with bullying, though in recognition that bullying is a sub-category of emotional abuse, hazing is discussed in isolation within this thesis.

Hazing is arguably the most common form of non-relational maltreatment (Stirling, 2009), and research on hazing in sport has tended to originate from North America (Fields, Collins & Cornstock, 2010). For example, one study from the USA found that 17% of sixth to 12th grade athletes (n=1105) had experienced some form of hazing (Gershel, Katz-Sidlow, Small & Zandieh, 2003). Another study from the USA with young athletes from a variety of Athletics events also found that over half of high school athletics students had been subjected to hazing (Hoover & Pollard, 2000, as cited in Stirling, 2009). While in a national survey, of 10,000 athletes, 68% of College students reported being involved in a humiliating or degrading initiation activity. Respondents rated over a quarter of these incidents as having a high potential to cause injury, or having criminal implications (Hoover, 1999, as cited in Stirling, 2009). Most

participants also stated that their first experiences of hazing occurred before the age of 13, while 10% of those who had experienced hazing stated that they did so before the age of nine.

The lack of representation within the literature hinders the generalizability of its findings. Nonetheless, some of the biggest risk factors of hazing are described as a lack of motivation from those around sport, regardless of the level or type, to understand the severity of hazing (Stirling, 2009). This suggests that organisations may be advantaged by organisation wide approaches that reduce ignorance of the risk factors, process and impact of hazing. For example, in finding that 29% of student athletes had suffered some form of hazing, it was found that those in a position of power often fail to address the issue as they downplay and rationalise it as team bonding activities that enhance team identity (Hinkle, 2005, as cited in Stirling, 2009). Fields and colleagues say that this occurs as sports clubs, schools and coaches lack guidance and knowledge on how to prevent hazing, particularly as they seek to counterbalance the freedom of expression and privacy of their young people, with their safety (Fields, Collins & Cornstock, 2010).

Virtual maltreatment. Technological advancements and shifts in modern society have resulted in an increased use of technology as a means for communication. This has also changed the way athletes communicate with each other and with fans (Pegoraro, 2010). There is an increase in the virtual relationships young athletes can have with each other and fans, thus, fans are currently able to bypass traditional gatekeepers such as coaches and officials, gaining unprecedented digital access to young athletes (Hutchins, 2011; Kassing & Sanderson, 2010). With this access, athletes are now open to various direct and indirect forms of maltreatment. Through the use of social media in particular, young athletes can be subjected to cyberbullying, or what Kavanagh and Jones (2014) title, Virtual Maltreatment. Kavanagh and Jones define virtual maltreatment as:

“Direct or non-direct online communication that is stated in an aggressive, exploitative, manipulative, threatening or lewd manner and is designed to elicit fear, emotional or psychological upset, distress, alarm or feelings of inferiority” (2014, p.36).

Virtual maltreatment may be direct or indirect. Direct virtual maltreatment describes the instance in which the young athlete is directly and explicitly sent verbally abusive, harassing, discriminatory or threatening messages. Alternatively, non-direct virtual maltreatment refers to messages or images in which the young athlete is the subject of maltreatment, but the message is not directly and explicitly sent to them. Nonetheless, there remains a potential that the young athlete may become aware of such messages or images (Kavanagh & Jones, 2014).

Virtual maltreatment is not a feature in Stirling’s framework of child maltreatment in sport. Kavanagh and Jones (2014) have presented a framework for virtual maltreatment in sport and several examples of virtual physical, sexual, emotional and discriminatory maltreatment of various popular athletes, but generally extremely limited empirical evidence has been offered in sport. Though with the global recognition of cyber bullying as an emergent form of child maltreatment, it is reasonable to suggest children partaking in sport may also fall victim to virtual maltreatment, particularly those who experience relative notoriety through sport. Therefore, despite limited evidence of its prevalence, particularly in developing countries with less widespread access to the internet, the present thesis includes virtual maltreatment as a form of maltreatment that is likely to be present in sport, which may be impacted by the approach of sporting organisations, particularly those who are responsible for propelling children to relative fame.

2.2.7 General risk factors. Very few attempts have been made to generalise the risk factors of child maltreatment in sport. Research may simply be reflecting a general recognition

that each type of child maltreatment has its own set risk factors. Though there are some regularly occurring themes, such as; the power of influential potential perpetrators (such as the coach), unchallenged negative attitudes, high training demands, the closeness of the coach athlete relationship, the absence of policies and structures, and the psychological and physical vulnerabilities of the child themselves (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014; Fasting & Sand, 2015; Brackenridge, 2001; Stirling & Kerr, 2008; Gervis, 2009). Therefore, there is value in considering a universal framework that recognises the commonalities in risk.

Despite the paucity of research on this matter, a framework of the risk factors for child maltreatment in sport may be derived from the seminal work of Brackenridge (2001). Adapted from research on sexual abuse, Brackenridge argued that there are three main risk factors; the coach, the athlete and the sport itself. In this instance, the coach risk factor relates to individual and interpersonal factors, such as the power they may possess, their closeness to the child and their suitability to working with children. Risk factors that relate to the child include the child's physical and psychological limitations that make them more malleable or susceptible to experiences of maltreatment. Meanwhile risk factors that relate to the sport have been described in relation to structural and systematic elements (Brackenridge, 2001; Brackenridge, Kay & Rhind, 2012).

The evidence suggests that although this framework may provide a useful starting point for understanding of the risk factors for children in sport, some adaptations may be necessary to ensure its applicability to other forms of maltreatment. Therefore, this thesis presents a revised set of risk factors (Table 1). One revision from this list is in regard to the risk factor of the Coach. Brackenridge specifically highlights the inconsistency with which individuals are adequately checked for their appropriateness to work with children and the often unchallenged

nature of their relationships with children. But one consistency through the subsequent literature has been the suggestion that almost anyone may be a perpetrator of child maltreatment in sport (Alexander et al., 2011; Rhind et al., 2015). This includes all manner of staff, not just the coach, but also parents, spectators and the child's peers. Furthermore, in the case of non-relational maltreatment, this may not be one particular person, but groups of people who may or may not have a significant relationship with the child. For this reason, the present thesis suggests that the 'coach' risk factor should instead be expanded to 'perpetrators'. This should include all stakeholders of child wellbeing in sport.

The child's physical and psychological maturity, the child's desire to remain faithful to key adult figures, and their regard for key figures such as the coach has also been discussed as a consistent risk factor by the literature (e.g. Gervis & Dunn, 2004; Stirling & Kerr, 2008). This can impact their susceptibility, likelihood to disclose maltreatment, and the strength of the impact that maltreatment may have on them. Though there is another group of people who may present or exacerbate the child's risk, witnesses of child maltreatment. Those witnesses who pose a particular risk to children are those who may facilitate or comply with maltreatment by failing to reprimand perpetrators or report child maltreatment cases. These individuals are typically termed bystanders (Brackenridge, 2001). Research on the 'bystander effect' has found that their failure to act can compound long-term harm for children, not least because it allows the maltreatment to continue unquestioned, while it also encourages feelings of helplessness in children who are subsequently less likely to report (Leahy, 2012, as cited in Brackenridge, Kay & Rhind, 2012). Research also suggests that the risks may also be elevated as the child may begin to believe the maltreatment they are enduring is socially acceptable, or that the perpetrator is genuinely beyond reproach (Leahy, Pretty & Tenenbaum, 2003). Thus, the present thesis

argues that bystanders should be considered risk factors, though this term can also be broadened to include those who were not strictly bystanders (i.e. witnesses of incident(s)), but whose inactions or inadequate actions may also allow maltreatment to continue or worsen. For example, recipients of allegations who fail to report onwards or manage cases satisfactorily. Therefore, the broader term, facilitators, is used to describe any individual or groups whose inaction or inadequate action extends the possibility that maltreatment may continue, or worsen without challenge or reprimand.

Table 1.

General Framework for the Risk factors of Child Maltreatment in Sport

| Risk Factors | Description |
|--------------------------|---|
| Perpetrators | The enactors of child maltreatment. Can include coaches, peers, parents & spectators. |
| The Child | Potential victims/survivors who may present vulnerabilities due to their typical physical and psychological characteristics. |
| Facilitators | Those whose actions or inactions allow maltreatment to continue or worsen. Includes bystanders and recipients of allegations. |
| The Physical Environment | Suitability for children to partake in sport in particular contexts. |
| The Sport | Structural and systemic factors that protect children before, during and after maltreatment. |

The sport risk factor may also be adapted. Brackenridge divided the sport risk factor on the grounds of that which is structural and cultural. In referring to the ‘normative culture’, a narrow concept of culture was used, which neglected to consider the ideological matters that underpin normative behaviour, and are necessary in a comprehensive concept of culture (Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013). Also, considering the very definition of an organisation’s culture is determined in part by the rules and structures within it (Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013), these two risk factors cannot be neatly distinguished in a comprehensive

conceptualisation of organisational culture. Therefore, the present thesis regarded what Brackenridge titled as 'normative culture', as the more superficial concept of social norms, and the sport risk factor was deemed the aggregate of social norms and constitutive systems/structure.

Brackenridge did not identify the physical environment that children are placed in, but there is an argument that this should also be considered a risk factor. As stated, the present thesis focusses on preventing harm which occurs from volitional actions or inactions. This differentiates safeguarding from health and safety, which explicitly focuses on the prevention of accidents. Nonetheless, where children are harmed as a result of playing in predictably unsafe or unsuitable environments, it can be argued that they are the victims of neglect (Stirling, 2009). Therefore, the present thesis argues that the environment itself can pose a risk factor. Based on this, the present thesis suggests that the general risk factors of child maltreatment in sport are; perpetrators, the child, bystanders, the sport (systems/structures and social norms) and the environment.

2.2.8 Summary. The present section has defined, categorised and reviewed the evidence of child maltreatment in sport. This has generally been categorised on the basis of Stirling's (2009) framework of child maltreatment in sport which differentiates relational maltreatment from non-relational maltreatment. The prevalence and risk factors of various types of abuse within those categories have been reviewed. Findings suggest that the research is still in its infancy, and lacks breadth in many areas. Nonetheless, there is clear evidence that child maltreatment exists in varying types and levels of sport, and is an issue globally (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). This section further adapted Brackenridge's framework of risk factors for child sexual abuse in sport to present an adapted general framework for child maltreatment in sport.

This framework suggests that the generic risk factors of child maltreatment are; perpetrators, the child, bystanders, the sport (systems/structures and social norms) and the physical environment.

2.3 Contemporary Approaches to Protecting Children in Sport

As different countries, regions, sports and individual organisations have responded to emerging evidence of child maltreatment in sport, there has been a growth in the variance of methods used to address this issue (Mountjoy et al., 2015). This variance has resulted in a broad level of efficacy of safeguarding initiatives that exist today (Brackenridge, 2001). The present section seeks to review those existing approaches to preventing child maltreatment in sport, considering their ability to adequately address all the aforementioned risk factors. Having done so, this section will provide an evidence based rationale for a new cultural approach to preventing child maltreatment in sport.

2.3.1 From child protection to safeguarding. Developments over the last thirty years have encouraged a widening of the definitional focus of child maltreatment in sport, while also encouraging sporting organisations to make the prevention of child maltreatment a priority (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014; Mountjoy et al., 2015). However, there has been little consensus on how child maltreatment can best be addressed. As those involved in sport have continuously adjusted to updates in research, policy, media coverage and the legal/political landscape, sport has experienced various alterations in the preferred terminology, and dominant approaches towards the protection of children from maltreatment (Parton, 2016; Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014; Lang & Hartill, 2015). This has resulted in the existence of several approaches, which are understood and used inconsistently across varying sports types, levels, sectors, countries and regions.

The approaches used in sport have mirrored those popularised in the wider society of a particular country. This is based on the approach advocated by governments (Brackenridge, 2001), and may be a reflection of dominant ideas on matters such as what a child is, and the implications of childhood (Parton, 2016). A popular categorisation of the various approaches governments have used is offered by Gilbert (2012). Building on an initial study of the child welfare concerns of governments in nine countries, Gilbert argued that up to and throughout the 1990's there were two approaches to the policy and practice of the protection of children, either a 'child protection approach' or a 'family service approach' (Gilbert, 1997, as cited in Gilbert, 2012). With a broad distinction between how abuse is framed, the nature of investigation and the relationship between those that have care for the child and governing bodies, Gilbert argues that the 'child protection approach' frames abuse as a moral issue and something that is performed by pathological individuals who have been entrusted with the care of children (Gilbert, 2012; Lang & Hartill, 2015). This is described as something that requires legal investigation, dependent on where the acts fit in regard to whether they are merely deviant, or outright criminal (Gilbert, 2012). Within this approach the state is highly reactive in nature, mandating particular acts of child protection. Findings suggest that throughout the 1990s, the 'child protection approach' was used heavily throughout England, and replicated by countries such as the USA, Canada and Australia.

The second approach is the family service approach which posits abuse as dysfunction which is viewed as a physical manifestation of psycho-socio-economic issues of those with the care of children, which can be addressed through therapy (Gilbert, 2012; Lang & Hartill, 2015). With this approach, the protection of children is viewed as a collaborative process between the state and parents/guardians. This approach is rooted in the suggestion that child welfare issues

which would otherwise become issues of the state, are prevented earlier as people are empowered and educated through collaborative relationships. Findings suggest that throughout the 1990s, the 'family service approach' became synonymous with European countries such as Denmark, Sweden, Netherlands and Germany (Gilbert, 2012).

Despite countries tending to favour one particular approach, leading into the 21st century, one of the biggest shifts in the child protection movement was the broadening of the issue into what Gilbert (2012) refers to as the 'child development' orientation. This occurred as a reflection of the broadening of the issue in the political landscape, and as those with a more child protection orientation adopted aspects of the family services approach, and those with a family services approach adopted elements of the child protection approach. A third approach emerged as governments sought to combine the two approaches and intervene earlier to ensure the development of children, while not neglecting the responsibility to protect children from harm (Gilbert, 2012). In doing so, children are recognised as a unique set of humans who require special protection, along with intentional development opportunities which are not limited to the prevention of abuse and exploitation (Gilbert, 2012; Patton, 2015). This approach builds upon the United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child as governments seek to go beyond the bear minimum to protect children.

This third approach has rapidly increased in popularity in general society and in sport specifically, and has been represented by the term 'Safeguarding'. This is a broad term used to describe the reasonable actions taken to ensure that all children involved in a program are safe from harm (Lang & Hartill, 2015; Rind, Brackenridge, Kay & Owusu-Sekyere, 2016; Parton, 2016). This is opposed to 'child protection' which is understood as a set of activities which are undertaken to protect specific children who are suffering, or at risk of suffering significant harm

(Lang & Hartill, 2015; Rind, Brackenridge, Kay & Owusu-Sekyere, 2016; Parton, 2016). In Britain, the department for Education adequately captured the concept of ‘safeguarding’ as:

“Protecting Children from maltreatment, preventing impairment of children’s health or development; ensuring that children are growing up in circumstances consistent with the provision of safe and effective care; and taking action to enable all children to have the best outcomes” (Department for Education, 2015, p.5).

This has increasingly been the term used to replace similar terms such as ‘child protection’ since the mid-1990s and certainly into the 21st century. It is an approach that typically combines the reactive child protection approach, with the collaborative family services approach, to cumulate in a reactive, collaborative and reactive approach, represented in the term ‘Safeguarding’.

As an approach, safeguarding has grown in popularity in sport (Lang & Hartill, 2015). Reorientations of child protection in influential countries such as England, Australia and Canada have encouraged other countries to also adopt this approach (Melton, 2009, as cited in Lang & Hartill, 2015). Even organisations based in countries that may not necessarily practice this approach are often influenced through education orientated partnerships, or by funders, grant and award bodies who make safeguarding policy, procedures and practices conditions of acceptance. This has led to the general perception that safeguarding is the gold standard of child protection, due to its broad and all-encompassing nature. It must be noted however, that this broader approach to protecting children from harm has not been welcomed by all in sport (Lang & Hartill, 2015). The broad nature of the term safeguarding has meant that it is frequently unfocussed and misunderstood as merely a synonym of the term ‘child protection’ (Lang & Hartill, 2015). There are also frequent ideological disagreements about the child development aspects of safeguarding, namely the content and methods most appropriate and beneficial.

Additionally, some have rejected the preventative-surveillance state, while lamenting its potential to erode civil liberties at the expense of giving children rights (Parton, 2006; 2008).

The criticisms of safeguarding as an approach do not end here. There is also concern that although safeguarding is increasingly presented as the dominant approach to protecting children from harm, its origins in the risk averse cultures of developed countries in the global north, mean that safeguarding policies, practices and procedures have greater difficulty serving as a viable means to protect children in developing countries in the global south (Rhind, Brackenridge, Kay & Owusu-Sekyere, 2016). It is argued by some that safeguarding tends to be preferred by those developed countries who have the resources and infrastructures to adequately administer it, while governments of developing countries may find safeguarding as an approach, unobtainable, thus demotivating (Laird, 2013; Parton, 2008). Therefore, while Parton (2010) lauds the suggestion that this broader form of child protection ensures that protecting children from harm is not restricted to narrow forensic concerns of abuse, it cannot be overlooked that some may deem this approach too broad, unfocussed and unrealistic, thus potentially impinging upon the quality of the ultimate goal of preventing and responding to child maltreatment.

The global incongruence in the understanding and appreciation of safeguarding as a method may be contributed to by the lack of research on safeguarding in developing, global south countries. The research on child protection and safeguarding tends to have a bias towards developed countries in the global north (Rhind, Brackenridge, Kay & Owusu-Sekyere, 2016) and there is a need for a more balanced research base (Brackenridge, Kay & Rhind, 2012). For example, Gilbert's studies (1997; 2012), included ten countries. The inclusion of USA and Canada prevented the study from including only European countries, though all of the countries examined were developed countries, typically those from the global north, with no representation

of South America, Africa or Asia. Another example can be offered with Lang and Harthill's (2015) recent international review of safeguarding and child protection in sport, within which, eight of the fourteen countries discussed were European, while only two analyses emanate from countries which may be considered developing countries.

With this research bias comes a minimised potential for adaptations or entirely different approaches to emerge which may be rooted in, or influenced by, the alternate realities of those in developing countries in the global south. This occurs as the voices of those in developing countries in the global south are often lost in the debate. Indeed, Lang and Hartill make the argument that this is reinforced where key international safeguarding policy, guidance documents or legislation are developed based on the philosophies, ideologies or existing policy, guidance or legislation of organisations or governments from westernised societies (Lang & Hartill, 2015). Considering this argument, it is significant that global understanding and perceptions of child protection and safeguarding are not taken for granted. This means that although a distinction between child protection and safeguarding has been offered, and will be represented throughout this thesis, a lack of global representation in this research means that it cannot necessarily be deduced that this is a distinction that is understood globally. Nor can it be deduced that safeguarding is necessarily appreciated as a superior alternative to the more rigid and limited child protection approach outside of westernised countries (Kerr, Stirling & McPherson, 2014). This suggests that it is appropriate for data collection to ensure that the use of the term is accompanied by a clarification of its breadth, and a verification that the subject of study has made their interpretation of the word explicit. This is likely to be particularly pertinent in sport, where general understanding may not be as robust as those who work in the child protection and child safeguarding orientated roles and organisations.

2.3.2 Where to safeguard? Within sport there are a wide range of organisation types (Wolfe, Jaffe, Jetté & Poisson, 2003). This includes those which are deliverers of sport, (e.g. community based SfD groups, or high-performance sports clubs & schools), governors of sport (e.g. Football's global governing body FIFA, the International Olympic Committee or governmental departments related to sport), and those organisations which work in partnership with delivery based and governing organisations (e.g. funders and sponsors, child protection agencies, training facilitators). As the field has widened, so has the understanding that there are a number of ways in which these organisations may house, foster or perpetuate child maltreatment in sport. As a consequence, organisations of all types have adopted safeguarding as an approach over the narrower child protection. Although safeguarding itself has also seen a broadening of approaches that have been used to protect children from maltreatment (Mountjoy, Rhind, Tiivas & Leglise, 2015). These approaches have been developed with respect to organisational mission, reflecting the roles that particular sporting organisations aspire to play in the lives of the children they impact.

Brackenridge and Rhind (2014) state that sporting organisations can be grouped by their organisational mission. The first of those stakeholders are 'sport agencies'. This describes the deliverers, governors and partnering institutions which are mainly focused on the advancement of sport and sporting performance. Examples include the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and sports clubs whose ultimate goal is to promote and enhance the sport. The second stakeholder group is the 'development agencies'. These organisations are typically focused on the use of sport for peacekeeping and child development. This grouping of organisations ranges widely from official United Nations peacekeeping operations, to smaller SfD organisations which may function independently, or in

conjunction with other non-sporting organisations such as schools and youth clubs (Wolfe, Jaffe, Jetté & Poisson, 2003). The third and final grouping is what Brackenridge and Rhind describe as the ‘child protection agencies’. These organisations have a specific remit to protect children from harm, promote children’s rights and uphold social justice (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). For these organisations sport may merely represent one avenue through which the organisations ultimate mission may be achieved. Examples of these organisations include UNICEF and Save the Children.

Evidently, the function that an organisation aspires to play in children’s lives may not necessarily be the function it plays in practice. Additionally, these approaches may not summarise the entirety of an organisations safeguarding approach as the boundaries between these approaches are often permeable. Although, Brackenridge and Rhind (2014) state that in pursuing particular organisational missions, sporting organisations approach safeguarding in a manner that satisfies the overarching interests of the organisation. In doing so, three approaches to safeguarding have been identified; safeguarding in, around and through sport.

Safeguarding in sport. Safeguarding in sport refers to the actions taken to ensure the safety of children during training or competition. This approach typically focusses on relational maltreatment which may occur in these settings (Rhind et al., 2016), and is adopted by ‘sport agencies’, whose mission is the advancement of sport and sporting performance. With this approach to safeguarding, Brackenridge and Rhind (2014) argue that where recognised, safeguarding tends to be valued as something that sub-serves performance objectives.

Safeguarding around sport. Safeguarding around sport refers to the enhancement of the safety and welfare of children by seeking to address matters which are peripheral to sport, but may influence or be influenced by sport (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). This approach tends to

focus on non-relational maltreatment such as forced displacement, child labour and child prostitution which may occur as a result of major sporting events (Rhind et al., 2016; Brackenridge et al., 2014). This approach is typically used by protection agencies, whose ambitions in preventing child maltreatment are more extensive than sport itself.

Safeguarding through sport. Safeguarding through sport refers to the use of sport to enhance the safety and wellbeing of children by seeking to accomplish humanitarian objectives such as peace building and post disaster development (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). With this approach, sport is merely the vehicle through which actual or potential child rights violations in broader societal settings may be addressed. Typically used by global SfD organisations whose mission is peace building and social development, this approach places little or no importance on sporting performance. Instead the focus is on matters such as avoiding bullying and hazing in gangs, safe sex choices, and avoiding drug and alcohol addiction (Rhind et al., 2016).

2.3.3 Individual and interpersonal approaches to safeguarding in sport. As a result of high-profile cases of sexual and physical abuse offences committed by coaches in sport, safeguarding work in, around and through sport has historically focused on preventing relational maltreatment (Stirling, 2009; Kerr, Stirling & MacPherson, 2014). With the coach usually at the centre of discussions, the previously dominant belief was that sport would be safest if it focused on; ensuring only appropriate individuals enter sport, educating and increasing the awareness of those individuals, and regulating the interpersonal relationships they have with children (Boocock, 2002; Hartill & Lang, 2014; Raakman, Dorsch & Rhind, 2010). This would limit the number of predators in sport, raise the level of resistance to child maltreatment, reduce the likelihood of individuals committing offences, and increase their ability to prevent, identify, and

make reports of potential child maltreatment (Malkin, Johnston and Brackenridge, 2000; Boocock, 2002).

With this belief, child maltreatment in sport was understood as the consequence of interpersonal and individual dynamics, and early safeguarding efforts were dominated by individual and interpersonal approaches (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). Examples of this can be seen in England, where the National Society for the Prevention of Children (NSPCC), the Royal Yachting Association (RYA) and the National Coaching Foundation (NCF) collaborated to develop the first known safeguarding initiative in sport. This included awareness raising training materials for coaches, and provisions for policy development advice, which centred on codes of ethics for coaches (Malkin, Johnston and Brackenridge, 2000). The field was generally slow to respond, although such approaches became increasingly popular throughout Europe (Malkin, Johnston and Brackenridge, 2000; Kerr, Stirling & MacPherson, 2014), and Lang and Harthill's (2014) recent book on the *International Perspectives of Safeguarding* further highlights examples of individual and interpersonal approaches to safeguarding children in, around and through sport which have centred around the education of delivery staff in a variety of countries such as Slovenia, China and Japan.

The previous dominance of this stance was supported by research such as that conducted by Malkin and colleagues following a series of early training programmes with various sport representatives from a range of sport types and levels on the prevention of maltreatment to children in UK sport. Malkin and colleagues administered questionnaires to 235 delegates in sport, such as policy makers and administrators. Questionnaires were designed to analyse knowledge and awareness of child protection issues, and the importance placed on them. This study found that 69% of participants reported knowing only 'something' about the protection of

children in sport, while 25% reported knowing 'very little' and 3% stated that they knew 'nothing' of child protection in sport (Malkin, Johnston and Brackenridge, 2000). It is significant to note that this study was conducted with participants in the UK only, thus the present thesis is limited in the extent it can use this work alone as representative of the issues globally. Furthermore, its use of a rigid questionnaire based method meant that criteria such as 'something' were left to interpretation, and actual knowledge may have varied heavily between participants. Nonetheless, with these findings, evidence was provided of a 'training gap' for employees of sporting organisations, and it was expressed that the ability of many in sport to prevent child maltreatment is limited as there is such superficial understanding about key matters like the risk factors or nature of child maltreatment in sport.

This approach has demonstrated an ability to address the child, perpetrator and facilitator risk factors, mainly through education, and the use of codes of conduct. However, in spite of its demonstrable significance in increasing the level of awareness of maltreatment and its risk factors in sport, there has been a growing awareness that for these approaches to be successful, they must be accompanied by organisational structures which make effective provisions for the protection of children (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2010). For example, previously, where individuals who commit offenses are powerful, or have powerful allies, they have been able to cover up cases of maltreatment, even in spite of convincing evidence against them (Boocock, 2002). Although rather than reconsider the whole culture of that organisation or sport to ensure that such concealments are less possible, sport has typically sought to eliminate the individuals who are responsible for the cover up. In doing so sport has failed to ask whether there are fundamental aspects of such organisations which are in need of change. Such issues may explain why some research has found that interpersonal and individual focused initiatives may not be

effective as previously thought. For example, in a review of safeguarding cases, conducted with sport's national governing bodies in the UK, Rhind and colleagues found that approximately 30% of perpetrators were coaches who had undertaken safeguarding training (Rhind et al., 2015).

It is difficult to draw conclusions from such evidence that safeguarding training does not have a positive impact, as it is challenging, or impossible to establish how many coaches would have committed maltreatment had they not attended safeguarding training. With such a wide variety of training types, endorsed by a vast array of governing bodies, one must also consider potential variations in the quality of training received, but, it can be argued that such research provides evidence that simply providing training to potential perpetrators presents only a partial solution. In the context of the aforementioned risk factors, this approach does so by failing to adequately address the structural/systematic elements of sport and its social norms. Findings from a global review of the available empirical research on violence in sport throughout industrialised countries further supports this. A UNICEF report found that even where training and policy exists, children are still at significant risk in sport as the structures that would systematically ensure their safety in sport tend to be inadequate or entirely absent in many countries (Brackenridge, Kay & Rhind, 2012). It was found that despite training and awareness raising initiatives, the absence of systems may be contributing to the perpetration, masking or overlooking of violations against children.

With findings such as this, sports initial focus on individual and interpersonal initiatives have moved towards the integration of effective systems and structures. This shift is given motivation by an absence of adequate structures and systems, particularly in the SfD field (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2010). It is also encapsulated by East's sentiments regarding the prevention of maltreatment in sport. East (2012) states that potential perpetrators much be aware

of the issues, but once this is achieved, systems, structures and tools should be utilised to build upon this and strengthen the safeguarding initiative. This explains Brackenridge's (2014) statement that such interventions focused on getting the right people, to the neglect of 'getting sport right'.

2.3.4 Systems approach. UNICEF define the systems approach as the integration of "structures, functions and capacities that have been assembled to prevent and respond to child maltreatment" (UNICEF, UNHCR, Save the Children, & World Vision, 2013, p.3). Systems approaches include the integration of; laws, policies, resources, governance, monitoring and evaluation and response services (Wessells, 2015; Wessells, et al., 2015). Recognising the limitations of strictly individual/interpersonal approaches, sporting organisations are increasingly utilising systems approaches based on the belief that they may provide more effective means to safeguarding children. This is supported by the conclusion of Malkin and colleagues study, which argued that structures and systems should be put in place at national levels to standardise procedures for the effective implementation and monitoring safeguarding (Malkin et al., 2000), while Brackenridge and Rhind (2014) also argued for more systemic approaches to safeguarding children. Therefore, despite indifferent responses to child maltreatment in sport, sporting organisations in places such as Canada, USA, Netherlands, Australia and the UK have attempted to progress by developing and installing comprehensive systems to protect children (Brackenridge, Pawlaczek, Bringer, Cockburn, Nutt, Pitchford & Russel, 2005).

Examples of systems approaches can be seen in various national, and international contexts. In 2001, the Australian Sports Commission expanded upon its existing educational, awareness raising, and policy development focused national programme to develop a systems based strategy. This created more systematic awareness raising initiatives, obtained legal

commitment from sporting organisations to engage in safeguarding initiatives and put systems in place to effectively respond to all allegations of child maltreatment (Simms, 2012). Systems based initiatives have also emanated from Netherlands, Canada and Australia, centred on coach monitoring systems, and the integration of criminal record database checks which have now become standard practice in many countries in Europe and beyond (Malkin, Johnston and Brackenridge, 2000; Kerr, Stirling & MacPherson, 2014; Hedges, 2010). Additionally, the European Pentathlon Declaration on Ethics in Youth Sport prompted the development of legislation which forced sporting organisations to have various systemic preventative and responsive measures in place (Lang & Hartill, 2014).

Empirical evidence of the impact of these systems is generally scarce (Hartill & O’Gorman, 2014), and those studies that do exist are typically limited reviews of specific elements of the system, rather than the system in its entirety. Examples include an evaluation of Canada’s National Coaching Certification Training Programme (Stirling, Kerr & Cruz, 2012), an analysis of the Netherlands Olympic Committee and National Sports Confederation helpline on sexual harassment and abuse (SHA) (Vertommen et al., 2015), Hartill and Prescott’s review of the British Rugby League’s Child Protection Policy (Hartill & Prescott, 2007), and Brackenridge and colleagues analysis of case management systems in British Football (Brackenridge, et al., 2005). Possibly the most comprehensive systems approach study has been produced by Brackenridge and colleagues who conducted a mixed methods longitudinal study on the largest national governing body in the UK, the English Football Association (Brackenridge, Pitchford, Russel & Nutt, 2007). After interviews and surveys with a host of stakeholders in the sport (i.e. coaches, children, scouts, referees, parents and carers), this study found support for the systems approach that the FA had taken, praising the effectiveness of integrating Child Protection Officer

structures, developing various education and training programmes, and the rollout of a local football club certification programme (Brackenridge et al., 2007).

With very few comprehensive studies on systems approaches, assertions on the effectiveness of approaches are being questioned, and those advocates for such approaches may be accused of exaggerated or false confidence that is without the backing of research (Lang & Hartill, 2015). This paucity of evidence has not halted the popularity of systems based approaches. Indeed, Brackenridge and colleagues encouraged the English FA to go further in developing its systems based approach, and make standard requirements throughout the nation (Brackenridge et al., 2007). This advice has been echoed throughout the field, and the general view is that children will be made safe when all sporting organisations adopt systematic changes (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2010; Brackenridge et al., 2005; Stirling, Kerr & MacPherson, 2014). Adopting this viewpoint, leading organisations in sport, such as governing bodies, have been encouraged to come to some conclusion on the necessary systems and structures required for keeping children safe. Those organisations have also been encouraged to make those systems and structures minimum standards, with suggestions that this would assure the uniform quality of the prevention, monitoring and response to child maltreatment in sport (Malkin, Johnston and Brackenridge, 2000). This was the reasoning behind the world's first sport focused child protection agency (the CPSU) developing its first National Policy Standards (Brackenridge et al., 2005), and its Sport Action Plan to co-ordinate responses to child maltreatment (Boocock, 2002). It was also based on this rationale that the International Safeguards for Children in Sport were developed.

Hartill and O'Gorman raised concerns, arguing that this approach, may not be the gold standard of safeguarding children, and limited evidence exists that sporting organisations have

even attempted to evaluate the effectiveness of the systems they have introduced (2014). Stirling, Kerr and MacPherson (2014) also state that despite the understandable passion and enthusiasm to have such systems in place, they are rarely grounded in theory and empirical data, thus are unlikely to be effective in a sustained way. Therefore, in the absence of empirical evidence to support and detail their effectiveness, governing organisations that develop and enforce safeguarding systems are asking enactors to merely 'take their word for it' (Hartill & O'Gorman, 2014). The efficacy of this approach is further brought into question when one considers findings that the UK approach to safeguarding has led to protective environments which have focused too much on human resource solutions (e.g. recruitment and induction, education and training), and may actually weaken, corrupt, or undermine both the adult-child relationship in sport, and the positive aspects of children's participation (Piper et al., 2013).

This lack of evidence is evermore concerning when one considers that systems approaches, such as the popular UK model, are often held up as international models of best practice, (Hartill & O'Gorman, 2014). In spite of this, Wessells argues against the dominance of systems approaches in their current form, particularly when being outsourced to developing countries. Wessells states that systems approaches tend to possess a 'top-down' focus. This is particularly the case with non-governmental organisations (NGOs) from developed countries, who seek to conduct their work in developing countries (as is typical in SFD), but tend to only engage the most prominent community members, and impart their ideas on those community members (Wessells, 2015; Hayhurst, Kay & Chawansky, 2015). Wessells argues that a more comprehensive approach would be one that also utilises bottom up approaches that build upon the strengths of and engage the community, while stimulating collaboration, and middle out approaches which emanate from those individuals, organisations and systems which lie between

the governing bodies, and the community. In this sense, the most effective approach may contain, but not be entirely based on a safeguarding system. Evidence of this was found after a longitudinal mixed methods study in rural Sierra Leone in which Wessells promoted local peoples use of formal systems, by increasing community driven action, and producing structures which embraced the existing informal structures within the community. Strategies used included; collective dialogue and decision making, linking communities with health services, peer education, using culturally relevant media, child leadership, inclusion and outreach of disengaged community members, parent child discussions, role modelling and legitimisation by key formal and informal authority figures. This helped to reduce teen pregnancy, develop children's life skills and reduce school dropout rates.

The findings of this work in a particular rural setting cannot be used as generalisations for all rural settings, not least those developing countries in the global south. Differences may exist in other similar settings, while urban locations may present different levels of success in using a more comprehensive approach. Nonetheless, these findings further illustrate some issues with systems approaches, not just in regard to their efficacy in developed countries, but their general acceptance as the gold standard. It may be argued that their growth in popularity may be a reflection of their success in practice. Though it cannot be discounted that for many, the political objective of taking action, or at least being seen to take action, may supersede concern over actual effectiveness (Coalter, 2007). This may be the case with professional organisations in competitive sport, who may be mandated to adhere by their national governing bodies, or who seek the reputational enhancement of being regarded as a 'safe' organisation. It may also be the case with SfD organisations, who are often unregulated by formal structures such as national governing bodies, but may be motivated to include certain systems as conditions of funding, to

enhance or maintain relations, or to enhance or maintain the organisations reputation. For these reasons, ineffectiveness of systems approaches may be tolerated or ignored (Hartill & O’Gorman, 2014). Consequently, the dominance and increased adoption of systems approaches, should not be viewed as an inherent indication of success, nor evidence that systems approaches present the ideal method to safeguarding children.

Criticisms of a systems based approach can also be made in the context of the previously discussed risk factors for child maltreatment. While the systems approach may address the structural and systemic contributors of maltreatment, it cannot be asserted that it’s mere presence will address those individual/interpersonal factors. Furthermore, it is questionable whether systems are enough to impact those psychosocial factors that supersede social norms (e.g. climate, values and principles), may reduce the likelihood of facilitators, and create environments that are actively against child maltreatment (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). Therefore, the present thesis suggests that proliferation of the systems approach may represent significant progress in sport, though this may be advanced further into an approach which considers systems, individual/interpersonal factors and those significant psychosocial factors that can be represented in the concept of culture.

2.3.5 Towards a cultural approach to safeguarding. The ideal safeguarding approach should remove entirely, or at least significantly reduce the potential of child maltreatment by addressing all identified risk factors. Though considering the criticisms of previously dominant safeguarding approaches, especially their limited focus and neglect of key psychosocial elements, it is unlikely that they will achieve this. These sentiments are shared by Brackenridge and Rhind (2014) who state that safeguarding initiatives have tended to disregard the significance of organisational elements such as climate, values and principles, which may

contribute to safe cultures rooted in accountability and transparency. With this view, there has been growing calls for sporting organisations to pay more attention to culture and recognise its potential to address the risk factors of child maltreatment in sport. For example, Hartill and Lang (2014) point out the often neglected significance of intangible social structures in effective safeguarding, while Brackenridge (2001) clarified that although maltreatment occurs as individuals exert their own agency, they are only able to do so within the confines of the cultural contexts that they exist in.

Pike spoke of the need for sport to address cultures of risk which have contributed to child maltreatment by normalising both relational and non-relational maltreatment. Similarly, in seeking to take a human rights perspective to safeguarding in Canadian Hockey, Rhind, Cook and Dorsch (2014) acknowledged the significance of the culture of violence, further explaining that organisational culture has the power to manage this violence by permitting or challenging it. This is in line with Brackenridge, Kay and Rhind's (2012) findings within a review of industrialised countries which stated that organisational cultures can mask or facilitate violence, and that developing cultures which promote principles such as transparency can prevent violence in sport. Additionally, in an article on safeguarding in Spanish sport, Martin argued that organisational cultures are invaluable to the construction of child safe systems (Martin, 2014; David, 2005). While speaking on child maltreatment in sport in Cyprus, Chroni and Papaefstathiou agreed with Fasting, arguing that in pitching potential abusers as pathological monsters, attention is drawn away from the often troublesome culture of sport (Chroni & Papaefstathiou, 2014; Fasting, 2012).

Further empirical evidence of the significance of the culture of the organisation is offered by Hartill and Lang (2014) who conducted semi-structured interviews with nine Safeguarding

Officers (SgOs) from eight UK based NGBs. Safeguarding Officers identified several issues with their organisation's implementation of safeguarding initiatives. They stated that many of the issues that hinder the efficiency of their safeguarding initiatives are based on disagreements in values, priorities and attitudes. For example, issues were raised around the extent to which safeguarding should take priority over other concerns, the resources that should be allocated to it, and the level of power SgOs should have to influence the work of staff. With these issues, participants identified that a significant challenge of the Safeguarding Officer is to overcome resistance, and convince even internal staff of both the need for safeguarding (as a concept and its particular procedures), and their colleagues roles in preventing child maltreatment in sport. This involves managing the competing values of the organisation, such as that which relates to performance. In doing so they risk being seen as the individual that is 'in the way of doing other business'. This is not helped by narrow, risk based legalistic constructions of the SgO as the expert, which may act to exonerate more senior staff from responsibility, while placing more pressure on the SgO.

It must be noted that this study's focus on SgOs in the UK is a limit to its generalisability. The role of SgO is not one that is necessarily understood or prevalent globally, with such broad variations in the quality of safeguarding globally (Brackenridge, Kay & Rhind, 2012). Furthermore, the UK has arguably enjoyed some of the most progress in safeguarding globally, and possesses structures and systems which many sporting organisations would not have any access to. Therefore, it is unclear if those organisations that exist in countries with less formalised structures and systems would in fact deem such issues as the most important to their success. In this sense, this study has a bias towards professional, regulated organisations, as opposed to the SfD field, which tends to be unregulated (Hayhurst, Kay & Chawansky, 2014).

Nonetheless, this study does provide evidence of the complex nature of safeguarding, while presenting evidence that the presence of systems, structures and practices alone do not necessarily lead to the most effective approaches to safeguarding. Findings support the argument that the most effective safeguarding initiative will have many contributing factors to its success, which transcend the physical structures and systems, creating an environment in which safeguarding is a priority. This is regardless of whether those systems address individual and interpersonal, or systematic and structural issues. In providing evidence of the seminal nature of organisational culture on safeguarding, this study may explain why changes in structure may precede or follow changes in overall organisational culture, but do not necessarily determine it (Brackenridge et al., 2005).

Based on such findings, it is clear that arguments for the significance of culture are not entirely new to sport. Though there are a distinct lack of approaches which explicitly target organisational cultures as a whole. Instead where organisational culture is mentioned within the literature, it is usually defined in extremely narrow terms, used as a synonym for social norms (e.g. by Brackenridge, 2001), or as a synonym for attitudes, values and beliefs. In doing so, researchers have failed to consider that culture includes individuals, their behaviours, but also the systemic and structural elements that impact the nature of the environments they operate in (Cooper, 2000). Therefore, while the field has been dominated by individual/interpersonal approaches and systems based approaches, it can be argued that even at best, these approaches can only represent part of the success that a comprehensive cultural approach may achieve. Which may explain why McPherson and colleagues (et al., 2017) state that “club culture should be reviewed in relation to their promotion of children’s rights to participate in sport safely” (p.50).

One of the reasons that existing approaches may be taking superficial approaches to addressing organisational culture is due to a lack of an adequate understanding of the concept of safe organisational culture. In Kerr, Stirling and MacPherson's (2014) critical examination of the seven of the most prominent safeguarding initiatives around the world, safeguarding initiatives from Australia, Canada, the USA and the UK were analysed in regard to the extent to which they were empirically and theoretically derived. Using a web based analysis, the study found that although research findings were referenced in all of the websites and documents of the safeguarding initiatives, this varied heavily in detail. Importantly, "all of the initiatives claimed to be involved in endeavours to affect cultural shifts" (p.753), though none of the initiatives expressed any manner of theoretical grounding. Instead most of the initiatives were developed in response to popular cases of maltreatment, and only one emerged from research following an academic conference. Though even in this instance, no evidence was given that research and theory was intertwined with the development and implementation of the safeguarding initiative that emerged from it.

As this was a web based study, some information regarding the safeguarding initiatives may have been omitted, as the organisation may have elected not to put them in the public domain. Furthermore, the findings of this study again offer more applicability to organised sports. Nonetheless, the findings of this study indicate that "theory and research are typically not the primary drivers of the development of most of the protection initiatives" (p.750). This is consistent with the assertion of Hartill and Lang (2014) who state that many researchers investigating abuse and exploitation in sport have ignored the conceptual tools and approaches available from within social theory. This lack of theoretical and empirical grounding may explain why this study found that the initiatives frequently overlooked the concept of power, and various

other organisational aspects of the context which make sport ripe for the abuse of children (Brackenridge, 2001).

Stirling and colleagues argue that at best, the initiatives that exist are typically loosely related to scholarly work in and peripheral to the area. In light of this, it is further argued that enhancing the focus on contextual factors would help tackle the issues at its cultural roots. Therefore, recommendations for future research are that studies should look at how initiatives can be developed using a well evidenced theoretical foundation that is focused on shifting the culture of organisations and the communities that they are implemented in. In building on these recommendations, and the criticisms of previously dominant approaches to safeguarding, the present thesis seeks to review the literature on safety in organisational culture, in order to spearhead a new cultural approach to safeguarding in sport.

2.3.5 Summary. This section has presented the varying approaches to protecting children from maltreatment in sport, presenting the distinction between child protection and safeguarding. The section has discussed how organisations may safeguard children in, around and through sport using an individual/interpersonal approach, or a systems approach. Having reviewed both approaches, it is argued that in light of the limitations of these approaches, there is scope for a more holistic, comprehensive and integrated approach to safeguarding which addresses all risk factors at their cultural roots. This section argues that in order for this approach to be a genuine improvement upon previous approaches, this cultural approach must address all risk factors, while addressing the criticisms of previous approaches, mainly by being evidence backed and theoretically grounded.

2.4 Summary

The purpose of the present chapter was to review the safeguarding and child maltreatment literature in sport. It has provided a significant portion of both the context and rationale upon which the present thesis is conducted by reviewing the conceptual issues that underpin safeguarding, defining, categorising and reviewing the evidence of child maltreatment in sport, and providing an evidence based rationale for a cultural approach to safeguarding children in sport. In order for the present thesis to present a new cultural approach to safeguarding, the present thesis will now seek to gain a comprehensive, theoretically grounded understanding of organisational culture, and how this may foster safety in, around and through organisations. This will be achieved through the existing concept of organisational safety culture. As this concept has been developed and researched in various other fields, and is yet to be applied to the sport domain, the evidence base for this approach will emanate from those fields, with a discussion on their applicability to sport.

Chapter 3: Safety Culture

The last three decades have seen increasing interest in the concept of safety culture (Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013). Recognised as a subcategory of organisational culture, various industries have adopted the concept to better understand and address safety in their respective organisations and fields of practice (Fernández-Muñiz, Montes-Peón and Vázquez-Ordás, 2007a). Research suggests that this has largely yielded positive effects, and provided a useful framework for the improvement of organisational safety performance in a variety of industries (e.g. aviation, healthcare and energy production) (Cull, Rzepnicki, O'Day, Epstein, 2013).

Despite being used to address a wide range of safety concerns in various fields, safety culture is yet to be applied to sport, and more specifically, to the prevention of child maltreatment in sport. The closest sport has come to doing so can be seen with Brackenridge and colleagues study, which measures the impact of child protection initiatives on organisational culture (Brackenridge et al., 2005), and Frosdick's (1995) study on safety culture in sporting stadia. Apart from these studies, there are no known empirical papers, guidance documents or conceptual frameworks on safety culture in sport. This can be viewed as a missed opportunity. Especially considering the growing desire for sporting organisations to increase their levels of accountability and adopt organisation wide approaches that go beyond analyses of the individual and interpersonal contributors of child maltreatment (Mountjoy, Rhind, Tiivas & Leglise, 2015; Brackenridge, 1994; Kerr, Sterling & MacPherson, 2014). Indeed, there have been calls for a complete readjustment of the culture of sport and sporting organisations (Hartill & Lang, 2014; Bringer, Brackenridge and Johnston, 2001; Kerr, Sterling & MacPherson, 2014), while Brackenridge, Kay and Rhind (2012) advise that for sport to be made safe for all, sporting organisations must engage in a necessary process of cultural change. This is particularly as

literature suggests that “the culture of the organisation sets up the tone for everything in safety” (Petersen, 2001, p. 123, as cited in Blair, 2013).

Nonetheless, with the absence of industry specific research on safety culture in sport, research on this matter must be informed by literature from other fields. Consequently, this chapter will explore the existing literature on safety culture in fields such as Aviation, Healthcare, Construction and Manufacturing. In doing so the chapter will begin with an analysis of the broader concept of organisational culture, of which safety culture is a sub-component (Antonsen, 2009; Guldenmund, 2000; Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013). The chapter will then seek to define and conceptualise safety culture, providing an extensive review on its key factors. These factors will then be discussed in relation to their applicability to sporting organisations. While the most beneficial approach to conceptualising safety culture is explored with a comparison of maturation and relationship based models.

3.1 Organisational Culture

Of the various approaches to exploring organisational functioning, organisational culture has emerged as the forerunner (Brown, 1995). The concept of organisational culture was developed as a progression of research on human relations and social systems approaches to understand the diversity of social groupings (Brown, 1995). Such research broadly defined organisational culture as the way things are done in an organisation (Cooper, 2000). This has been expanded to take into account shared values, beliefs and attitudes that interact with organisational structures and control systems to influence and create behavioural norms throughout the organisation (Cooper, 2000), while also including patterns of assumptions which are developed as the group learns to adapt to its environments (Schein, 1990).

Organisational culture is lauded for its efforts in describing facets of organisational behaviour that are often difficult to define and theorise, yet are highly relevant to the behaviour of the organisation (Alvesson, 2002). Researchers have praised the effectiveness of developing distinct and positive organisational cultures and the popularised view has become that where organisations can develop a strong culture, morale, productivity, and profitability will be enhanced (Glendon & Santon, 2000). Nonetheless, with as many as 164 different definitions of culture identified in early research at the turn of the century (Fisher & Alford, 2000), and undoubtedly more definitions existing today, Taylor, Irvin and Wieland (2006) argue that the study of organisational culture has become a battleground of competing paradigms. This ‘battleground’ competes over a variety of ontological and epistemological issues that contribute to understandings of what an organisational culture is and exactly how it contributes to the performance of the organisations members. Therefore, it is necessary for the present section to discuss and clarify those conceptual issues, to adequately define organisational culture, and ultimately safety culture.

3.1.1 The objectivity of organisational culture. Organisational culture has traditionally been defined as “the way we do things round here” (Cooper, 2000, p.115). This definition has encouraged researchers to adopt the stance that all organisations possess a culture of some sort, be it strong or weak, positive or negative (Brown, 1995; Cooper, 2000). Consequently, many have proposed that organisational culture may be objectively understood and analysed by a researcher that is independent of the social contexts (Guldenmund, 2000). For example, it has frequently been argued that culture may be viewed as a variable on which all organisations can be compared. With this assumption, the conclusion has been drawn that culture is an objective

entity that can be manipulated and analysed using findings from sources such as questionnaires, surveys and closed question interviews (Glendon & Santon, 2000; Guldenmund, 2000).

This approach to understanding and studying organisational culture can be referred to as the positivist approach, one that many researchers within the Business literature previously adopted (Robson, 2005; Alvesson, 2002; Brown, 1995). It is typified by its positions that an objective reality exists, and the researcher can attain this reality in a neutral and detached form (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The main advantage of using this stance to understand organisational culture lies in its ability to standardise it. This enhances its capability to objectively rate it on certain criterion, such as safety, and to allow cross-organisational comparisons. Though such approaches have been heavily criticised for running the constant risk of oversimplifying an extremely complex and multifaceted phenomenon, and overstating the possibility that an outsider, such as a researcher, can adequately understand and articulate a culture as well as those who routinely experience it (Robson, 2005). Furthermore, Guldenmund's (2000) seminal literature review argues that it is highly unlikely that any two cultures can be exactly the same. Thus, contemporary literature in this field takes the stance that it is unconvincing that this approach is an effective means to understanding or researching organisational culture.

For these reasons, an increasingly popular method of exploring organisational culture is using a constructivist approach (Cooper, 2000; Robson, 2005). This approach holds that individuals make sense of, and create their own realities, of which many may exist (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Therefore, those who subjectively experience a phenomenon are regarded as best placed to adequately convey its relative nature (Robson, 2005). With this stance, there is no end to the amount of organisational culture types that may exist, but findings are more likely to be a detailed and whole reflections of the organisation studied. The most effective research would

reflect the desire to attain this by being interactive and aiding the construction of knowledge with those who experience it. Therefore, analyses of culture from a constructivist perspective would include methods like ethnography, focus groups, interviews and case studies in which the lived experiences of individuals in the environment are paramount (Alvesson, 2002). This may include the use of unique words, terms, phrases, or stories that add to the richness of its description.

Owing to these advantages, in this thesis, organisational culture will be discussed within the confines of a constructivist approach. In doing so organisational culture will be understood as a reflection of the perspectives of those that have experienced it first-hand. With this set of assumptions, organisational culture will be viewed as a complex set of social groupings of member's collective identity, beliefs and behaviours (Cooper, 2000). This will take into account what is thought, felt and done, while also accounting for the relative meaning attached to it.

3.1.2 Normative, pragmatic and anthropological perspectives of organisational culture. The constructivist approach recognises organisational culture as a summary of collective identity, beliefs and behaviours. Though it remains necessary to clarify the present thesis' position on precisely what must be shared for it to be considered an organisational culture. Brinkmann (2007) has provided an analysis of the three main perspectives on this; the normative, pragmatic and anthropological views of culture.

The normative view holds that culture is the amalgamation of the best that has been thought, said and done. In doing so it posits that in functioning as social systems, organisations collectively reflect on their beliefs, knowledge and experiences as they aspire for ongoing progress. Therefore, it can describe the behaviours and views of people that history suggests they ought to possess (Brinkmann, 2007). With the adoption of this view, people can be described as 'cultured' as a demonstration of their distinguished nature. Alternatively, a normative

perspective of culture can be expressed by the organisational systems in place that “provide the standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating, communicating and acting” (Triandis, 1996, p.408, as cited in Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013).

The normative perspective has dominated the literature on organisational culture, and is favoured by positivist researchers who see the physical existence of policies, procedures and systems as evidence of organisational culture (Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013). It holds much merit due to its ability to determine and compare an organisation’s culture. Although a competing viewpoint is found in the pragmatic perspective. The pragmatic perspective suggests that culture should be understood as a reflection of tangible behavioural outcomes (Brinkmann, 2007). Therefore, while researchers taking a normative perspective may evidence the existence of elements like policy, the pragmatic perspective would suggest that they are rendered meaningless unless they practically influence organisational behaviour (Edwards et al., 2013; Reckwitz 2002; Brinkmann, 2007).

A third perspective is the anthropological perspective (Brinkmann, 2007). This states that the most significant demonstration of an organisations culture comes from the extent to which the values, beliefs and attitudes of its members are shared. This is in spite of behaviours and does not necessary reflect what is considered normative. Chiu and Hong (2006) state that without taking an anthropological approach and considering culture as a core set of values or beliefs, one will only ascertain a segment of an organisations culture. As such, this position holds that practices and policies are merely manifestations of the most important influencing factors; beliefs, attitudes and values.

The anthropological perspective is arguably the most popular way in which literature has framed organisational culture to date (Naevestad, 2009). Though a fresh perspective has been

offered recently by Edwards, Davey and Armstrong (2013). While arguing for the importance of each perspective, they argue that research should take an integrated approach to understanding organisational culture, including all the elements of the anthropological, normative and pragmatic perspectives. In doing so they argue that organisational culture should consider the tangible facets of the normative and pragmatic perspectives, but also the anthropological factors that indicate the depth of the culture within the psyche of the members of the organisation. This can be seen as an update on Schein's popular model of organisational culture in which culture occurs at three levels; artefacts (visible structures and processes), espoused beliefs (advocated explanations) and underlying assumptions (ultimate sources of values and action) (Schein, 1990).

Based on its ability to capture a broad array of cultural perspectives, the present thesis will adopt Edwards, Davey and Armstrong's (2013) contemporary approach to organisational culture. Thus, organisational culture will not only be understood by normative ideas, but also by attitudes, values, beliefs and crucially, behaviours. This is further applicable to the present thesis as it is consistent with the constructivist approach to organisational culture. It allows for the broader, subjective, identification of factors which are most significant to a particular organisational culture.

3.1.3 Martin's three perspective approach. Another area of organisational culture which requires clarification is the extent to which values, beliefs and practices must be shared to constitute a culture. In other words, research must determine precisely what the benchmark for agreement is. As with Edwards, Davey and Armstrong (2013), Martin (2002) has categorised the most common approaches to benchmarking agreements in a three-perspective approach (as seen in Table 2).

Table 2.

Three Perspectives on Culture (Martin, 2002, p.95)

| | Perspective | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|--|
| | Integration | Differentiation | Fragmentation |
| Orientation to consensus | Organization-wide consensus | Sub-cultural consensus | Lack of consensus |
| Relation among manifestations | Consistency | Inconsistency | Not clearly consistent or inconsistent |
| Orientation to ambiguity | Exclude it | Channel it outside sub-cultures | Acknowledge it |

The first perspective is integration. With this, an organisational culture can only be ascribed in so far as there is complete, or close to complete, integration of attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviours. The emphasis for research is to describe elements that have as much of an organisation wide consensus as possible, excluding contradictory or extreme views as outliers. Therefore, with this popular perspective, organisational culture may be defined as a set of understandings or meanings shared by a group of people (Martin 2002).

Alternatively, researchers may take a differentiation perspective. With this, inconsistency is not discarded, but valued as an indication of multiples co-existing cultures within the organisation. This perspective argues that themes and practices may even be inconsistent with each other, with the potential for different sections of an organisation to create their own sub-culture (Martin, 2002). Based on this approach, organisational culture can be viewed as “a heuristic concept [that] may be lost when the organizational level of analysis is employed” as the culture may not span the organisation as a whole (Van Maanen & Barley, 1985 p.32, as cited in Martin, 2002).

The third and final perspective argues that in some organisations there may be little to no consensus and such a broad array of attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviours that the culture may

be viewed as fragmented (Martin, 2002). In this instance, the culture itself is summarised by its ambiguity, contradiction and uncertainty. Martin and Meyerson (1988, as cited in Martin, 2002) suggest that this may be viewed as a loosely connected web where conformity may be closer or further away at any given time. For example, such fluctuations may occur because of changes in the organisational climate. This is the attitudes, beliefs and values of organisational members at a particular point of organisational functioning, which may be influenced by topical issues (Glendon & Santon, 2000).

Researchers may have particular leanings to one of these stances based on a theoretical disposition, or the aims and objectives of particular research. The present thesis' aim to conceptualise safety culture from a child safeguarding in sport perspective. This means that it would be advantaged by taking an integration perspective and conceptualising only those elements which are generally agreed as vital to safety culture and safety performance. Although Martin argues that the boundaries of these stances are permeable, and that it may be detrimental to the quality of research on organisational life to adopt a single perspective approach in research (Martin, 2002). Instead research may be improved by acknowledging that it is possible for organisations to fit within each of these perspectives, from a single overarching culture to fragmented, disconnected subcultures. Indeed, it is argued by Antonsen (2009) that organisations rarely enjoy organisation-wide consensus and harmony, thus, an approach which allows the potential of differentiation and fragmentation to be recognised may ultimately represent a better reflection of the realities of life within that organisation.

The need to account for differentiation and fragmentation may also be especially relevant considering cross organisational and cross nation analyses. While the participants in this thesis may come from a variety of countries, there may also be organisations whose work is dispersed

across a range of countries. Considering research findings that organisational culture may be a reflection of the wider national culture that the organisation exists within (van Oudenhoven, 2001), the exclusion of any form of differentiation or fragmentation is likely to greatly hinder the extent to which a conceptualisation of safety culture in sport reflects the realities of organisational life in sport. Therefore, this thesis aims to adopt this three-perspective approach, accepting the submission that organisations may not necessarily have a completely integrated culture and larger organisations in particular may have coexisting cultures.

3.1.4 The approach of this thesis. In taking an interpretivist perspective to identify it, an assortment of pragmatic, anthropological and normative methods to evidence it and the three perspective approach as a benchmark of requisite commonality, this thesis will define organisational culture in line with the definition offered by Edwards, Davey and Armstrong (2013). They state that organisational culture is;

“(1) an abstraction rather than a concrete phenomenon, (2) relatively stable over time, (3) comprised of multiple dimensions (4) shared by groups of people, (5) containing several aspects which co-exist within an organisation, (6) something that leads to but is not solely defined by overt practices and (7) serving a functional purpose as expressed with the saying that it is ‘the way we do things around here’ (p.71).

This definition takes into account the subjectivity, multidimensionality and practicality of a culture, which Schein (1990) suggests can be expressed by the typical behaviours (artefacts), which are influenced by the common values of the organisation (espoused beliefs) and fundamental assumptions that govern those values (assumptions and beliefs). This definition and approach to organisational culture will be adopted in this thesis. It will also form the foundation of the definition and analysis of safety culture and its associated factors.

3.2 The Concept of Safety Culture

The term safety culture was first used in the 1986 report on the Chernobyl nuclear plant disaster by the International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group (INSAG) (Cooper, 2000). This report discussed the absence of a safety culture as one of the key causal factors of the incident (Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013). In doing so, the report sparked much interest in the concept, not only from an academic perspective but from organisations in the nuclear, aviation, healthcare and construction industries whose complexity and high risk of harm mean that there is a high degree of danger involved (Lawrie, Parker & Hudson, 2006).

Despite sparking such interest, the INSAG report failed to offer a definition, conceptualisation, explanation model or guidance on how organisations may access safety culture (Choudhry, Fang & Mohamed, 2007b). Organisations seeking to develop safety cultures were left to draw their own inferences on what it is and how they may do so. Therefore, much of the resulting research has focussed on how organisations may identify, define, develop or categorise safety culture (Cooper, 2000; Choudhry, Fang & Mohamed, 2007b). This has meant that at present, many definitions and approaches to safety culture exist with researchers continuing to update and refine their approaches. The following section seeks to provide a review of these approaches. In doing so this section will conclude on the approach taken by the present thesis, which will form the basis for the conceptualisation of safety culture in sport.

3.2.1 Defining and conceptualising safety culture. Many definitions of safety culture have emerged since the initial use of the term (Guldenmund, 2000). Despite the INSAG returning to define safety culture as “the personal dedication and accountability of all individuals engaged in activity which has a bearing on safety” (INSAG, 1991, p.4.), academic disciplines and professional industries have become divided in their own aspirations to define and

conceptualise safety culture. These disciplines and industries have sought to comprehend safety culture from a particular academic stance, or by applying it to their field of choice (Edwards et al., 2013).

Attempts to provide all embracing definitions of safety culture have been offered by some. For example, Hale, Guldenmund, van Loenhout and Oh (2010) defined safety culture as “the attitudes, beliefs and perceptions shared by natural groupings as defining norms and values which determine how they act and react in relation to risk and risk control systems” (p.7). Meanwhile, Glendon and Santon (2000) suggested that safety culture encompasses the attitudes, behaviours, norms, values, personal responsibilities and human resources which enable training and development towards safety management. Both of these definitions, discuss the necessity for individuals within the organisation to hold safety in high regards, and for that regard to influence behaviour and action. Though there is very little consensus on the definition of safety culture, and in general disagreements have mirrored the conceptual issues of its super-ordinate factor, organisational culture (Choudhry et al., 2007b). Therefore, safety culture definitions can be divided along the lines of the three perspectives of culture identified by Blinkman (2007); normative, anthropological and pragmatic.

3.2.2 Normative conceptions of safety culture. When the term safety culture was first introduced by INSAGs original report in 1986, it was stated that “the need to create and maintain a safety culture is a precondition for ensuring nuclear power plant safety” (INSAG, 1992, p,22). The report discussed safety culture as something that one either has or doesn’t have, while also positioning it as an ideal or a definitive positive contributor to organisational safety management. With the absence of recognition that a safety culture may be unique to a particular organisation or possess different approaches or styles, the general consensus has been that INSAG presented

safety culture as a normative concept that has an implicit positive impact which can be derived from its mere presence. The suggestion is supported by Pidgeon (1991) who argues that “a normative approach is implicit in the original use of the term” (p. 130) and Guldenmund (2000) who states that the report “follows a normative approach” (p. 245).

At best safety culture is something that enhances the safety management of organisations. The literature atones to this, with much evidence of the positive influence safety culture can have towards enhancing the safety management of an organisation (Haukelid, 2008). Though one of the main criticisms of this approach have been its stance that safety culture implicitly represents the best that has been thought and done. This literature instead argues that safety cultures should not viewed as tools that can be used to fix unsafe organisations, but as a unique constellation of an organisations thoughts, feelings and predispositions towards safety management (Parker, Lawrie & Hudson, 2006). For example, in a qualitative study with 26 experienced oil and gas company executives, Parker et al. (2006) found that safety cultures can vary in nature from organisation to organisation, occur in varying degrees of strength, and can be positive or negative. Therefore, the view that safety culture should be seen as a continuous and linear positive representation of safety in organisations is not only unlikely, but a potentially dangerous stance.

The normative approach to safety culture has also been criticised for its inability to account for sub-cultures or the cultural differentiation that may exist within an organisation (Martin, 2002). Furthermore, although the elements of safety culture that normative approaches tend to focus on (i.e. policies, procedures and systems) are highly relevant, an explicit focus on them may lead to the neglect of other crucial factors such as beliefs, attitudes and values of employees. Such factors have been highlighted as important influences of safety culture in a

meta-analysis of relevant research (Christian, Bradley, Wallace & Burke, 2009). This is a particular concern considering findings from another meta-analysis conducted by Robson et al. (2007), who found a poor relationship between the existence of safety management systems and actual safety performance. For these reasons taking a strictly normative approach to safety culture is heavily criticised. Particularly as the anthropological or pragmatic approaches argue that perceptions of safety culture have generally evolved, and more recent literature rejects a strictly normative approach (Edwards et al., 2013).

3.2.3 Anthropological conceptions of safety culture. The anthropological perspective of safety culture holds that it is “a set of safety related attitudes, values or assumptions that are shared between members of an organisation” (Antonsen, 2009 p.183). This position has become increasingly popular as the literature attempts to understand influencing factors such as employees’ attitudes and perceptions towards safety (Fernández-Muñiz, et al., 2007a). An example of a definition from this perspective is offered by Turner et al. (1989) who defines safety culture as “the set of beliefs, norms, attitudes, roles, and social and technical practices that are concerned with minimising the exposure of employees, managers, customers and members of the public to conditions considered dangerous or injurious” (as cited in Cooper, 2000, p.113). This is similar to Schein’s (1992) definition of safety culture as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (p.11).

It can be said that this approach allows the literature to address safety culture from a more dynamic perspective. The focus on anthropological factors does not presuppose that safety culture is a positive concept, instead it leaves open the possibility that an organisation could have

a weak, or negative safety culture. Edwards et al (2013) argue that this is a great strength of this approach, allowing it to be applied to a much wider scope of organisations, irrespective of whether they are tightly regulated or rather autonomous. This is a relevant strength for the present thesis as it will allow the investigation of a wide range of organisations such as the highly regulated governing bodies of sport, to the more autonomous delivery based organisations.

One of the most prominent issues with exploring safety culture from this perspective is that it can often lead to confusion between safety culture and safety climate. Particularly as the theoretical and practical development of safety culture has been so closely related to that of safety climate (de Castro, Gracia, Peiró, Pietrantonio & Hernández, 2013). Safety climate should be perceived as a temporal reflection of individuals perceptions on matters such as the importance of safety within their organisation (Guldenmund, 2000). Therefore, it represents merely a snapshot of individuals views on safety at a particular time (Flin, Mearns, O'Connor & Bryden, 2000). This may be influenced by various contextual factors within or external to the organisation. Although in taking an anthropological approach to studying safety much of the literature has struggled to distinguish between the two (de Castro et al., 2013). So much so that in attempting to predict the predictive value of safety culture on safety performance in the telecommunications industry, Wu, Lin and Shiao (2010) argued that separating literature on the two is fruitless as the terms are used interchangeably so frequently. With safety culture viewed as a sub-ordinate of safety culture at most (Glendon & Santon, 2000), it can be argued that taking a strictly anthropological approach may be perceived as reducing safety culture to safety climate, rather than recognising safety culture as a super-ordinate factor.

Additionally, the literature is rather unanimous in its position that safety culture, be it strong or weak, positive or negative, has a practical influence on safety performance. In focussing solely on the psychological variables associated with safety culture, safety culture research would limit itself. There is very little evidence to dispute the notion that the psychological variables are crucial and most entrenched in culture, but they must result in physical aspects of the culture (Schein, 1990; 1992). Otherwise it can be argued that what is being explored is safety climate rather than safety culture, and the predictive validity of safety culture is limited (Edwards et al., 2013). For these reasons, one must also consider the pragmatic conception of safety culture.

3.2.4 Pragmatic concepts of safety culture. In taking a pragmatic approach to safety culture, theorists have focussed on the behavioural aspects of culture (Hopkins, 2006). There are some pragmatic conceptualisations of safety culture which incorporate psychological factors, although from a broad perspective these theorists have defined safety culture in regard to shared behaviours and how these psychological dimensions may result in behaviours (Naevestad, 2009). In doing so they adopt the popular stance that safety culture is very much about what is done and the way it is done (Deal & Kennedy, 1982 cited in Cooper, 2000). Which has frequently been analysed by questionnaires which attempt to predict safety performance measures and subsequent safety performance (Guldenmund, 2007).

The focus on behaviour and subsequent safety performance is praised by Edwards et al. (2013) who states that “ultimately safety culture is only of practical benefit when it can be directly related to safety behaviours and outcomes” (p. 76). Though with this approach focussing on behaviour, it can falsely ascribe the meaning of those behaviours which may not necessarily relate to personal attitudes, beliefs or values towards safety. In doing so this approach leaves

open the ability recognise the mediating role of influencers like power, social comparison, self-efficacy and implicit or explicit coercion. This satisfies researchers such as Antonsen (2009) who is heavily critical of the failure of safety culture literature to address social issues like power imbalances in organisations.

Edwards et al., (2013) have disputed the efficacy of a purely behavioural approach arguing that culture requires the sharing of beliefs, attitudes and values about particular issues. Therefore “practices can only be labelled as safety culture when attributions can be made about their underlying cognitive causes” (p.75). Otherwise there is a chance that the exclusive focus on behaviours may demote safety culture to safety behaviour. This criticism may explain the frequent failure of research taking this approach to evidence its validity and relevance to safety outcomes (Guldenmund, 2007; Blinkman, 2007).

3.2.5 A synthesised approach to safety culture. In viewing these approaches as competing perspectives, it is common for researchers to select a particular disposition and conduct research from it (Naevestad, 2009). Although Edwards et al. (2013) argue that it is possible to synthesise these approaches and enjoy the benefits of each approach, while negating the weaknesses by the inclusion and integration of other approaches. They argue that the anthropological and pragmatic aspects of culture are easily reconciled. For example, in defining safety culture as the values, beliefs, attitudes, risk perceptions and behaviours of organisational members relating to safety (Lee & Harrison, 2000), safety culture can be viewed as a combination of the pragmatic and anthropological perspectives. In this instance, safety culture is positioned as something that emanates from psychological factors, yet is evidenced by their manifestation in behaviour. This can also be said of the popular definition of safety culture as the way we do things around here (Deal & Kennedy, 1982 cited in Cooper, 2000). Implicit in this

definition is the notion that there are beliefs, attitudes or values that the organisation has which informs what it practically does.

The normative conceptualisation can also be included in this synthesised concept (Edwards et al., 2013). The normative approach focusses on what should be taught within the organisation based on the idea of what is ‘right’ or successful. Therefore, considering the argument by Schein (1992) that anthropological factors, and behaviours do indeed combine, though they do so within a situational context, it can be argued that what has typically been considered normative (policies, procedures and organisational systems) not only fits well into a synthesised model, but is necessary to allow a complete understanding of safety culture. Pidgeon (1997) makes a strong case for the synthesis of approaches by arguing that the exclusion of normative factors such as systems may render cultures inept or ineffective.

In combining three unique approaches, there is a risk that one may dilute the effectiveness of each approach. Although owing to the advantages of each, and the potential to minimise the limitations the present thesis will take a synthesised approach to understand safety culture. This will also allow the present thesis to take a stance on safety culture that is consistent with the position taken on organisational culture. This is crucial considering safety culture is a sub-ordinate of the wider organisational culture (Antonsen, 2009; Guldenmund, 2000, Glendon & Santon, 2000). In taking this approach, the present thesis will define safety culture as;

“...the assembly of underlying assumptions, beliefs, values and attitudes shared by members of an organisation, which interact with an organisation’s structures and systems and the broader contextual setting to result in those external readily visible, practices that influence safety” (Edwards et al., 2013 p.77).

This definition offers safety culture flexibility by allowing safety culture to be understood in line with Martin's (2002) three perspective approach on cultural differentiation. It also brings together the significant amounts of previously published research on organisational and safety culture (Edwards et al., 2013).

3.3 The Key Influencing Factors of Safety Culture

In order to provide the concept of safety culture with a high degree of practicality, a prominent focus of safety culture literature has been on the identification of its most relevant factors (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a). Researchers from an extremely broad array of industries have sought to provide lists of key safety culture factors in a bid to operationalise the concept and address this gap in the research (Frazier, et al., 2013; Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a). This literature has highlighted a range of salient factors and a series of review papers have sought to bring clarity to the literature (e.g. Flin et al., 2000; Guldenmund, 2000). Therefore, despite attempts to propose frameworks of the key safety culture factors (e.g. Parker, Lawrie & Hudson, 2006; Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; Frazier et al., 2013), the most influential factors of safety culture remains debateable.

Despite this, there are three factors that arise regularly within the literature; safety management systems, a managerial commitment to safety and employee views, attitudes and engagement often presented in the form of safety climate (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; Mearns, Whitaker & Flin, 2003; Christian et al., 2009). These three factors make up Fernández-Muñiz et al.'s (2007a) model of safety culture. The following section seeks to provide a review of the literature on these safety culture factors, focussing on those most frequently discussed. This section will review the evidence of each factor, discussing their applicability to the sport industry.

3.3.1 Safety management systems. A Safety Management System (SMS) can be described as a set of interrelated or interacting elements that are established to inform organisational policy on safety (Fernández-Muñoz et al., 2007a; 2007b). SMSs create organisational objectives based on this policy while also establishing the means through which the organisation proposes to meet those objectives (International Labour Office, 2001). These systems are typically developed top down, originating from those that have ultimate power to initiate the development, incorporation and implementation of safety related policies, strategies, practices, procedures, roles and functions (Frazier et al., 2013; Flin et al., 2000). This tends to be central to governing body analyses due to its normative value and its ability to be easily accessed and assessed with audits (Lin, 2012). Though the presence of these elements alone does not constitute a SMS, instead the safety specific elements must combine to form an explicit and systematic approach to managing risk (Hsu, Li & Chen, 2010). This must aim to positively influence employee attitudes and behaviours towards safety and risk (Fernández-Muñoz et al., 2007b), which is achieved as the SMS analyses and identifies latent and visible hazards, intervening on processes which cause risk and harm (Bottani, Monica & Vignali, 2009).

Evidence of its importance. Within the safety culture literature, it is generally agreed upon that SMSs have a seminal impact on organisational safety culture (Frazier et al., 2013). Frazier and colleagues have positioned SMS as central to their conceptualisation of safety culture, with supported findings that SMSs are of the strongest statistical predictors of safety culture (Frazier et al., 2013). This is akin to Fernández-Muniz et al. (2007a), who found SMSs to be one of three key factors of safety culture, a position also held by Cooper (2000) who places SMSs in the Reciprocal Safety Culture Model.

In general, research suggests that safety culture is underpinned and strengthened by the presence and efficacy of a SMS (Bottani et al., 2009). For example, in a study with 866 experienced safety contractors in the building sector, Ismail and colleagues found that SMSs were deemed to be central to the development and promotion of strong safety cultures as they operationalised the attitudes and views that encapsulated the safety culture (Ismail, Salimin & Ismail, 2012). Similarly, in a quantitative study, Kao, Lai, Chuang and Lee (2008) found SMS to be a key dimension of safety culture, as suggested by findings from 533 petrochemical industrial staff.

Comparable findings have also been established in a wide variety of fields such as the Manufacturing, Agricultural, Building, Mining, Chemical, Healthcare, steel, Oil and Gas industries (Filho et al., 2010; Mearns et al., 2003; Frazier et al., 2013; Podgórski, 2006). For example, in a study consisting of organisations from a variety of small, medium and large local, national and multinational manufacturing industries, Bottani et al., (2009) found that organisations with SMSs have less than half of the accidents per year (7) than those that without (15). Such assertions have also been made regarding organisations from a wide variety of countries such as Brazil (Filho, Andrade & Marinho, 2010), Spain (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b), Poland (Podgórski, 2006) and Taiwan (Wu et al., 2008).

Evidence of its effect. There are a variety of explanations for the effect that a successful SMS can have on an organisation. One of the most prominent of those explanations is offered by Podgórski (2006). Podgórski (2006) gave questionnaires to 30 Polish enterprises to identify the key factors that influence the successful implementation of SMSs, and their subsequent affects. Podgórski (2006) found one of the most significant outcomes of a successful SMS to be its tendency to encourage employees to engage and purposefully interact with the organisation's

safety management initiatives. This could be due to the frequently held position that SMSs are a reflection of the senior management's perceptions of the importance of managing safety (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). Where employees are eager to do well in their roles, it is understandable that this view would motivate them to engage with the SMS, not least because it may be looked upon favourably from those in a position of power, such as managers and senior managers.

In addition to these influences, SMSs have also been found to have several direct positive influences on organisational safety culture. In a mixed methods study with 71 members of staff, representing 10 small and medium enterprises, participants argued that SMSs can enhance employee safety, awareness, and sense of achievement in regard to safety management (Vassie & Cox, 1998). Supporting evidence of the effect of SMSs is also offered by Bottani et al.'s (2009) study in the manufacturing industry which found that organisations with SMSs exhibit significantly higher safety performance against defined safety goals. This is typified by their statistically increased likelihood to assess risks, update risk data, define corrective actions and promote a more positive and proactive attitude towards safety based training.

This may contribute to improvements in communication, morale and productivity, providing a viable means to ensure the organisation meets its legal responsibilities in managing safety at the bare minimum (Rowlinson, 2004; Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). In doing so, high quality SMSs may address arguably the biggest cause of unsafe worker behaviour, the latent failures in organisational systems that predispose employees to either perform unsafe behaviours, or neglect to perform safety based behaviours (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b).

Criticisms of SMSs. Despite these compelling arguments on the efficacy of SMS, research also argues that organisations should not assume they will experience the positive

effects of a SMS, simply by virtue of its presence. Recognising that not all SMSs are positive influencers of safety culture, Gardner (2002) has found the failure rate of SMS interventions range from 67% to 93%. This may be due to a lack of quantity and quality in the research on the effectiveness of mandatory and voluntary SMSs, as found in a meta-analysis by Robson et al. (2007). Though it may also be due to the potential negative influences of inadequate SMSs. This includes, their tendency to; provide workers with a false sense of security (Gallagher, Underhill & Rimmer, 2003), encourage blame towards workers (Nichols & Tucker, 2000) and to strip employees of the power to use their experiences and initiatives to solve issues (Lund, 2004; Nichols & Tucker, 2000).

Fernández-Muñiz et al (2007b) state that few bodies of literature have analysed the SMS as a whole, rather choosing to focus on specific aspects of SMSs such as risk analysis, reviews, communication or near miss reporting (Basso et al., 2004). A typical example of this is offered with a case study on a production plant which demonstrated strong links between the ability to conduct an adequate risk analysis and the ability to design and implement a SMS (Demichela, Piccinini & Romano, 2004). The research failed to offer a comprehensive SMS model or specifically explain the functional role of risk analysis in SMSs. This is an issue also discussed by Basso and colleagues who criticised the lack of SMS frameworks or models to guide organisations seeking to implement a SMS (Basso et al., 2004). These criticisms have inspired subsequent research, such as that produced by Fernández-Muñiz et al., (2007b) to focus on clarifying the elements of an effective SMS. This is based on the argument that although SMSs do have an influence on safety culture, they only do so when a well organised and defined SMS is implemented (Bottani et al., 2009).

Safety management system models. The European Process Safety Centre (1994, cited in Bottani et al., 2009) suggests that the central aspects of a SMSs are; policy, organisation, management practices/ procedures, monitoring and evaluating and management review. This is similar to the position taken by Law, Chan and Pun (2006, cited in Bottani et al., 2009) who suggest that there are four core elements of a SMS; policy, planning, implementation and evaluation. Further, Makin and Winder's (2008) framework of SMSs states that SMSs should seek to develop safe people, safe systems and safe places. They have offered a list of building blocks of various components of SMS, of which a shortened version can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3.

Building blocks for SMS (Adapted from Makin & Winder, 2008)

| Safe place | Safe person | Safe systems |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Baseline risk assessment | Equal opportunity | OHS policy/procedures |
| Ergonomic assessments | Inductions | Goal setting |
| Plant/equipment | Selection criteria | Accountability |
| Materials (storage/handling) | Job descriptions | Due diligence |
| Electrical/noise pollution | Training | Resource allocation |
| Biohazards | Behaviour modification | Competent supervision |
| Installations/demolition | Health promotion | Communication |
| Preventive maintenance | Networking/mentoring | Consultation |
| Peer review/commissioning | Conflict resolution | Legislative updates |
| Security – site/personal | First aid/reporting | Record keeping/archives |
| Emergency preparedness | Performance appraisals | Incident management |
| Housekeeping | Feedback programs | Audits |
| Plant inspections/monitoring | Review of personnel turnover | System review |

However, this study did not offer a rigorous scientific analysis which may have identified the most pertinent factors, nor did it seek to provide a best fit model by grouping or removing listings which may be viewed as similar descriptions of the same topic (e.g. consultation and communication). Many of the concerns of this framework also seem to lack applicability to sport (e.g. biohazards and plant inspections). Therefore, its use as a means to conceptualise SMSs for the present thesis is questionable.

An alternative contribution and arguably one of the most prominent frameworks of SMS is offered by Fernández-Muñiz et al., (2007b). This framework was derived from a rigorous analysis of the literature, followed by an empirical examination of 455 questionnaires from participants representing a variety of employment sectors (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). This empirically backed framework suggests that there are six subscales of SMSs;

- Safety Policy – A policy that reflects the organisations principles and values towards safety.
- Incentives – Direct incentives or via consultations with employees.
- Training – Staff development that equips staff with the knowledge to carry out their jobs in the safest way possible.
- Communication – Transference of information about risks, combatting them and reporting incidents.
- Planning (preventative and emergency) – The planning of actions to carry out in order to avoid accidents or respond adequately to emergency incidents.
- Control (internal and benchmarking) – Generating feedback through an analysis of working conditions. This may be achieved by benchmarking through other organisations or by conducting internal analysis.

Amongst these six items, communication, policy, incentives and training were found to be first order factors, while control and planning were second order factors. The planning factor was divided into both preventative and emergency planning, while control was divided into benchmarking performance. Benchmarking can be achieved by comparing the organisation to similar organisations and understanding what constitutes safe organisational performance, while internal control pertains to monitoring and evaluating the structure, functioning and the performance of the organisation. In this sense control is used as a term describing the regulation and adjustment of requirements, standards and the performance of the organisation.

The framework offered by Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) is arguably the most popular framework of SMSs. Although in a bid to further understanding of SMSs and synthesise subsequent evidence into an updated conceptualisation of SMS, a more recent alternative has been offered by Frazier et al., (2013). Frazier and colleagues present a ten component framework of SMSs. This is based on a comprehensive review of the literature and subsequent factorial and hierarchical confirmatory factor analysis of 25,574 survey results. Results were derived from key informants in the form of safety professionals in five industries (mining, healthcare, steel, agricultural and chemical). The review of literature found ten factors with significant evidence to support their inclusion as a factor of SMS. Those factors were;

- Safety policy, procedures and rules
- Training
- Communication
- Incident reporting and analysis
- Safety audits and inspections
- Rewards and recognition

- Employee engagement
- Safety meetings/committees
- Suggestions and concerns
- Discipline

Despite recognising these components as the most discussed and evidenced within the SMS literature, exploratory factor analysis and subsequent hierarchical confirmatory factor analyses found evidence to suggest that SMSs are actually less complex than previously assumed. Frazier et al., (2013) found that the framework actually fit best statistically when simplified into a four component factor of;

- Communication
- Training and rules
- Discipline
- Rewards and recognition

The items removed from the SMS framework following the analysis were incident reporting and analysis, safety audits and inspections, employee engagement, safety meetings/committees and suggestions and concerns.

These findings and the removal of evidenced factors in Frazier et al.'s (2013) framework of SMS contradicts the literature. An example of this can be seen with the suggestion that incident reporting is not a sub-factor of SMSs. This appears to contradict Nielsen, Cartensen and Rasmussen (2006) who not only found evidence to support its importance, but also reported that most of the literature is in agreement that it is a primary SMS factor. Employee engagement has also been shown to be crucial by Hale, Guldenmund, van Leenhout and Oh (2010) who stress the importance of safety meetings and committees in providing a platform for people to express

and resolve safety issues. In addition, Theraldsen, Mearns and Knudsen (2010) who strongly advocate a system for staff to recommend organisational changes to management.

It must be noted that the exclusion of these components from Frazier et al.'s (2013) SMS framework does not denote disagreement with the significance of the factors in developing a safety culture. Instead it signifies a belief that these factors may fit best in other areas of safety culture and SMS conceptualisations. An example can be seen with the removal of meetings/committees and expressing concerns. This is rather understandable considering they could both exist under the heading of communication. In this sense the development of safety meetings/committees, along with avenues to make suggestions/concerns could be seen as a means to facilitate organisational communication on safety, rather than factors of SMSs in their own right.

Furthermore, Frazier et al. (2013) argued that these items are also likely to be related to more individualised factors of safety culture, such as the concern of the organisational leadership or employee engagement. For instance, incident reporting was also deemed to be a more individual component of safety culture, with aspects of it viewed as a sub-component of the personal responsibility that staff members must have for a strong positive safety culture to exist. This is in spite of the potential for the SMS to positively influence individual behaviour by influencing the safety climate (Christian et al., 2009).

Comparing the SMS models of Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) and Frazier et al. (2013). There are some similarities between the frameworks offered by Frazier et al., (2013) and that of Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) (an overview is presented in Table 4). For example, both frameworks present communication as a factor of SMSs. They both state the belief that open, effective and consistent communication between employees and the senior management of the

organisation is central to the success of a SMS. Research suggests that this communication should be both formal and informal, with examples such as safety meetings, committees and face to face appraisals on safety (Zohar, 1980, cited in Frazier et al., 2013; Mearns, Whitaker and Flin, 2003). McAdam (2011, cited in Frazier et al., 2013) argues that these means of communication and the views of employees should be taken seriously to ensure the process is not viewed as a waste of time. This lends support to the suggestion that the SMS must be communicated consistently (Hale, Guldenmund, van Loenhout and Oh, 2010), and that communication from the management in particular demonstrates that safety is vital (Dollard & Bakker, 2010).

Another similarity is that both frameworks discuss training as a factor of SMSs. This adds support to Christian and colleague's meta-analysis which found that training is an important influencer of employee's knowledge, motivation and ultimate safety performance (Christian et al., 2009). Furthermore, support is also provided for Lawrie, Parker and Hudson's (2006) finding that safety culture is heavily influenced by the presence and interest in safety based training. While the inclusion of training is also said to boost employee's perceptions of managerial commitment to safety (O'Toole, 2002; Wamuziri, 2013).

Table 4.

SMS frameworks by Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) and Frazier et al., (2013).

| Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) | Frazier et al., (2013) |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Safety Policy | Training and rules |
| Training | Rewards and recognition |
| Incentives | Discipline |
| Communication | Communication |
| Planning (preventative and emergency) | |
| Control (internal and benchmarking) | |

There are also notable differences between the two frameworks. For instance, while both frameworks include training, Frazier et al., (2013) merged training with rules. On the other hand, Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) made the distinction between safety policy, procedures and rules, and training as a means of developing the knowledge and skills of employees. The reasoning behind the merger of the two offered by Frazier et al., (2013) is that training is used to educate staff on the rules, and encourage people to follow them. Therefore, the belief is that these two factors should be merged as one, as they are interlinked.

This is an understandable conclusion, indeed, in a broad sense, it can be said that safety based training should always be rooted in a desire to ensure staff are educated and incentivised to adhere to safety based rules. Although where training is narrowly viewed as a means to teach staff about the rules of the organisation, rather than a forum to increase employee's knowledge and skills generally, some organisations may be open to the criticism that their SMS is rigid and strips employees of the power to use their knowledge, experiences and initiatives to solve issues (as argued by Lund, 2004; Nichols & Tucker, 2000). This may be particularly problematic in highly unregulated environments (such as in sport), where factors that can do harm, such as the changing environment or the unpredictability of other people may be more difficult to regulate (Makin & Winder, 2008). In these instances, Makin and Winder suggest that competency skills, judgement and the quality of employee decision making is more influential than following specific rules (Makin & Winder, 2008). This may explain why Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) elect to keep the two factors separate despite recognising that safety policy is one of the weakest individual predictors of an effective SMS. With that in mind it can be argued that successful SMSs should neither inherently nor stringently link training to the organisation's rules on safety.

Another difference between the two frameworks is that while Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) placed incentives in their frameworks, Frazier et al. (2013) discussed discipline, along with rewards and recognition. These factors are all similar in that they make reference to acts that are performed with the intention of encouraging employees to engage with the SMS. Literature discusses the importance of this, stating that worker involvement is central to the success of safety systems (Hahn & Murphy, 2008), and that effective SMSs should facilitate and encourage employees to engage with safety (Podgórski, 2006). Although it can be said that the factor presented by Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) is broader than that presented by Frazier et al. (2013), and actually describes the amalgamation of factors like discipline and rewards and recognition. Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) state that incentives describe motivational tools that are “aimed at promoting safe behaviour and involving employees” (p.54). In this sense, rewards and recognition would both constitute incentives. This is the same of discipline, which is a means to ensure staff avoid violating the safety policy and procedures, while ensuring they are punished if they do. Or, as put by Clegg and Bailey (2008), discipline is about ensuring social order is kept and that those that violate this social order are demotivated from doing so again. Branham (2010) adds that discipline should be used to encourage and incentivise workers to adhere to safety policy and procedures. Therefore, discipline can be seen as merely a type of incentive to increasing employee adherence and compliance to the SMS. Consequently, while Frazier et al. (2013) include it as a factor in its own right, it is arguable that disciplinary procedures, rewards and recognition are all practical methods of incentivising staff to adhere to SMSs. These methods may be explicitly stated in the safety policy for the purposes of transparency and fairness, and operationalised to enhance employee engagement with safety management or to manage absconders.

The final difference between these two frameworks is Frazier et al.'s (2013) exclusion of planning and control mechanisms. This is somewhat surprising considering the vast array of literature which highlights the importance of preventative and emergency planning, along with the need to continuously monitor and evaluate (control) ones SMS (Robson et al., 2007). In fact, after an intervention based study in a power plant it was concluded that a correct and careful risk analysis is necessary to design and implement a SMS (Demichela et al., 2004). Furthermore, Makin and Winder (2008; 2009) discussed the significance of developing hazard profiles which form the basis of SMS policy and procedure and effectively underpin SMSs. They argue that unless the organisation continuously engages in a process of understanding the hazards and risks that they are faced with, the effectiveness of the SMS is likely to suffer. In doing so it may extend significant amounts of resources, and efforts into attempting to tackle issues that are of little or no risk, while potentially neglecting others.

Clarifying the concept of SMS. On these grounds the framework of Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b) is preferred over that of Frazier et al., (2013). The present thesis will conceptualise SMSs as sets of interrelated or interacting elements that are developed with objectives on safety management, and the clarification and development of the means through which the organisation proposes to meet those objectives (International Labour Office, 2001). It is argued that effective SMSs include; Safety policy/procedure, training, incentives, communication, planning (preventative and emergency) and control (internal and benchmarking) (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). These elements must combine to form an explicit and systematic approach to managing risk (Hsu, Li & Chen, 2010). They must also positively influence employee attitudes and behaviours towards safety and risk (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b), while analysing, identifying

and intervening with respect to latent and visible hazards which may cause risk and harm (Bottani, Monica & Vignali, 2009).

Based on the evidence, it is argued that SMSs are ineffective when they descend into paper trails which involve significant amounts of documentation, and little practical application (Makin & Windler, 2008; Mearns et al., 2003). Instead they should be tangible aspects of the organisation, which at best are completely integrated into the other operations of the organisation, helping them to be seen as part of the everyday life of the organisation (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). Additionally, it is argued that the effectiveness of SMSs are dependent upon the involvement and engagement of employees, while also hinging upon the committed enforcement of senior members of staff, typically those in management (Christian et al., 2009; Lawrie, Parker & Hudson, 2006; Frazier et al., 2013; Makin & Winder, 2008; Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a).

Application to sport. Many of the industries that have been explored in respects to SMSs have developed these systems as a response to guidance offered by their industry governing or regulatory bodies. For example, Hsu, Lin & Chen identify several aviation administrative bodies which mandate SMSs in countries such as Canada, the UK, USA etc. (2012). Although in sport, this level of guidance is not always available. In fact, Brackenridge states that internationally the pace of development in the field of safeguarding varies heavily from those that refuse to acknowledge it as an issue, to those that have comprehensive systems in place (Brackenridge et al., 2005).

The lack of mandatory enforcement from authoritative figures may have a detrimental effect on the motivation of organisations to produce, maintain and evaluate adequate safety management systems, as it did in the early 21st century in Britain (Brackenridge et al., 2005).

Without such pressure to produce, implement and develop a SMS, sporting organisations may be reluctant to dedicate the time, attention and resources required to such tasks. Furthermore, with no independent regulatory body to audit, many sporting organisations may have the necessary SMS elements, but of extremely poor quality and low functionality and effectiveness.

Alternatively, sporting organisations may offer disproportionate and unilateral focus on some matters, to the neglect of others. There is some evidence to suggest this may be the case. In their book on international developments in safeguarding children, Lang and Hartill (2015) describe the most recent developments in safeguarding, most of which are policy based. While in a qualitative study with directors and coaches in elite youth sport in the Netherlands, it was found that even in instances where maltreatment is institutionalised and rationalised, many, particularly senior staff like directors believe that policy will ensure the protection of children (Jacobs, Smits & Knoppers, 2016). Such situations may even create a dangerous, yet false sense of security discussed by Gallagher, Underhill and Rimmer (2003).

An attempt to develop a comprehensive system of safety that applies globally has been presented in the form of the International Safeguards. Though this considered research findings from sport, it was not based on well evidenced literature on SMS, such as that offered by Fernández-Muñiz and colleagues (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). Therefore, the development of a sport specific framework of SMS can be advantageous, and may be subsequently used to underpin the International Safeguards. Though it is also necessary to question the extent to which a normative SMS would work in sport at all.

Delivery staff that engage with children tend to work across a wide variety of sites, and cannot always account for the highly unpredictable nature of human behaviour, especially in sporting contexts. Makin and Winder (2008) have previously argued that in highly unpredictable

and unregulated industries like sport, SMSs may not be as effective as it seems in the literature, which is dominated by research in highly regulated organisations like oil and petrochemical industrial sites. Indeed, the applicability of strict SMSs in sport is also put into question by the findings of Piper, Garratt and Taylor (2013). Piper and colleagues found that coaches in the UK suggested that training and policy guidelines that they were increasingly faced with may actually do more to breed feelings of fear in practitioners, further lowering their willingness to engage with children. This was expressed as potentially reducing their likelihood to safeguard or respond to safeguarding issues.

Therefore, the present thesis will question the effectiveness of SMSs in sport, seeking to ascertain the extent to which SMS influence the development of integrated, positive and strong safety cultures in sport. It will then question the ideal configuration of a SMS in sport. This will seek to develop a SMS framework which has applicability and practicality in sporting contexts.

3.3.2 Leadership commitment. When the literature regarding safety culture is explored, management commitment features as one of the most frequently cited factors (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). The commitment and concern of those in management is a central facet of Frazier et al (2013), Fernández-Muñiz et al., (2007b) and Parker et al.'s (2007) seminal frameworks of safety culture. Additionally, an abundance of researchers from a wide variety of industries have described it as an essential dimension of safety culture (Zohar, 2003 cited in Flin, 2007). One example of this can be seen with Filho, Andrade and Marinho (2010) who confirmed findings from previous research that the commitment of senior staff is a key dimension for the measurement of safety culture in the industrial sector. Another example can be seen with Wamuziri (2013), who found the commitment of management to be the most significant factor in developing a safety culture in construction. While in a comprehensive review of the literature

regarding safety culture in the healthcare industry, Halligan and Zecevic (2011) highlighted management commitment as the most frequently found factor within healthcare research.

The evidence suggests that where managers show a strong sense of commitment to safety, the message conveyed to staff is that it is of high priority and something to be taken seriously (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). In fact, having administered safety perception surveys to over 3,000 staff of a large construction organisation, O'Toole (2002) concurred with this, finding managerial commitment to be the greatest influencer of employee perceptions of safety. This is a finding similar to that of Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b), who analysed the causal relationships of what research suggests are the key dimensions of safety culture. They established that “manager’s commitment has direct, positive and statistically significant influence on both employees’ involvement and safety management systems” (p. 634). These findings are offered further support from recent empirical evidence by Frazier, Ludwig, Whitaker and Roberts (2013) who subjected the concept of safety culture to a hierarchical factorial analysis, finding the attitudes and values of management to be crucial influencing factors of safety culture. This adds credence to the suggestion that senior managers are the organisation’s safety-culture custodians and shapers (Taylor, 2010).

How is commitment demonstrated? Considering such findings, much of the research on safety culture has presented relationships between management commitment and the safety based attitudes and behaviours of workers (e.g. Mearns et al., 2003). It is generally accepted that the values of a positive safety culture can permeate the organisation if top management lead efforts and communicate its importance (Dollard & Bakker, 2010). Though the literature is also clear that safety management efforts often collapse when employees perceive the management’s commitment to safety to be weak, and unsupported by their philosophies and practical decision

making. Empirical evidence of this is offered by Parker, Lawrie and Hudson (2006) who found commitment to be a crucial aspect of safety culture, while also noting that employee perceptions of safety culture are negatively impacted upon by views that management only demonstrate commitment after an incident, merely play lip service to safety or that there is a general atmosphere of self-preservation. On these grounds Kletz (1985, cited in Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a) has previously argued that declarations of commitment, such as those within mission statements and formal documents, are insufficient in modifying employee's attitudes and behaviours. The intentions of managers must be translated into daily experiences, reflected in the awareness, concern and conviction of the manager's approach and conduct (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a). Failing to do so has been found to reduce the motivation of staff to adhere to rules and regulations (Abdullah & Wern, 2012).

Recommended methods of exemplifying commitment are offered by Mearns et al. (2003), who argue that in order to demonstrate genuine commitment, management should facilitate the creation of safety meetings and attend them personally. It is argued that managers should also have safety as a feature of all employee's job descriptions and contracts, while being sure to consistently prioritise safety over other competing values such as those pertaining to production and profit. Relieving work pressure, the likes of which are accrued from managing these competing demands of the workplace, has also been found to be a relevant factor within the literature (Frazier et al., 2013). Additionally, Braham (2010), makes the recommendation that managerial commitment may be demonstrated by spending more time on the ground with staff to discuss and gain further insight into the salient safety issues.

Management or leadership? With such a breadth of supporting evidence for the mediating impact that managerial commitment to safety may have on an organisation and its

employees, the suggestion that managerial commitment is a crucial factor of safety culture is consistent throughout the literature (Flin et al., 2000). This is despite the fact that some of the literature uses slightly different terminology (e.g. management caring or dedication to safety). Although Frazier et al. (2013) make the argument that in much of the literature on safety culture, the terms ‘management’, ‘supervisors’ and ‘senior staff’ are used interchangeably and it is often unclear if the participants are indeed describing the conduct and influence of management, or senior figures such as those in direct supervision. O’Dea and Flin (2001) concur with this, arguing that research on the influence that senior staff play in developing and maintaining a safety culture has often failed to distinguish between the varying types of management and levels of seniority.

Wu, Lin and Shiau (2010) present one of the few pieces of empirical research on safety culture which differentiates between the varying leadership roles and responsibilities for the management of organisational safety. Having identified three common types of leaders for the management of safety in an organisation (employer, operations/middle managers and safety professionals), they found evidence to suggest that all these leaders can influence the safety culture of an organisation through the demonstration of a commitment to safety. This is achieved through the genuine and enthused enactment of their safety based responsibilities (as seen in Table 5). The authors found evidence to suggest that operations/middle managers do have a crucial role to play, though in line with Reasons (1997) argument that one’s status within an organisation dictates their influence, Wu et al., (2010) also concede that the influence of the safety professional is often dependent upon the management, while the seminal role that the management can play is either heightened or minimised by support from the Employer who in generally wields the highest position of power. Nonetheless, management may often be viewed

as the embodiment of the employer's commitment, while the safety professional may be seen as the embodiment of the managers commitment.

Table 5.

Leadership Roles and Responsibilities (Wu et al., 2010).

| Leadership Role | Key responsibilities |
|----------------------------|--|
| Employer | <p>Safety caring – Build positive relationships built on trust and open interactions</p> <p>Safety coaching – role model, stimulate ideas, allow them to participate in decision making.</p> <p>Safety controlling – set rules and exert power to reward or punish.</p> |
| Operations/Middle Managers | <p>Safety interaction – offering directions, guidance and advice by acting as a figurehead, a leader and a main source of communication.</p> <p>Safety informing - monitoring, disseminating, representing the department (making suggestions based on bottom up and top down)</p> <p>Safety decision making – the planning, resource allocation, implementation and general improvement of safety strategies.</p> |
| Safety Professionals | <p>Safety expert – provide expert safety counselling on organisational safety performance</p> <p>Safety coordination – policy development, information management and communication.</p> <p>Safety regulation – visibility/inspection, audit and incentive systems (requires the conformity of mid-level management and employers)</p> |

These findings may explain why previous research has found that despite playing a crucial role, managers find it difficult to influence all aspects of safety culture (O'Dea and Flin, 2001). The relevance of varying levels of leadership is also discussed by Antonsen (2009) who argues that the power dynamics within organisations often result in safety culture development becoming the subject of disagreements and power struggles between the varying layers of leadership. Staff of varying levels of influence often disagree about key factors such as what constitutes safety, what the main risks are and how best to combat those risks. Where this occurs, the development of safety culture is impinged and undermined, with a high likelihood of

fractured subcultures developing. Therefore Antonsen (2009) contends that in order for an integrated safety culture to emerge, it is also necessary for those in leadership positions to hold and present to staff a consistent and united conceptualisation of what safety is, and how to effectively combat those risks.

Application to sport. It must be noted that the structure of organisations within sport, sport for development or otherwise are extremely diverse. Consequently, it cannot be assumed that the roles and responsibilities identified by Wu et al. (2010) are directly and identically applicable to all organisations as not all organisations may have formally recognised management or safety professionals. Although the wider implications of these findings can be applied and the more encompassing title of ‘leadership’ can be employed. This is particularly useful given the wide scope and probable range of organisational structures in the present thesis.

Much research has been conducted on leadership and management in sport organisations. This body of work has focussed on the effectiveness of leadership styles on various matters which go far beyond just the performance of sporting organisations (Hoye, Smith, Nicholson & Stewart, 2015). Though emerging evidence in sport, specifically in relation to safeguarding, has discussed the significance of demonstrably strong leadership (Rhind, Kay, Hills & Owusu-Sekyere, 2017), this research is not applied to the specific concept of safety culture. As such the present thesis will explore the extent to which the commitment of leaders, often in the form of management is effective in developing strong, positive safety culture. This will also seek to discover its influence in a broad range of international sporting organisations, ascertaining how leaders in the sporting industry may demonstrate such commitment.

3.3.3 Employee engagement. The literature on organisational safety frequently cites the involvement of employees as a key factor of safety culture (Cox & Cheyne, 2000; Mearns et al.,

2003). The suggestion that cultures are social systems that are effectively dependent upon the staff or employees that operate it is one that is agreed upon in a wide variety of fields (Lee & Harrison, 2000). For example, in the petrochemical industry, Filho et al., (2010) found that the highest levels of safety culture maturity are developed when employees are involved in safety based initiatives that act to develop a strong sense of ownership. Examples of similar findings in the construction sector are offered by Wamuziri (2013) and Abdullah and Wern (2012) who found that the contribution of employees is an underpinning facet of a safety culture and a positive safety culture can only be developed when employees are involved and cooperative of safety initiatives. These findings are reinforced by the inclusion of employee involvement as one of the three key factors that were found to statistically predict safety culture by Fernández-Muñiz et al., (2007a). Further support is offered by the meta-analysis of safety culture factors by Christian, Bradley, Wallace and Burke (2009) who provided a comprehensive review of the literature in various fields, highlighting the importance of meaningful and genuine employee involvement in the development of a safety culture.

The evidence suggests that the psychological state and subsequent behaviours of employees are greatly influenced by the extent to which they are actively involved and invested in safety initiatives (Vredenburg, 2002; Dollard & Bakker, 2010). An example can be seen in a study of 260 senior rail staff that found that employees are most impacted upon by the extent to which the organisation values the input of its employees, which is evidenced by the extent to which employees are afforded a contribution in the safety management process (Wang and Liu, 2012). This is supported by Frazier and colleagues, who found evidence that the extent to which employees demonstrate a personal responsibility for the safety of the organisation, along with the tendency of staff to offer peer support and feedback, are determining factors of safety culture

(Frazier et al., 2013). The literature suggests that where this occurs, a strong and positive safety culture is developed as employees become encouraged and positively reinforced to “comply with regulations, take the proper safety measures, and participate actively in meetings and activities designed to promote improvements in their workplace” (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a p.628).

How is it facilitated? Safety culture literature is relatively unanimous in highlighting the importance of involving employees to empower them in managing organisational safety and develop a genuine safety culture (Hsu, Lee, Wu & Takano, 2008). For example, in a bid to create guidelines for the development of organisational safety management, Podgórski (2006) found evidence to support the case that effective safety management systems should have mechanisms that facilitate and encourage employee involvement. Equally, both Choudhry, Fang and Mohamed (2007a), along with Gordon, Kirwan and Perrin (2007), have presented the need to include employees in activities such as safety committees and meetings. This is often said to demonstrate that staff are a part of the safety management process (Frazier et al., 2013), while also being advantageous from a practical perspective as employees are often best placed to make effective suggestions of improvement (Vredenburg, 2002). Williams (2008) adds that the involvement of employees is also crucial to allow employees to learn from each other, further strengthening the safety culture and reinforcing employee’s attention towards safety in the workplace. For these reasons, it is suggested that employee involvement should be considered as a deciding influencer of organisational safety culture (Eiff, 1999 cited in Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a).

The process of employee engagement. Much of the literature has discussed the significance of employee involvement and provided practical examples of how an organisation may promote it, though there are very few extensive models of the process of employee

participation in organisational safety management initiatives. In a bid to provide an illustrative model of employee involvement in the safety management process, an Integrated Model of Workplace Safety is offered by Christian et al., (2009) (Figure 3). This model builds upon the previous work of Neal, Griffin and Hart (2002), while rooting itself in Campbells Theory of work performance (1990 cited in Christian et al., 2009).

Campbell's theory defines work performance as behaviours or actions that are relevant to the goals of the organisation (Campbell, 1990 cited in Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Schaufeli, de Vet, & van der Beek, 2011). Campbell presents the case that work performance should be defined in terms of behaviours rather than results and should be considered only in regard to behaviours that are relevant to the organisational goals. This is a definition that is widely endorsed by the work performance literature (Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Schaufeli, Henrica & van der Beek, 2011). The theory also presents the case that work performance is multidimensional in that it is represented by the level and effectiveness of; job specific task proficiency, non-job specific task proficiency, written and oral communication, effort, discipline, facilitating peer and team performance, supervision and management and administration (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). These dimensions are said to have different patterns of sub dimensions, while their content and salience can vary from job to job (Campbell, 1990 cited in Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000).

In addition to this, Campbell et al. (1993, as cited in Christian et al., 2009) add that individual performance has both proximal determinants (knowledge, skills and motivation), while there are also several distal antecedents of performance (e.g. training, organizational climate, personality). Proximal determinants are said to have a close and strong relationship with subsequent behaviour, while distal antecedents are said to have much more of an indirect effect

on subsequent performance (Koopmans et al., 2011). These determinants have been validated by subsequent empirical research (McCloy, Campbell & Cudeck, 1994, as cited in Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000).

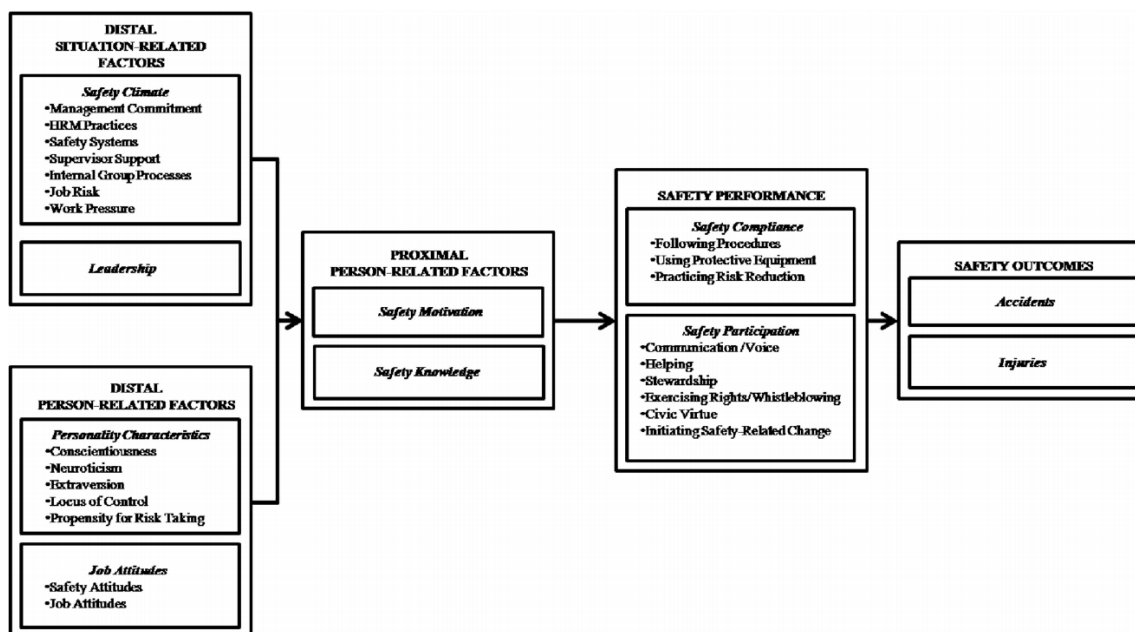


Figure 3. Integrated Model of Workplace Safety

Distal antecedents of safety performance: situation related. In taking a similar approach to Neal and Griffin (2002), Christian et al.'s (2009) model presents antecedents and determinants of safety performance. These antecedents are separated into those that are situational (or environmental) and personal. When discussing the situational factors, Christian et al. (2009), reinforce the findings of much of the previously discussed research which presents the significance of safety leadership (e.g. Wu, Lin & Shiao, 2010; Zohar, 2003). This is concurrent with the findings of O'Toole (2002) who argues that positive perceptions of safety leadership can mobilise the workforce and encourage them to become more involved. Therefore, considering the strong empirical support for the significance of a committed and unified safety leadership (e.g. Wu et al., 2010), the inclusion of safety leadership is understandable. There is also mention

of the presence and perceived relevance, quality and effectiveness of training for staff. The relevance of training is supported by Parker, Lawrie and Hudson who highlighted training as a key contributor to subsequent safety culture, where the workforce is interested and of the belief that it is of great significance (2006). This is further reinforced by findings that perceptions of the importance of safety training can be predictive of actual levels of safety behaviour (Cooper & Phillips, 2004).

The situational aspect of the model also includes one of the most frequently discussed influencers of individual safety performance, safety climate (Williamson, Freyer, Cairns & Biancotti, 1997). Safety climate can be defined as the summary of an individual's perceptions of safety management in their workplace at a particular time (Zohar, 1980, as cited in Williamson et al., 1997 p.16). This may also reflect employee's perceptions of the safety culture in the organisation (Wu, Chen & Li, 2008), while expressing the extent to which safety is prioritised over competing values (Cooper & Phillips, 2004). When these perceptions are accumulated, and shared within an organisation, this can be referred to as group climate (Christian et al., 2009).

Safety climate has been notoriously difficult to conceptualise, partially because much of the literature has failed to demonstrate adequate distinctions between safety climate and culture (Guldenmund, 2000). For this reason, some studies have positioned safety climate as a direct replication of safety culture (e.g. Wu, Lin & Shiau, 2010; O'Toole, 2002; Vredenburg, 2002; Williamson et al., 1997), but Christian et al., (2009) take a stance consistent with the literature which argues that it should instead be viewed as a subcomponent of safety culture (Cooper, 2000; Glendon & Santon, 2000; Neal, Griffin, & Hart, 2000).

Another contributor to the difficulty in conceptualising safety climate has been the discrepancy shown in the factorial makeup of safety climate (Cooper & Phillips, 2004). Cooper

highlights the inconsistency shown within the literature which has combined attitudinal, affective, behavioural and descriptive constructs within the same measure (2000). Clarke's (2006) meta-analysis of safety climate also highlights three distinct strands of safety climate literature; the attitudinal approach, the perceptual approach and mixed models that have combined these approaches. Two instances of the factorial discrepancies can be seen with Cox and Cox (1991) and Williamson et al., (1997). Cox and Cox (1991 cited in Williamson et al., 1997) previously found 5 factors of safety climate; personal scepticism, responsibility, perceptions of safety, effectiveness of the arrangements and personal immunity. While in a cross industrial study with 660 participants from 7 large organisations, Williamson et al., (1997) found climate to be determined by personal motivation, risk justification, perceptions of workplace conditions, views of the controllability of accidents and optimism. Cooper and Phillips (2004) concur with Guldenmund's (2000) explanation of the wide divergence in factorial descriptions of safety climate by arguing that this may be reflecting large methodological differences in generation, samples, industries and construct titling. An illustration of this is in the variety of failed attempts to demonstrate the predictive validity of safety climate (Cooper & Phillips, 2004).

Christian et al., (2009) have elected to conceptualise safety climate in line with Neal and Griffins taxonomy (Neal & Griffin, 2004, as cited in Christian et al., 2009), and found support for its mentioned factors, with the exception of job risk and work pressure. Nonetheless, while this factorial makeup of safety climate is applied, it must be acknowledged that taxonomies of safety climate as a whole lack the support of consistent robust empirical evidence, therefore there is no generally agreed upon constellation of the factors of safety climate (Shannon & Norman, 2009). This may be because some factors are not generalisable to other industries, as Cox and Flin (1998) speculated, or because some factors may not be directly applicable to varying

national cultures (Shannon & Norman, 2009). In this instance, safety climate may take on different forms in the sporting industry, and from nation to nation.

Nonetheless, in its varying forms, safety climate has received much empirical evidence of its impact on safety behaviours and safety performance. For example, Clarke's (2006) meta-analysis found safety climate to be positively correlated with safety performance, and negatively correlated to workplace accidents, while Mearns et al. (2003), found safety climate to be positively related to an individual's likeliness to make disclosures. This is a confirmation of earlier research which presented a relationship between safety climate and safety performance in a variety of industries (Wu, Chen & Li, 2008), evidenced by correlations with accident rates (O'Toole, 202; Vredenburg, 2002); expert ratings (Glendon & Santon, 2000) and compliance (Cooper & Phillips, 2004).

Distal antecedents of safety performance: person related. The integrated model of workplace safety also presents person related distal antecedents of individual safety performance. These factors are split into those that are personality based, and those that are based on one's attitude towards the job and safety more generally. There is evidence that the extent to which employees involve themselves in the safety management of the organisation is somewhat self-determining and based on personal factors (Dollard & Bakker, 2010). The literature is in general agreement that these personal factors influence the ways in which individuals engage with the safety management of the organisation. Abdullah and Wern provide an example of this with findings that an individual's personal characteristics, which are influenced by their background, can influence their behaviours and safety performance, which can in turn influence the safety culture (Abdullah & Wern, 2012).

While there is no generally accepted model on this (Neal & Griffin, 2002), some researchers (such as Williamson et al., 1997) have positioned the personality of individuals as a subcomponent of safety climate. In doing so they argue that safety climate is heavily influenced by the personality one takes into the organisation. The positioning of personality as a subcomponent of safety climate has come under much criticism, particularly in light of the absence of predictive validity (Cooper & Phillips, 2004). Although Neal and Griffin (2002); Christian et al., (2009) take the stance that although it is not a factor of safety climate, personality interacts with safety climate to influence safety performance.

In doing so Christian et al., (2009) take the more popular approach that there's an ideal personality set that makes particular individuals predisposed to perform safety based behaviours and jobs to a higher standard and with higher motivation (Cooper & Phillips, 2004). In their meta-analysis of the field, Clarke and Robertson (2005) have previously applied Costa and McCrae's (1985, as cited in Clarke & Robertson, 2005) Big Five framework, believing it to be useful for providing clarity to the field. In doing so they present findings that conscientiousness in particular has a negative relationship with performance, albeit a weak one. This provides backing for the argument that conscientiousness and safety motivation are positively related (Griffin & Neal, 2002), while further supporting Christian et al.'s (2009) finding that approaches to assessments personnel for their suitability to safety management should focus on conscientiousness.

In spite of some support for the use of the Big Five framework, it remains questionable if in its entirety it is the most suitable personality framework for exploring safety performance. Particularly as two of its factors (neuroticism and extraversion) have been found to have negligible relationships with safety performance when measured by accident rates (Clarke &

Robertson, 2005). Furthermore, the occupational psychology literature has very few investigations of the relationship between safety performance and both openness to experience and agreeableness (Christian et al., 2009). Not to mention Christian and colleagues finding no significant relationship between safety performance and extraversion. It is also arguable that other personality concepts that have evidenced relationships with safety performance but are not part of the Big Five framework should be included in the personality characteristics of the model. For example, Zuckerman, Kuhlman, Thornquist and Kiers (1991 cited in Christian et al., 2009) have formerly found evidence that those with a higher locus of control and a lower propensity to taking risks are unlikely to engage in unsafe behaviours. These findings were replicated by Christian et al., (2009) and hence this may influence an individual's sense of responsibility to act which has been found to be a positive influencer of employee co-operation with safety initiatives (Abdullah & Wern, 2012).

In addition to relatively stable personality factors, the integrated model of workplace safety includes the more fluid attitudes towards safety and the individual's job. This aspect of the model embraces other organisational constructs such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment, providing support for the suggestion that attitudes can be distal predictors of behaviour (Fazio & Williams, 1986 cited in Christian et al., 2009) and some may have links with work performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, Patton, 2001, as cited in Christian et al., 2009).

Proximal determinants of safety performance. The distal determinants of safety performance are said to influence two aspects of safety performance, one's safety based motivation, and their safety knowledge and skills (Christian et al., 2009). Findings in the safety culture literature offer reinforcement for Campbell's (1990 cited in Christian et al. 2009) positioning of motivation, skills and knowledge as a determinant of individual performance. For

example, Neal, Griffin and Hart (2000) provided verification that knowledge and motivation may mediate the relationship between safety climate and subsequent safety performance. Christian et al., (2009) support their argument by providing substantiation that these factors are not only determinants of safety performance, but better predictors of safety performance than the distal antecedents presented. The findings propose that the motivation, and performance of employees is influenced by their motivation to perform safety based tasks, and the extent to which they know how to perform in a safe manner (Christian et al., 2009).

The research also provides considerable support for the impact of knowledge and skill in particular. Wamuziri (2013) found evidence to suggest that it is necessary to consistently develop the knowledge and skills of employees as gaps in their knowledge may prevent the effectiveness of their safety practices. Wamuziri extends this to managers, arguing that they also need to be updating their skills and knowledge so as to ensure their decisions are rooted in understanding and not undermined by an inability to actually carry out practical solutions. Likewise, O'Toole (2002) found that the education and knowledge of the workforce is a crucial factor of the development of a safety culture. This is further reinforced by Ismail, Salimin and Ismail's (2012) findings from research in the construction industry which found that 21% of over 800 experienced contractors believed that knowledge is key to safety management and the development of safety culture.

Components of safety performance. Based on this understanding of employee performance, and a comprehensive analysis of literature on safety management, Christian et al's., (2009) integrated model of workplace safety takes an identical approach to Neal and Griffin (2002) by arguing that the aggregation of the dimensions discussed by Campbell (1990, as cited in cited in Christian et al., 2009) can lead to two types of safety performance; safety compliance

and safety participation. In this model the definition of Neal, Griffin and Hart (2000) is appropriated, in which compliance is discussed as the undertaking of behaviours that are generally mandated, while participation refers to behaviours that advance the safety management of the organisation, but are frequently voluntary (p. 1010).

This distinction is a valuable one as meta-analysis evidence suggests that safety participation is more correlated with employee participation than compliance and is a better predictor of safety culture than compliance (Christian et al., 2009). Furthermore, much of the research on safety management and safety culture has failed to distinguish between the varying types, degrees and intensities of employee contributions. Instead the safety culture literature has in the main used the terms involvement, engagement and participation interchangeably (e.g. Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; Mearns et al., 2003; Wu, Lin & Shiau, 2010; Podgórski, 2006; Dollard & Bakker, 2010), while often failing to adequately account for the motivational variance of acts that are performed based on a sense of compliance, rather than a personal desire to perform them. This may present some agreement to Antonsen's (2009) suggestion that literature on safety culture has been over reliant on a harmonious approach to organisational life, overlooking the mediating influence of power and its accompanying matters, such as its potential to promote the compulsion of organisational members.

Application to sport. In applying this understanding of the process of safety performance to sport, the present thesis will function from the standpoint that cultures are effectively dependent upon the staff or employees that operate it (Lee & Harrison, 2000). Although the present study will seek to ascertain whether the contributors discussed by Christian et al.'s model are directly replicable in sporting organisations. Furthermore, the present thesis will also seek to understand whether there is any perceived difference between safety compliance and

participation in developing positive and strong safety culture. This will further explore what such participation or compliance may look like from the perspective of a sporting organisation.

3.3.4 The approach of this thesis. Having reviewed the literature on the key influencing factors of safety culture, the present thesis will adopt an approach similar to Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007a). In doing so this thesis will present SMSs, leadership commitment and employee engagement as key influencing factors of strong, positive safety cultures. Safety management systems will be understood as a set of interrelated or interacting elements that are established to inform organisational policy on safety. This includes policy, incentives, training, communication, preventative and emergency planning along with control mechanisms. Leadership commitment will describe discourse and actions that demonstrate to staff that they and the organisational as a whole take safety management seriously. Finally, employee engagement will refer to the committed and motivated engagement of staff with the safety management process. This may be born of basic level of compliance, or more enthused and involved general participation with the organisations safety management.

3.4 Safety Culture Models

Accompanying research on the influencing factors of safety culture, there have also been attempts to develop safety culture models. The majority of these attempts have been presented in the form of maturation based models seeking to operate as descriptive aids (Filho, Andrade & Marinho, 2010). Until recently, this has been the most popular way of modelling safety culture. However, research has also presented conceptual models of safety culture which are based on particular factors and their relationship with each other to, which subsequently influences the nature and strength of safety culture. This section seeks to provide a brief overview of safety

culture maturation models, before considering the appropriateness of relationship based models for conceptualising safety culture in sport.

3.4.1 Maturity models of safety culture. A popular way of modelling safety culture has been using the safety culture maturity model framework, which has emerged from organisational culture literature (Filho et al., 2010). Schein (2004) offers an example of this with the three stages of organisational culture evolution. Schein argues that organisational culture goes through its early growth, a midlife and its latter stages of maturity and decline. This is similar to the maturity model of culture presented by Westrum (1992, as cited in Hudson, 2003) which states that there are three types of organisational culture; pathological, bureaucratic and generative.

These approaches discuss organisational culture in relation to a particular stage of maturation, embracing the suggestion that organisational cultures can be positive or negative, and that they can also vary in degrees of strength. One of the earliest examples of this in relation to safety culture is offered by the International Atomic Energy Agency who presented three stages of safety culture development (IAEA, 2002a cited in Filho et al., 2010). Each stage represents a unique level of safety awareness. This ranges from resistant with little awareness (stage 1), to accepting of safety as an organisational goal (stage 2), or enthused and continuously improving (stage 3). Other examples of safety culture maturity models include Fleming's five stage model of safety culture (2001), Filho et al.'s (2010) maturity model developed for petrochemical companies in Brazil, and Hudson's five stage model of safety culture developed for the healthcare industry (2003). The latter of these formed the basis for Parker and colleagues' popular safety culture maturity model which was developed following interviews with 26 senior executives from the oil and gas industry (Parker, Lawrie & Hudson, 2006; Lawrie, Parker &

Hudson, 2006). They confirmed Hudson's finding of five levels of safety culture maturity; pathological, reactive, calculative, proactive and generative.

Due to their simplicity and diagnostic ability, those seeking to understand safety culture have often adopted the safety culture maturity model approach. Researchers and professionals are advantaged by their ability to easily categorise or rate safety cultures. However, they can be criticised for tending to provide superficial reflections of safety culture. Considering the complex nature of safety culture, as previously identified, it is questionable whether an organisation's safety culture can be reduced to one particular maturation stage. Cultures have varying layers, and may have a degree of differentiation or fragmentation within them (Martin, 2002). In these instances, the organisation may be highly developed in some areas of safety, while others remain resistant or unaware of the need for safety management in the organisation. This is particularly the case with large sport governing bodies which may represent a variety of operations within a particular sport, or a range of entirely different sports with differing views on safety. Likewise, it is questionable whether any organisation can fit into one category of maturity as sub-cultures may still have fundamentally opposed perspectives on safeguarding. For example, the delivery staff of a sporting organisation who see things from one perspective, may be opposed to safeguarding for completely different reasons than office staff of the same organisation.

Another issue is the tendency for maturity models of safety culture to discuss culture from a predominantly anthropological perspective. For example, Parker and colleagues understood safety culture in relation to the thoughts, feelings and attitudes towards safety, defining safety culture as separate to the practical aspects of the organisation (Parker et al., 2006). Hudson (2003) distinguished between safety systems and the culture which was described as the driver of the systems, and similarly, Filho et al. (2010) sought to ascertain the maturity of

the safety culture by asking about the thoughts, beliefs and attitudes of employees in the form of a questionnaire. This raises questions over the suitability of this approach for the present thesis which seeks to use a synthesised approach.

The closest example of a maturity model approach in sport is offered by Brackenridge et al. (2005) who introduced the Activation States. This model was developed and applied during a longitudinal study on child protection in Football throughout the United Kingdom. Findings suggested that this approach may provide a useful means of plotting individuals' and organisations' readiness towards safeguarding in relation to their voices, knowledge, feelings and actions. In this sense, this model acknowledges anthropological factors (voices and feelings), while also addressing the pragmatic forms of the protection of children in the form of what people do. It also accounts for differentiation of the individual and of the organisation by allowing the individual to be plotted on their voice, knowledge, feelings and action respectively, acknowledging that these things may be at varying levels of maturity (Brackenridge et al., 2005). This approach further enables the identification of discrepancies between people or sections of the organisation as organisations' do not necessarily have to be rated as one unified body. However, despite possessing some similar features to other safety culture models (e.g. Hudson, 2003), this model was not presented as a model of safety culture, rather an investigative device. Brackenridge et al. (2005) state that,

“Whilst the model may look linear it is not meant to be deterministic nor to imply any psychometric properties. It is intended to be used as a heuristic device rather than a calibrated ‘scale’ and thus to give a sense of how a new policy initiative has impacted on different stakeholder groups and where further action might be required by the organisation in order to develop commitment and cooperation” (p. 253).

Therefore, it does not offer a definition of safety culture, root itself in a particular safety culture theory, or explain how its features have any relation to safety culture research or theory.

Even if the Activation States model was underpinned by these elements, the model would remain unsuitable for this thesis as it would still not address the most significant general criticisms of the maturity model approach, the notion that culture cannot adequately be represented by pre-existing categories (Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013; Cooper, 2000). Fleming suggests caution when using maturity models, arguing that they lack the theoretical and empirical backing to suggest that safety cultures do indeed follow a sequential maturation (2001). Also, if safety cultures do follow a sequential maturation process, there is very little if any evidence to suggest that the stages presented by Hudson and others are adequate representations of the maturation process (Filho et al., 2010; Fleming, 2001). In addition to this, maturation models rarely possess the theoretical underpinning that is required to provide them with scientific rigour (Filho et al., 2010) This has meant that very few safety culture models actually represent findings of contemporary research on safety culture, such as the aforementioned factors. For these reasons, when attempting to conceptualise safety culture in sport from a safeguarding perspective, the present thesis will not use a maturity model, or the activation states as presented by Brackenridge et al (2005).

3.4.2 Relationship models of safety culture. A popular alternative to modelling safety culture has emerged with relationship based models. Relationship based safety culture models present influencing factors (such as those identified in 3.3), as interconnected and possessive of a relationship which ultimately results in the precise nature and strength of safety culture (e.g. Cooper, 2000). Rather than prescribe safety culture states, these models recognise that safety culture is complex, that there is potentially no end to the amount of safety culture that may exist

(Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013). Therefore, allowance is made for rich and detailed expressions of safety culture, along with recognitions of differentiation and/or fragmentation.

The most renowned relationship based safety culture model is offered by Cooper in the form of the Reciprocal Model of Safety Culture (2000). Rooted in Bandura's Reciprocal Determinism Theory (Bandura, 1999; 2001) this model identifies safety culture as a consequence of triadic reciprocal determinism between personal factors, organisational factors, and behavioural factors. In taking this approach to safety culture, Cooper's model identifies the most pertinent personal factor as safety climate, the most pertinent environmental factor as safety management systems and safety behaviours as the most relevant behavioural factor (Cooper, 2000). These factors combined are said to influence the strength and manner of the safety culture.

Cooper argues that the dynamic nature of this approach allows for human and organisational systems and contexts, while also allowing the triangulation of methodologies and multi-level analyses of safety culture (Cooper, 2000). Indeed, this idea of triadic reciprocal determinism has been applied in subsequent research (e.g. Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a). Ismail, Salimin and Ismail (2012) adopted the reciprocal approach to evaluate the influence of safety culture in the construction industry and Choudhry, Fang and Mohamed (2007a) adopted Coopers general approach and model to develop an industry specific approach to improving safety culture in construction sites. However, other than those smaller scale studies, this idea of triadic reciprocal determinism has not been offered much backing by contemporary research in safety culture. For example, after administering a 92-item survey to 25,574 safety experts in five multi-national organisations, each in a different industry, Frazier, Ludwig, Whitaker and Roberts (2013) found evidence to suggest that the relationship between safety culture factors are

significant and strong, though not necessarily reciprocal. Similarly, Fernández-Muñiz and colleagues conducted quantitative research on safety culture with 455 organisations and found no evidence to suggest a triadic reciprocal relationship between key factors, but did recognise that some factors influence others (e.g. SMS impacts employees level of involvement) before subsequently impacting the safety culture and its safety based performance (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a).

Despite incongruence which persists regarding the nature of relationships between factors, there is increasing evidence of relationship based models of safety culture. This is advantageous as such models can be applied in a manner that is consistent with the present thesis' definition and conceptualisation of safety culture. The broad nature of these models and the range of safety culture features that may be described using this approach allows for the acknowledgement of anthropological, pragmatic and normative factors. It can also account for integrated, differential or fragmented safety cultures which represent the outcomes of relationships between key factors which may impact individuals differently (Cooper, 2000). This presents further evidence of the advantages that relationship based models may possess over maturity based models.

3.4.3 The approach of this thesis. Emerging evidence in safety culture suggests that maturation based models of safety culture are typically lacking in terms of the theoretical or empirical underpinning. Further, doubts have been raised over their ability to adequately represent the array of complexities of safety culture. Conversely, contemporary research offers growing support for relationship based models, while also arguing for their greater ability to reflect comprehensive conceptualisations of safety culture (as offered by Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013). Therefore, as the present thesis attempts to develop a conceptual model for the

understanding of safety culture from a child safeguarding perspective, this will consider the nature of relationships between influencing factors.

3.5 Summary

The present chapter sought to analyse the existing literature on safety culture to provide a basis for the conceptualisation of safety culture in sport. This chapter began with a thorough analysis of the concept of organisational culture. In doing so, a theoretically derived definition and conceptualisation was presented for use with this thesis. This was further used to define and conceptualise safety culture, a broader concept of organisational culture. A review of the key influencing factors of safety culture found a degree of agreement with Fernández-Muñiz et al.'s (2007b) three factor approach. Evidence was presented of the most influential factors, SMS, managerial commitment and employee engagement. Comprehensive analysis was conducted of each factor, which included an appraisal of their applicability to sport. During which managerial commitment was renamed to leadership commitment to account for the potential influence of other key leadership staff. Finally, a brief overview was offered of the types of safety culture models. Having discussed the various disadvantages of maturation based models, it was argued that as the present thesis attempts to develop a conceptual model for the understanding of safety culture from a child safeguarding perspective, this will consider the nature of relationships between influencing factors.

Chapter 4: Methods

The present chapter provides an overview of the research methods employed in this thesis. This chapter begins with a methodology, which can be described as a “study of methods” (Mayan, 2009, p.31). This includes the consideration of positions and perspectives that allow the present thesis to “theorise about how we find things out... [and] the relationship between the process and the product of research” (Letherby, 2003, p.5, as cited in Mayan, 2009). This methodology occurs with the consideration of research paradigms, which provide the present thesis with the desired outcome of a methodology, “a theory and analysis of how research does or should proceed” (Harding, 1987, p.3, as cited in Mayan, 2009).

This chapter subsequently outlines the research methods of the present thesis. This can be defined as the specific research strategies and techniques used which are based on the methodology (Mayan, 2009), and “combine to form a particular approach to data and mode of analysis” (Richard & Morse, 2007, p.2, as cited in Mayan, 2009). These methods include the sampling, data collection and data analysis procedures and processes. This precedes a discussion on establishing trustworthiness, and the ethical considerations of this thesis.

4.1 Research Paradigm

Within the social sciences, people are both the conductors and the subjects of research (Robson, 2002). Therefore, conclusions of such research are not only determined by the characteristics of the people being observed, but also by the characteristics and perspectives of the observer (Robson, 2002; Patton, 2015). With that in mind it is crucial that researchers are aware, and make clear their own inherent beliefs, assumptions and worldviews, particularly in relation to the broader contexts. This helps the researcher to construct their study in a manner that consistently and adequately pursues valued knowledge in a manner that is harmonious with

their underpinning philosophies (Patton, 2011; 2015). This also sets the contexts for the reader, providing clarity on the researcher's stance on interpreting the findings of the study.

The amalgamation of a researcher's beliefs in the quest for knowledge can be referred to as an individual's philosophy of science (Ponterotto, 2002). Inclusive in this is one's views on ontology (the nature of reality), epistemology (what knowledge is and how it may be attained), axiology (the role of personal values in research), rhetorical structure (the language and presentation of research) and methods (the process and procedure of research) (Ponterotto, 2002; Cresswell, 1998; Ponterotto & Grieger, 2007). This impacts the means through which the researcher pursues the development of knowledge as they select a research paradigm that is representative of their views. Although the term paradigm itself is not universally understood and discrepancies in its definition have meant that several meanings exist (Ponterotto, 2002; Holloway and Wheeler, 2010). This includes paradigms as worldviews, epistemological stances, shared beliefs and model examples (Morgan, 2007). Therefore, Morgan (2007) argues that it is too easy for social scientists to use the term while meaning different things. This presents a need for researchers to define the term, state the paradigm that their study is conducted from, and provide a thorough explanation of that paradigm and its underlying assumptions. Consequently, in defining a paradigm as a "basic belief system or worldview that guides investigators in choices of method not only in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 105), it is necessary for the present thesis to provide an analysis of various paradigm classifications and provide an analysis on their compatibility to the researcher's philosophy of science and their suitability to the present study.

A popular classification scheme of paradigms has been offered by Guba and Lincoln (1994; 2005), Ponterotto (2002) and Ponterotto and Grieger (2007). An adaptation of this can be

seen in table 6, which provides an overview of the intersection of paradigms within social science. Each paradigm is considered in relation to the accepted parameters of the philosophy of science (Ponterotto, 2002; Cresswell, 1998; Ponterotto & Grieger, 2007), and its positions on other practical factors. This classification is appropriate due to its simplicity and its applicability to the present thesis. Therefore, the subsequent discussion on research paradigms that will be used to outline the assumptions of the present research will make reference to this summary.

Table 6.

Intersection of Research Paradigms (Adapted from Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p.193; Ponterotto & Grieger, 2007, p.410)

| Item | Positivism | Post-positivism | Critical-ideological | Constructivism |
|----------------------|---|---|--|--|
| Ontology | Naïve realism: One true apprehensible reality. | Critical realism: One true reality but imperfectly apprehensible. | Historical realism: Reality shaped by values (e.g. social, ethnic & political). | Relativism: Many equally valid & socially created realities. |
| Epistemology | Dualist/objectivist : findings true. Detached researcher role. | Modified dualist/objectivist: findings probably true. | Transactional/subjectivist: value mediated findings. Interactive & proactive researcher. | Transactional/subjectivist: Interactive researcher uncovers meaning. |
| Axiology | Researcher values have no place in the research; must be carefully controlled. | Researcher values must be kept in check so as not to bias study. | Researcher values are central to the inquiry as empowerment is the research goal. | Researcher biases are inevitable & should be discussed at length. |
| Rhetorical Structure | Third person, objective & detached. | Third person, objective & detached. | First person; relying extensively on participant voices; emotive prose. | |
| Method | Experimental manipulation of variables & control of confounds. Only quantitative methods. | Quasi-experimental & manipulative field research. Chiefly quantitative methods. | Naturalistic, dialectical & interactive to create transformation through discourse. Chiefly qualitative methods. | Naturalistic, dialectical & interactive to uncover deeper meaning. Only qualitative methods. |

The present thesis is based on individual's perceptions of the definition, development, maintenance, implementation and effects of safety culture in sport. This thesis values relativism and subjectivity, asking participants to make sense of their experiences in sport. The present thesis also shows appreciation for the varying contexts that these experiences have taken place in, discussing how they may inform the participant's construction of knowledge. This construction of knowledge is contributed to by the researcher, who guides the participants thinking and interprets the information they provide. Therefore, it can be said that in line with Guba and Lincoln's (1994; 2005) classification of research paradigms, the present thesis sits within the Constructivism paradigm.

4.1.1 Understanding constructivism. Previously, Positivism was viewed as the dominant paradigm in social science (Morgan, 2007). Although the increased use of naturalistic enquiries such as Constructivism have occurred as researchers sought viable alternatives to conduct social science research (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014; Morgan, 2007). Subsequently, Constructivism can be understood in relation to its differences to Positivism, and the advantages to adopting this paradigm for social science research. This requires an initial consideration of positivist paradigms, Positivism and Post-positivism.

Positivism is rooted in the ontological principle of 'naïve realism', which suggests that an objective sense of reality is attainable (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Positivists argue that this 'reality' can be found in a manner that is independent of the researcher (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014), and the credibility of science should be based on the ability of all scientists to observe the same sense of reality (Robson, 2002). Post-positivism offers a similar ontological perspective, arguing for realism, but taking the stance of 'critical realism' instead. This position states that an objective reality exists, but the flawed nature of human understanding is such that

this reality can be understood imperfectly at best (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Guba & Lincoln, 2005). With these positions, dualism is accepted. This is the notion that the researcher can function in a manner that is detached and independent from the study (Ponterotto, 2005). The similar ontological and epistemological stance of these paradigms has meant that they share similar methods and inquiry aims. The researcher takes the role of a detached observer in a standardised, experimental and manipulative research. In this instance the focus is on explaining, predicting and controlling human behaviour through verified hypotheses which are accepted as facts (Positivism), or non-falsified hypotheses which are recognised as likely to be facts (Post-positivism) (Ponterotto, 2005; Morgan, 2007; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Despite its previous dominance within the social sciences, positivism is often discredited for its inability to account for the varying contexts in which research takes place (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Robson (2002) states that it has been consistently and amply demonstrated that “what observers see is not determined simply by the characteristics of the thing being observed; the characteristics and perspectives of the observer also have an effect” (p. 21). In this sense, social science often rejects the notion of realism, suggesting that social science presents a context in which the traditional perceptions of natural science are not applicable (Gray, 2013). While some have gone as far as to suggest that ‘positivism is dead’ (Byrne, 1998, p. 37), the general consensus is more in line with the belief that natural reality and social reality are different, and therefore require different approaches and methods to conduct research (Gray, 2013; Robson, 2002).

As the present study is conducted in naturalistic settings and seeks to demonstrate an appreciation for those who have lived experience of safety culture in varying contexts, the ontological position of relativism is adopted. The thesis is conducted within a Constructivist

paradigm that states that social realities are contextual, subjective and multiple perceptions of reality may exist (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Ponterotto, 2005; Robson, 2002). Constructivists make no assertions that these realities represent absolute truth, arguing that “truth is a matter of best-informed and most sophisticated construction on which there is consensus at a given time” (Schwandt, 1994, p. 128). Nonetheless, this knowledge is deemed to be equally valid from context to context and is co-created as the researcher interacts with the participant to uncover meaning (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Ponterotto, 2005). The typical approach when using this paradigm is to uncover knowledge based on qualitative and dialectal processes (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014). This tends to take place in natural settings, with the researcher acknowledging and appreciating their role in the process of data collection and in co-creating knowledge as they acknowledge their own views, biases and perceptions of the research (Ponterotto, 2005).

The Constructivist approach is appropriate for the present thesis as it allows the researcher to demonstrate an appreciation for the varying perceptions of safety, safeguarding and safety culture, which may differ globally on the grounds of social context. The Constructivist paradigm allows the researcher to understand multiple constructions of knowledge and meaning that may have been placed on the phenomenon of safety culture. This is necessary as little, or no research exists on safety culture in sport. Therefore, using a Constructivist paradigm, the present thesis can build upon the nominal research base for safety culture in sport by relying on the experiences of those who can be considered key informants in safeguarding children in sport. In embracing the transactional nature of research that is used within a Constructivist paradigm, the researcher can assist in uncovering the deeper meaning of these participants’ experiences. Although, through adopting a reflective axiology, the researcher can remain mindful of their

biases and their potential impact upon the research, thus helping to ensure its trustworthiness (Shenton, 2004).

In adopting the Constructivist paradigm, the research rejected the Critical-Ideological paradigm. The Constructivist paradigm is similar to the Critical-Ideological paradigm in that both suggest that multiple realities may exist (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Furthermore, both paradigms take transactional and subjectivist epistemology, with dialectal methods in which the researchers biases are acknowledged (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Nonetheless, differences include the Critical-Ideological paradigms focus on power relations, and its epistemology which attempts to be transformative and emancipative for its participants (Ponterotto, 2005; Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

A focus on what has occurred historically may have been of more relevance if the present thesis had elected to take a normative approach to exploring culture, understanding culture as a constellation of what history suggests is the best that has been thought, said and done (Blinkman, 2007). Though the adoption of an integrated approach of safety culture means that although historical events may be acknowledged where and if necessary, a dominant focus on historical realism is not necessary or appropriate for this thesis. Additionally, the present thesis makes no attempt to be emancipative or transformative in the interactions that are had between researcher and participant. Instead the researcher seeks to further understanding of safety culture in the sport sectors using qualitative research methods.

4.1.2 Using qualitative research methods. What differentiates a paradigm from others is about more than the methods used (Morgan, 2007). Nonetheless, some approaches are suited to particular paradigms as they allow the researcher to pursue knowledge that is valued by their chosen paradigm in a manner that pays respects to its ontological and epistemological

assumptions. For this reason, the present thesis adopted the traditional approach to collect data within a Constructivism paradigm, using qualitative research methods (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; 2005).

Qualitative research is “a form of social inquiry that focusses on the way that people interpret and make sense of their experiences” (Sparkes & Smith, 2014, p. 14). This is used to understand the social realities of participants without manipulation (Robson, 2002; Patton, 2002). This can be achieved by inquiring about what is significant to those that have experienced the phenomenon in question and by conducting research within its natural settings. This helps the researcher “to gain a level of knowledge that penetrates the experience” (Charmaz, 2004, p. 984). In doing so, qualitative researchers use purposive sampling, prioritise the collection of textual data and rely on the quotes of experienced participants which are presented in the form of overarching themes (Cresswell, 2007).

In focussing on meanings, context, subjectivity and processes, qualitative research adopts idiographic (individualistic) and emic (unique) assumptions (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). This makes the use of qualitative methods most appropriate for social science research that is conducted within a Constructivist paradigm as it allows for the presentation of many expressions of reality, without any presumptions of categorisation. Qualitative research also provides an effective means to understand the process of social phenomenon, not just its outcomes. This is a potential advantage that qualitative research has over experimental and survey based research, which often struggle to provide further details of the processes underpinning the outcomes (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). For this reason, the present thesis did not to use the quantitative methods that have been used in many safety culture (and climate) research (Guldenmund, 2000; Guldenmund, 2007). This helped to ensure that safety culture, a complex phenomenon, was not

oversimplified by suggestions that cultures can be identical or genuinely expressed and represented by one questionnaire (Guldenmund, 2000; Guldenmund, 2007). This is a decision that is reinforced by Alvesson (2000) who argues that “cultural concepts (like meaning, symbol, values, rites, rituals, tales, etc.), do not readily lend themselves to quantification or to strict variable thinking, and consequently, even researchers not strongly oriented to the root-metaphor position often adopt a qualitative approach” (p. 27).

One methodological consideration when conducting qualitative research is whether to use deductive or inductive reasoning. Inductive reasoning describes the process through which the researcher begins their study without the intention of confirming or falsifying a particular hypothesis. Instead inductive research analyses particular cases and explores whether or not there are any generalities that link them to each other (Angrosino, 2007). Alternatively, deductive reasoning starts with a theory and pursues research with the aim of confirming or falsifying that theory (Holloway & Wheeler, 2010).

The popular perception of qualitative research, particularly research that is conducted within a constructivist paradigm, is that qualitative research is inherently inductive (Schwandt, 1997; Sparkes & Smith, 2014). In that sense research would begin with the study of a few cases, demonstrate an appreciation for their individual contexts and where necessary discuss any commonalities. Although rather than conducting purely inductive research, such as Grounded Theory, qualitative researchers mainly engage in an interplay of inductive and deductive reasoning (Schwandt, 1997). This has been termed adductive reasoning (Ryba, Haapanen, Mosek & Ng, 2012).

Adductive reasoning describes the concurrent use of both inductive and deductive methods in research (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). This involves “a dialectual movement between

everyday meanings and theoretical explanations, acknowledging the creative process of interpretation when applying a theoretical framework to participant's experiences" (Ryba, Haapanen, Mosek & Ng, 2012, p. 85). Examples of their use include Ryba, Haapanen, Mosek and Ng's (2012) study which inductively explored the processes that elite female swimmers constituted as acute cultural adaptation, and deductively explored if these processes and experiences were in line with existing theory on psychological needs. The present thesis adopts this concurrent approach to explore the concept of safety culture in sport. This method allowed the thesis to be guided by the research within the broader safety culture field, while ensuring that participants are also able to generate new understanding of safety culture in sport. Subsequently the qualitative data collection methods were based on an extensive review of literature, though new explanations of safety culture were also sought, specifically in the contexts of sport.

4.1.3 Data collection type selection. There are a variety of qualitative approaches that may have been used within the present thesis. This includes interviews, focus groups, ethnography and case studies. The decision of which approach to use required a considered analysis of the qualities of each approach, and a deliberation on the practical challenges of the present thesis. This analysis would determine the most appropriate methods based on theoretical and practical suitability.

One potentially suitable approach was ethnography. Ethnography is as a practice that "involves direct and sustained contact with human beings, in the context of their daily lives, over a prolonged period of time, [drawing] on a family of methods, usually including participant observation and conversation" (O'Reilly, 2012, p. 3). The two basic characteristics of this approach are that it takes place in natural settings and provides the researcher with first-hand experience of the phenomenon under study (Nurani, 2008). This allows the researcher to

establish rapport, participate as a member of the group and understand the groups functioning (Angrosino, 2007).

Ethnography can be viewed as a valuable way to understand a particular culture from the perspective of its members (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). However, to effectively conduct ethnographic research, one must have sufficient time and access to ensure that the researcher fully immerses themselves into the contexts being explored. This is a process that can take months, or in some cases, years (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). Therefore, while this approach is suited to exploring culture (Robson, 2002), the necessity for the International Safeguards research project to produce six representative studies of the implementation of the International Safeguards within a three-year period meant that the researcher could not spend more than a few weeks with each organisation. Thus, the time spent with each organisation would be insufficient to conduct thorough, quality and reliable ethnographic research.

Another potentially suitable approach was case studies. A case study can be described as “an empirical inquiry about a contemporary phenomenon set within a real-world context... [which] relies upon multiple data sources” (Yin, 1994, p. 13; Yin, 2012). This involves “the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its complexities within important circumstances” (Stake, 1995, p. 1). While case study research must be conducted in depth within particular contexts, research may also utilise a multiple case study approach. This occurs as researchers investigate several unique contexts to understand a particular phenomenon in varying circumstances (Robson, 2002).

In presenting Yin’s (1994) popular characterisation of case studies, Robson (2002) states that one of the key elements of case study research is its collection and analysis of multiple forms of data. This should occur within each case study, irrespective of whether a single case

study or multiple case study approach is used. The use of multiple forms of data provides the case study with depth and enhances the trustworthiness of the research by allowing triangulation across those methods as a form of data analysis. For this reason, Baxter and Jack (2008) have described the use of multiple data sources as the hallmark of case study research, and a way of enhancing case study credibility, stating that “potential data sources may include, but are not limited to: documentation, archival records, interviews, physical artefacts, direct observations, and participant-observation” (p. 554).

The present thesis may have adopted a case study approach, as used with some previous research on safety culture in varying parts of the world (e.g. China (Liu, Liu, Wang, Zhang & Zhang, 2014), Denmark (Nielsen, Kines, Pedersen, Andersen & Andersen, 2015) and Australia (Allen, Chiarella & Homer, 2010)). This multi case study approach may have been used to help the present thesis to conceptualise and theorise safety culture in several varying global sport contexts. This is in spite of the common misconception that one cannot generalise from case study research (as argued by Flyvbjerg, 2006; Stake, 2005). However, the organisations’ that agreed to be part of the research provided the researcher with differential levels of access to their organisation. Therefore, restrictions were often placed on what data the researcher was able to obtain. Access to conduct observations, review key documentation or visit key locations to analyse their physical artefacts were often limited, impractical or outright denied.

With that in mind the present thesis elected not to use a multi-case study research design. This would violate Yin’s (1994; 2012) classification of a case study by failing to use what Baxter and Jack (2008) describe as the hallmark of case study research, multiple data sources. Therefore, while the present research was conducted with a variety of organisations from a range of global locations, it did not refer to each cohort of data collection as a ‘case’ or ‘case study’,

rather analyses were spoken of in relation to the varying organisations, sites and locations. Instead, the present thesis utilised other qualitative data collection methods which adequately addressed the aims and objectives of this thesis in a manner that was consistent with the constructivist paradigm and practically viable. Those methods were interviews and focus groups.

4.1.4 Interviews and focus groups. Holloway (1997) defines a qualitative interview as a “conversation with a purpose” (p. 94). This involves the researcher asking a variety of questions on the subject matter under research (Robson, 2002). In doing so, qualitative researchers seek to “obtain the perspectives, feelings and perceptions of the participant(s)” (Holloway, 1997, p. 94). With this, interviews can be used as platforms for the joint construction of knowledge in a variety of contexts (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). Indeed, while acknowledging that there are various interview types, Patton recognises that the interview can be used effectively as a meaning making act in which the researchers’ priority is to further their understanding of participants’ experiences of particular phenomenon and the meaning they place on different aspects of it (Patton, 2015).

Of the interview types that exist (unstructured, semi-structured and structured) (Robson, 2002), interviews consistent with the constructivist paradigm are typically semi-structured (Patton, 2015). Unlike unstructured interviews, semi-structured interviews have the orderliness of the structured interview type, in the form of a prescribed set of questions. Although the interviewer is not limited to asking those questions in a strict order, and is given the freedom to modify the content and order of questions based on the researcher’s perceptions of what seems most appropriate during the dialogue (Di-Cicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Robson, 2002). Furthermore, the researcher is able to ask follow-up questions and briefly deviate from the interview guide, making it a truer social meaning making act, while allowing comparability

between interviews, without compromising depth (Sparkes & Smith 2014; Fielding & Thomas, 2008; Robson, 2002). Consequently, the present thesis utilised semi-structured interviews due to their ability to be used in a manner consistent with the Constructivist paradigm. Interviews were also advantageous in allowing the researcher to utilise abductive reasoning. The researcher was able to deductively research based on the findings of previous literature, while also including questions that seek to induce new understanding of the phenomenon under question.

Furthermore, the researcher retained the ability to deviate from the script and attain further depth to both inductive and deductive questions. This was particularly beneficial considering responses may be unexpected and require further questioning or elaboration.

Along with the semi-structured interview type, interviews can also take place in group settings as focus groups (Di-Cicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Robson, 2002). Focus groups are led by the researcher and involve “a number of people collaboratively sharing ideas, feelings, thoughts and perceptions” (Sparkes & Smith, 2014, p. 85). This may be conducted in an identical semi-structured form to an interview, with similar principles to development and execution (Robson, 2002). For the purposes of the present study, focus groups were often deemed practical and appropriate as a means to understand the views of particular groups of people e.g. those with identical jobs. Focus groups were particularly useful to allow the researcher to experience the dynamic dialogue that participants with similar experience may have about the significance of safety culture and its facets.

Some of the main weaknesses of focus groups are that some participants may be less willing to share their views, particularly those which are extremely personal or controversial (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). There is also a risk that the views of those who are more passive may be lost amongst those who are more dominant. For these reasons, Di-Cicco-Bloom and Crabtree

(2006) argue that each focus group should represent an individual entity, thus focus groups should not be considered shortcuts for increasing a studies number of participants. Therefore, each focus group was understood in its own right, considering the potential impact of group dynamics and not necessarily deemed as a definitive reflection of all participants' views. Considering that, the present thesis conducted focus groups to augment individual semi-structured interview data, rather than to act as a replacement of it.

4.2 Sampling and Gaining Access

The present thesis was conducted in conjunction with the International Safeguards Research Project. Therefore, participants from the International Safeguards research were also approached to be participants for the present thesis. As such the sampling process of the International Safeguards Project is relevant in explaining the sampling process of the present thesis.

4.2.1 Sampling. In order to investigate the International Safeguards and its implementation in global sport organisations, the International Safeguards research project produced in depth analyses of six pioneering organisations. The working group for the International Safeguards Project stated that these organisations should represent six unique contexts in which the International Safeguards had been implemented. Based on this, the International Safeguards research project used maximum variation sampling (Patton, 1990).

Maximum variation sampling begins with the researcher "identifying diverse characteristics or criteria for constructing the sample" (Patton, 1990, p. 172). In other words, the researcher determines the criteria that they wish for the participants to vary on. This should not be confused with representational sampling, where the researcher selects participants to represent particular criteria (Jones, Brown & Holloway, 2013). The priority here is not that each

characteristic of each criterion is represented, instead that each participant represents a unique constellation of the predetermined criteria. This sampling method values heterogeneity based on the belief that “any common themes that emerge from great variation are of particular interest and value in capturing the core experiences and central, shared aspects of a program” (Patton, 1990, p. 172). This allows the researcher to capture and describe “central themes or principal outcomes that cut across a great deal of participant or program variation” (Patton, 1990, p. 172). This is useful in providing high-quality and detailed descriptions of each case, along with its ability to highlight any important shared patterns that are given increased significance having arrived out of heterogeneity (Patton, 1990; Sparkes & Smith, 2014; Patton, 2015).

The International Safeguards research project identified the variance criteria as organisational size (local, regional or international), location(s), and mission (e.g. coach education, governance or sports delivery). To achieve this, all 50 piloting organisations were invited via international learning sets and email to express an interest in being a participant for the International Safeguards research project. Where organisations expressed an interest, they were shortlisted and assessed for suitability on the basis of what Sparkes and Smith (2014) state are the three key factors in the sampling process; availability, accessibility and theoretical interest.

Theoretical interest was the priority and it was deemed essential to ensure that each organisation represented a unique context in which the International Safeguards had been piloted. Therefore, where duplicates existed, in regard to organisational size, type, or location, the researchers determined which organisation to include based on initial perceptions of their relevance and distinctiveness. However, in some instances the researchers also had to consider selection based on the other two key factors of the sampling process; accessibility and

availability (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). Where accessibility and availability were considered, the researchers focussed on whether there were any practical constraints to including particular organisations within the analysis. The most prominent considerations were the extent to which the organisation could wholly and feasibly facilitate the research within a time frame that was amenable to both parties, and whether this could be achieved in a manner that was deemed relatively resource efficient, considering the projects limited budget. Organisations that were deemed appropriate to include in the research based on those three criteria were sent an official invitation via email (Appendix A). This included further information on the data collection process, an invitation to have any questions answered and an invitation to begin making arrangements for data collection.

The present researcher had simultaneous involvement in both the present thesis and the International Safeguards Project. Therefore, having gained ethical approval from the Brunel University ethics committee, shortlisted participants for the International Safeguards research project were also approached to be part of the present thesis. Participants were provided with an information sheet regarding the present thesis (Appendix B) and offered an opportunity to discuss participation. It was emphasised that involvement in the International Safeguards Project was not dependent upon their involvement in the present thesis.

Based on this it can be said that the present thesis also had a maximum variance sample. This method was inherited from the parent research project for its advantages in respects to resource efficiency and practicality, allowing the researcher to take advantage of their involvement in the International Safeguards Project and its global reach, gaining access to reputable, experienced and highly relevant organisations. Although it was also deemed suitable and advantageous to the present thesis as it allowed the researcher to conduct high-quality and

detailed analyses of safety culture in a variety of contexts, while also leaving open the potential for important shared patterns to emanate on the basis that those patterns must be highly significant as they arrived out of heterogeneity (Patton, 1990; Sparkes & Smith, 2014; Patton, 2015). This enabled the present thesis to show appreciation for the potential discrepancies in ‘realities’ between different organisations and contexts, while allowing room for the identification of any invariant aspects of the essential structure of safety culture (Jones, Brown & Holloway, 2013). These ‘realities’ are discussed later as part of the participant profiles.

4.2.2 Gaining access through gatekeepers. Having identified potential participatory organisations, a lead contact was sought at each organisation. Examples of gatekeepers included; the Safeguarding Manager, Monitoring and Development Manager, Director and Founder. These individuals acted as gatekeepers, which Holloway (1997) defines as an individual or group that can provide the researcher with access to participants, information or the setting. The value of a gatekeeper lies in their ability and power to; grant the researcher with the access and participants required (Clark, 2010), advocate for the usefulness of the research amongst their colleagues (Reeves, 2010), and assist in in the selection of appropriate participants (Jones, Brown & Holloway, 2013). In international research, gatekeepers can also serve the function of providing the researcher with culturally relevant information that can be used to enhance the quality and applicability of research findings (Hayhurst, Kay & Chawansky, 2016). This was particularly pertinent to this thesis as concern has been raised over the “apparently uncritical transfer of methodological approaches, including evaluation frameworks, from northern settings to international development ones” (Hayhurst, Kay & Chawansky, 2016, p. 215). Kay, Mansfield and Jeanes (2016) argue that it is often falsely assumed that theories, policies and practices developed in, or based on research predominantly from the global north, can be perfectly

replicated within the global south. Such approaches to research are not only at risk of developing impractical recommendations for delivers, but potentially perpetuating ideas of cultural supremacy by marginalising or wholly excluding particular cultures from contemporary research (Kay, Mansfield & Jeanes, 2016). As a result, ‘outsider researchers’, or those with little or no understanding of the broader cultural contexts that the research is conducted in, are unlikely to be well equipped to provide culturally appropriate understanding (Kay, Mansfield & Jeanes, 2016). Therefore, Kay and colleagues suggest that it is often necessary to rely on the knowledge and experience of local people, whose guidance can ensure greater understanding of the cultural contexts of the research being conducted, thus enhance the overall quality of the research. For this reason, within this thesis, the value of the gatekeeper was also deemed to be in their ability to provide culturally relevant information on matters such as the use of language, customs and common ideologies.

Recognising all of these benefits, the researcher was intentional about trying to establish a lead contact with local knowledge and experience, that is a prominent and influential member level of staff. This heightened status within their organisation allowed the gatekeeper to serve three main functions. The first was to act as the point of reference for all communication on matters relating to the research, including the distribution of the research information sheet. The second was to assist the co-ordination of the site and country visit. This included communicating with the researcher via email or Skype to provide guidance and local expertise on matters such as flights, suitable accommodation, local customs and laws. The third was to facilitate access to both the organisations staff and key partners who may be of interest to the researcher. In some cases, this involved arranging interviews in preparation of the visit.

It is important to note that the researcher was not always capable of accessing individuals that meet all of these criteria. For example, at ICRC, access was gained through the Safeguarding Manager, but this individual's job role and the structure of the organisation meant that they lacked the power to greatly influence staff members or other stakeholders to take part in an interview. Furthermore, as the Safeguarding Manager was rooted in a different country at the organisation's headquarters, they possessed very little cultural knowledge. Therefore, organisation of the researcher's visit was left to local staff who were best placed to organise it, but still required approval from senior staff at headquarters for major decisions. This often made the process convoluted and inefficient. Another identified issue was the hesitance of some organisations to provide access to the most senior and influential individuals, before the researcher was vetted by a less senior employee. In these cases, the less influential gatekeeper acted as a permanent buffer between the researcher and the most influential member(s) of staff and the researcher had to relay messages through this individual. These messages were not always relayed identically, and in regard to advocating to potential participants, the gatekeeper being a less influential member of staff reduced the willingness of other staff or stakeholders (e.g. partners) to take part in an interview or focus group.

Regarding motives for participation, Clark (2010) states that there are three main reasons that gatekeepers chose to engage in, or facilitate research; the research may act as a representation of their values and they believe that it will articulate and legitimise their views, they may feel they have a moral commitment to engage, and/or they may feel that the research will be beneficial in identifying good practice and facilitating positive change. Through their involvement with the International Safeguards Project, all participants had expressed and demonstrated beliefs that they had a moral commitment to engage, while also demonstrating a

belief that research that seeks to improve the efficacy with which sporting organisations ensure the safety of children is of value to them. For these reasons, the initial discourse surrounding the present thesis centred mostly on the potential benefits that taking part in the present thesis, in conjunction with the International Safeguards Project, would be to them. Although this had already been purposefully included within the information sheet, the researcher was tasked with emphasising this during initial discussions of the research. This often increased the motivation of gatekeepers to take part, causing a noticeable shift from scepticism, rooted in the potential for the research to be damaging to the reputation of the organisation, to enthusiasm, reflected in the belief that the thesis may assist others while enhancing the organisation's reputation as an expert body in the field.

Clark (2010) also identifies four main reasons that potential gatekeepers may refuse to take part in a research project; issues with methods, potential representation, intrusion, and disruptions to cost and efficiency. In the main, worries about methods pertained to concerns about providing the researcher with access to sensitive documents. For this reason, the researcher often had to negotiate the level of access from an organisation to organisation basis. This variable access to collect multiple forms of data, particularly crucial documentation, contributed to the present thesis not deeming it valid to refer to itself as a multi case study thesis. Though concerns were also raised about representation, intrusion and disruption. These concerns were allayed by verbal or email based communications in which the researcher emphasised that; organisations were given pseudonyms and only identified by their job role as individuals, and that visits would only be at times that would be mutually convenient, causing the least disruption possible. In some cases, the researcher further agreed to only interview participants by appointment. This helped to ensure that participating organisations did not feel their staff were

being disrupted from doing their jobs at inappropriate times. Finally, organisations were also reassured that all costs would be covered by the researcher and the organisation would not be asked to fund any aspect of the visit.

4.3 Participant Profiles

A total of five organisations were included in this thesis. These five organisations were the only organisations to be invited to be participants. None of the organisations that were approached to be included in this thesis rejected an invitation, however due to time restraints, and a failure of the meet the maximum variation sampling criteria, this final number differed from the six organisations analysed as part of International Safeguards Project. Each organisation represented unique contexts in which safety culture was being developed, maintained or altered. Organisations were given a pseudonym to protect their anonymity. An overview of participating organisations is given in table 7.

Table 7.

Overview of participating organisations.

| Organisation name | Size | Mission | Location(s) |
|--|---------------|---|---|
| Caribbean Sports Company (Caribbean Sports Co.) | Regional | Coach education, activism & capacity building | Caribbean islands |
| Kenya Girls' Club | Local | Sport delivery | Kenya, East Africa |
| The Club | International | Sport delivery | Europe |
| International Coaching Agency (ICA) | International | Coach education | Based in the USA, delivery in developing countries |
| International Child Rights Company (ICRC) | International | Coach education and sports delivery | Based in Canada, delivery in various countries globally |

A total of 52 units of analysis were conducted with 77 participants. Of these, 45 were interviews, while seven were focus groups. Participants represented each organisation on the basis of being a member of staff, partner or beneficiary. Partners and beneficiaries were included to allow the researcher to gain knowledge of how safety culture may impact or be impacted by other professionals who work with, influence or benefit from the organisations work on safeguarding. Previous research has argued that this should be a consideration of safety culture (Makin & Winder, 2009), particularly where those external but interrelated professionals impact safety culture, or are the people that actually operationalise its principles.

4.3.1 Caribbean Sports Company. Caribbean Sports Company (Caribbean Sports Co.) is a prominent and leading advocate and activist for Sport for Development (SfD) in the Caribbean. They are a ‘regional hub’, supporting organisations and governments to advance their delivery and organisation of sport through training and administrative support. They work in collaboration with a plethora of local, national and international partners as part of an international union. This includes the ministries of Youth, Sport and Education of various countries.

Caribbean Sports Co. have concentrated a significant portion of their efforts into developing general understanding of safeguarding in sport, and influencing the political landscape within the Caribbean for the advancement of child safety. Much of this work has been based on Caribbean Sports Co.’s partnership with the US based National Alliance of Youth Sport and their involvement with the International Safeguards Project. As part of this, Caribbean Sports Co. participates in an international learning set to share challenges and examples of good practice. This helps to develop their work on safeguarding which focuses on; policy

development, capacity building, the development/maintenance of safeguarding systems, and research production/distribution.

Table 8.

Participant profiles for Caribbean Sports Co

| Unit of analyses | Data Collection Type | Organisation/Department | Participant(s) |
|------------------|----------------------|---|---|
| 1 | Interview | Caribbean Sports Co. | Caribbean Sports Co. Director |
| 2 | Interview | Partner Government – Department of Sport | Director of Sport |
| 3 | Focus Group | Partner Government – Department of Health | Staff from the Ministry of Health |
| 4 | Interview | Partner Government – Department of Youth | Assistant Chief Youth Development Officer |
| 5 | Interview | Partner Government – Department of Sport | Sports Officer |
| 6 | Interview | Partner Local School | School Secretary |
| 7 | Interview | Partner Government – Department of Sport | Sports Officer |
| 8 | Focus Group | Partner Government – Department of Sport | Regional Sports Delivery Staff |
| 9 | Interview | Partner School | School Principle |
| 10 | Interview | Caribbean Sports Co. | Caribbean Sports Co. Co-Founder |

Caribbean Sports Co. were selected to be part of the research for the International Safeguards project and the present thesis due to their unique position as a regional training and support based organisation that serves the Caribbean islands. As the most prominent of its kind within this region, Caribbean Sports Co. are considered experts in their field, with vast

experience of facilitating sport for development delivery. Caribbean Sports Co. were also included due to their unique situation in which they operate between a cluster of islands, which initial discussions revealed as presenting its own unique challenges and considerations. For these reasons, a total of ten units of analysis were conducted with Caribbean Sports Co. (as seen in Table 8).

It is significant to note that the nature of the organisations work is such that it relies upon deliverers and facilitators of sport to operationalise its safeguarding policies, procedures and practices. Therefore, individuals that are not full time Caribbean Sports Co. staff are often in the best position to discuss the practical implications of the organisations work on safeguarding. Therefore, the majority of interviews were conducted with individuals who have roles within other organisations, although work extensively with the projects, programmes and policies that the Caribbean Sports Co. have developed. For this reason, participants of this analysis included government staff, regional sports deliverers and academic staff, along with core Caribbean Sports Co. staff.

4.3.2 Kenya Girls' Club. Kenya Girls' Club is a sport for development organisation based in the coastal region of Kenya in East Africa. Kenya Girls' Club provides a targeted programme to address gender based imbalances and empower women and girls between 9 and 25 years old, through football. This is achieved through their team, by hosting youth football leagues and tournaments, and the delivery of educational and developmental schemes that address the broader gender issues affecting girls in their access to health, leadership and empowerment. Kenya Girls' Club's leagues and developmental schemes are youth-led and heavily influenced by elected peer leaders who occupy roles that are specific to football (e.g.

referees and coaches), or educational and developmental (e.g. girl advocates who are responsible for promoting healthy sexual choices).

Kenya Girls' Club is rooted in the United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child and prides itself on being a child-centred, rights based organisation. Subsequently, a significant portion of Kenya Girls' Club's programmes, workshops and schemes can be constituted as child protection and safeguarding in, around and through football. All of which is based on Kenya Girls' Club's Child Protection Policy which applies to all staff, associates and representatives of the organisation. In recognising that issues like rape, child labour, and abuse are evidently present in the area, and that the risks of children's rights being violated in the coastal region of Kenya are perennial, this policy; offers guidance on acceptable codes of conduct, provides advice on how to manage cases and outlines the organisations commitment to ensuring children are protected during and through their involvement with the organisation.

In their region Kenya Girls' Club are recognised as leaders in the realm of child safeguarding and rights protection. They have recently become the elected organisation in charge of child safeguarding during a major regional competition. Owing to a desire to further their efforts in rights based activism and safeguarding, Kenya Girls' Club also became a member of the piloting process for the development of the International Safeguards, while actively participating in an international learning set to share and gain knowledge of its implementation. During this time Kenya Girls' Club's status as a global leader in child safeguarding has increased. Kenya Girls' Club has become a global award-winning organisation for its efforts in safeguarding children in sport, while also increasing its partner base throughout Europe in particular.

Kenya Girls' Club were included in the present thesis due to their status as a global leader in safeguarding children that delivers both sport in unique rural settings in east Africa. The organisation's critical acclaim suggested that their knowledge and experience would be an advantage to the present thesis. For these reasons, a total of ten units of analysis were conducted with the organisation as outlined in Table 9.

Table 9.

Participant Profiles for Kenya Girls' Club

| Unit of analysis | Data Collection Type | Organisation/Department | Participant(s) |
|------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|---|
| 1 | Interview | Kenya Girls' Club | Executive Director |
| 2 | Focus Group | Kenya Girls' Club | Kenya Girls' Club Players and Volunteers (Voluntary roles were Facilitator of Peer Education, Peer Educator, Peer Educator, Coach, Coach, Field Committee Member) |
| 3 | Focus Group | Kenya Girls' Club | District Co-ordinators |
| 4 | Interview | Kenya Girls' Club | Health Officer |
| 5 | Interview | Kenya Girls' Club | Kenya Girls' Club player, Peer Educator and Youth coach |
| 6 | Interview | Kenya Girls' Club | Kenya Girls' Club Coach, Peer Educator |
| 7 | Interview | Kenya Girls' Club | Volunteer Coach |
| 8 | Interview | Kenya Girls' Club | Tournament and Event Co-ordinator |
| 9 | Interview | Kenya Girls' Club | Volunteer coach |
| 10 | Interview | Kenya Girls' Club | Monitoring and Evaluation Co-ordinator |

Of the ten units of analysis conducted with Kenya Girls' Club, eight were interviews, while two were focus groups. Qualitative data collection took place with a range of Kenya Girls'

Club staff and volunteers, including management and delivery staff. Participants also included present coaches of Kenya Girls' Club who had previously been attendees of Kenya Girls' Club projects and Kenya Girls' Club team players.

4.3.3 The Club. The Club are a top professional European football club. The Club engage with children from a wide variety of backgrounds, ages and capabilities in a range of contexts. One of those contexts is The Club's Academy. This is a training scheme delivered by elite youth football coaches with the main purpose of developing the footballing ability of children aged 9 to 16 and providing them with a pathway into professional football. The Club's Academy primarily engages with children and young adults in the form of weekly football coaching sessions. This takes place at The Club's training complex, a large, world class facility with multiple football pitches and security patrol. The Club's pathway into professional football is further extended beyond the age of 16. Graduates of The Club's Academy programme become part of the Under 18 set up. This progression allows young people over the age of compulsory schooling to become full-time scholars of The Club.

In addition to The Club's elite performance pathway, The Club also delivers an array of health, coaching and education programmes in their local community. Examples of this work include multi-sports coaching in local schools, community cohesion programmes and health and activity workshops. Through these programmes, staff engage with an extremely diverse demographic of children and young adults within the community. This includes children and young adults of varying age, gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity and social status, including children with disabilities and learning difficulties. This work is built upon internationally as The Club works closely with partner football clubs around the world to support their delivery of football coaching and sports provision, providing a wide range of international football

programmes. The Club's international work also includes regular trips abroad for academy players who gain experience of international competition.

The Club have been a piloting organisation for the International Safeguards since 2012. Their involvement has informed their work on safeguarding children which permeates the aforementioned three areas of delivery with children. This work is underpinned by their Safeguarding Policy which outlines their legal and moral obligations to ensure children in their care are safeguarded and that the failure to do so may have grave repercussions, particularly considering their status as a reputable professional football club. This policy sets out their core values, vision, aims, expectations and safeguarding practices, and is made available to the general public via The Club's website for the purposes of transparency with partners and stakeholders. The Club have also invested significant funds into its safeguarding programme, appointing a highly experienced Head of Safeguarding (HoS), supplementing this with the commitment of funds for a team of Safeguarding Officers (SgOs). This team is comprised of a host of full-time staff who are situated in a wide variety of departments throughout the organisation.

The Club were included in the present thesis due to their unique position as a highly reputable professional sports club in Europe. Not only did the European context provide a setting worthy of investigation, but also the organisations status in the public domain. Also of interest was the development and maintenance of safety culture in a large, wealthy, multi-layered organisation. Particularly The Club's Safeguarding Team and how its distribution throughout the organisation may assist the development or maintenance of a safety culture that impacts their work locally and internationally. For these reasons a total of 14 units of analysis were conducted with The Club as outlined in Table 10.

Table 10.

Participant profiles for The Club

| Unit of analyses | Data Collection Type | Organisation/Department | Participant(s) |
|------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1 | Interview | The Club | Head of Safeguarding |
| 2 | Interview | The Club | Safeguarding and Welfare Officer |
| 3 | Focus Group | The Club | Safeguarding Officers (HR Manager, Coaching Director, Junior Membership and match day staff and PA) |
| 4 | Interview | The Club (Academy) | Academy Coach |
| 5 | Interview | The Club | Head Scout |
| 6 | Interview | The Club (Coaching in the community) | Community Coach and Mentor |
| 7 | Interview | The Club (Coaching in the community) | Part Time Community Coach |
| 8 | Interview | The Club | Safety Steward |
| 9 | Interview | The Club | Safeguarding Officer and Training Manager |
| 10 | Interview | The Club | Receptionist and match day staff |
| 11 | Interview | The Club | International Programmes Manager |
| 12 | Interview | The Club (Coaching in the community) | Community Apprentice Coach |

4.3.4 International Coaching Agency. International Coaching Agency (ICA) is an international sport for development organisation that trains and educates local coaches in developing countries through their partnerships with local organisations. ICA provide programmes based on their unique self-directed learning model which seeks to develop

independent and critical thinkers that are empowered to use sport to address social issues in their community. These programmes offer year-round support for partner organisations and one-week long training events which feature a variety of indoor and outdoor activities and workshops. These training events are conducted three times over a three-year period with a discrete theme for each year; education, creation and adaptation.

Since its inception in 2008, ICA has delivered over 200 community programmes in over 35 countries by partnering with renowned international organisations. This has contributed to ICA being recognised as a standout organisation in the sport for development field, which is evidenced by their vast array of awards. However, ICA are not only recognised for their efforts towards achieving their broader vision to facilitate the use of sport as a social impact tool, but also for their work in safeguarding children. This is demonstrated by their recent shortlisting for an international safeguarding children award in 2015.

ICA's work in safeguarding is spearheaded at board level, stemming from their strong identity as a rights based organisation and their frequent networking with other organisations in the field. ICA have been a piloting organisation for the development of the International Safeguards since 2012. ICA are also contributors to an international learning set developed to encourage and facilitate the sharing of safeguarding knowledge and experience for similar international organisations. Furthermore, ICA has a Child Protection Policy which is rooted in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and is influenced by their ongoing involvement with global child rights organisations.

Child rights and the necessity to safeguard children in, around and through sport is a constant theme throughout all ICA programmes. Targeted workshops are conducted to discuss the most pertinent issues in relation to the protection of children, and explore how deliverers may

contribute to solving those issues in their communities. ICA's approach to this training, and indeed their programmes as a whole is that in order to attain true change, there is often a need to redefine social norms and remove the social barriers that may contribute to forms of harm or injustices following them. Therefore, it is believed that these conversations may have to challenge or question traditions, cultures and religions, along with all other social norms that may have an influence. These discussions are transferred onto the field and coaches are offered safe coaching principles, and assisted to produce games that educate children about their rights and what to do if they are violated.

ICA were included in the present thesis due to their experience in delivering coach education programmes globally. ICA were deemed to be experienced and knowledgeable of the practical implications for coaches in a host of developing countries. ICA were also of particular interest due to their close partnerships with influential bodies throughout the world. This included governments and ministerial staff. The present thesis included these participants in order to gain insight into ICAs attempts to impact safety culture from a bottom up perspective, based on the feedback of beneficiary coaches. Local coaches were also included in acknowledgement that ICA work very infrequently with children. Therefore, the organisation relies upon their coaches to acts as a conduit through which the ideas and practices for the development of a safety culture are actualised. Consequently, local coaches were deemed relevant in discussing the practicalities of implementing the policies, practices and procedures of ICA. Although the present thesis only included coaches who were in their third year of engagement with ICA, thus had years of knowledge and experience of working with ICA. Based on this, a total of nine interviews were conducted (as seen in Table 11).

Table 11.

Participant Profiles for ICA

| Unit of analyses | Data Collection Type | Organisation/Department | Participant(s) |
|------------------|----------------------|--|---|
| 1 | Interview | ICA | Chief Executive Strategist |
| 2 | Interview | ICA | Founder and Global strategist |
| 3 | Interview | Government of Zanzibar (ICA Partner) | Government Official from The Ministry of Information Culture, Tourism and Sport |
| 4 | Interview | Local Sports Club (ICA beneficiary) | Local Coach |
| 5 | Interview | ICA | Founder and Board Member/Education Strategist |
| 6 | Interview | Local School and Local Sports Club (ICA beneficiary) | Local Coach/Chairman of sports in school |
| 7 | Interview | Government of Zanzibar (ICA Partner) | Government Official from Zanzibar National Sports Council |
| 8 | Interview | Global Child Rights Organisation (ICA Partner) | National Representative |
| 9 | Interview | ICA | ICA Coach |

These interviews were conducted during a training event of the third phase of a ICA programme in Zanzibar, East Africa. Although the location of this training event was somewhat similar to that of Kenya Girls' Club, the small, individual, African island of Zanzibar was deemed distinctive. Furthermore, ICAs extensive experience in delivering programmes globally

meant that the experiences of the organisation transcended the location of the specific programme visited.

4.3.5 International Child Rights Company. International Child Rights Company (ICRC) is a global sport for development organisation that delivers community programmes that train community leaders and teachers to become coaches and facilitators of specifically designed games. In doing so ICRC builds the capacity of local people to use play to empower and educate children facing adversity. This enhances the ability of community leaders and teachers to facilitate social change by providing quality education, building peaceful communities, ensuring gender equality and teaching positive health practices.

ICRC programmes are tailored play based learning activities that are designed to meet the specific needs of a community by combatting the effects of larger societal issues such as poverty, conflict and disease. Community programmes are long-term projects which include working partnerships with key organisations such as local schools and governmental departments. Inclusive in these programmes are training events for teachers and community leaders, regular facilitation of play based learning and special sporting events for children and young people. All of this work is rooted in the belief that the children who attain new skills from ICRC programmes will become ambassadors, passing on these skills to their peers and fellow community members.

Since its inception in 2000, ICRC has grown exponentially with headquarters in Canada, and delivery of programmes in 20 countries. ICRC has country bases in Asia, Africa, and the Middle East where its programmes are delivered. The organisation also has national offices throughout Europe and North America which raise funds, build awareness and advocate for key agendas in the area of sport for development. Globally, the protection of children is central to the work that ICRC does. ICRC views safeguarding as a legal and moral obligation believing that

safeguarding not only protects the children that their work influences, but also the organisation and its members. For these reasons, the organisation's child protection training resources cite the desire to ensure ICRC "is a child safe organization where ICRC Team members are skilled, confident, competent and well supported in meeting their protection responsibilities". ICRC believes that this is best achieved when the organisation demonstrates a clear and effective policy that is accompanied by practical yet successful procedures.

In light of this, ICRC has had a Child Safeguarding Policy since 2005. This policy is reviewed annually and is accompanied by extensive safeguarding training for staff, and freely accessible resources. These resources include an implementation guide to provide guidance on the implementation of the Child Safeguarding Policy. ICRC staff must all sign the organisation's Child Safeguarding Policy and child safeguarding and protection training is mandatory for all staff. Extra workshops are also available for staff depending on the issues in a particular country (e.g. positive discipline, child protection mapping etc). ICRC have also made an effort to ensure that reporting incidents is as simple and inviting as possible for staff and beneficiaries and as such there are three streams for reporting incidents. The organisation has an email address which incident report forms can be emailed to, an international phone line to which anonymous reports can be made and an online whistleblower website for simple confidential reporting of incidents and reports.

ICRC's commitment to safeguarding is also demonstrated in the structure of the organisation's staffing. At HQ level ICRC has a Child Protection Specialist who oversees work in child protection and safeguarding, while also developing policy, training manuals and conducting organisational audits. ICRC also has regional Child Protection Co-ordinators and Focal Points who work with HQ and external networks and partners to deliver regional safeguarding and child protection workshops. Regional Co-ordinators also support the work of Country level Child

Protection Focal Points, to develop and deliver training, staff orientation and procedures. Child Protection Focal Points are the persons responsible for safeguarding at country bases, in partnership with the Country Manager who has overarching Child Safeguarding responsibility. The Regional Child Protection Co-ordinators and Focal Points are offered further support through quarterly calls with fellow country level child protection Focal Points and the Child Protection Specialist. Country Programme managers also have a high level of responsibility for setting up programmes, which may include advocacy on child protection and ensuring they take the protection of children into account. This does not only apply for country bases, but also for HQ which has a Child Safeguarding Focal Point in Human Resources who focuses on safeguarding specifically, completing tasks such as evaluating the recruitment aspect and managing cases globally.

ICRC have been a member of the piloting process of the International Safeguards since 2012. The organisation regularly contributes to an international learning set to share its experiences and knowledge. ICRC have used the Safeguards as a learning tool to facilitate their own organisational development. For example, when monitoring and evaluating their own policies and procedures, ICRC reference the International Safeguards to benchmark their work, ensuring that when they audit their work, it aligns with the International Safeguards. The International Safeguards have also motivated ICRC to expand on their work, for example in validating the necessity to engage in further children's participation in safeguarding.

ICRC were included in this thesis due to their unique nature as a global sport for development organisation that trains sports deliverers and delivers sports programmes themselves. The organisation is unique in its global status, while the relationship between the HQ and country bases were of particular interest in relation to how safety culture can be developed

and maintained using this organisational structure. Furthermore, non-ICRC staff were included to provide insight into the impact of ICRCs safety culture on their work, and their subsequent implementation of ICRC games and programmes. Therefore, a total of 11 units of analysis were conducted with ICRC, of which nine were interviews and two were focus groups. An overview of these participants can be found in Table 12.

Table 12.

Participant profiles for ICRC.

| Unit of analyses | Data Collection Type | Organisation/Department | Participant(s) |
|------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|--|
| 1 | Interview | ICRC | Child Protection Specialist |
| 2 | Interview | ICRC | Programme Manager and CP Focal Point |
| 3 | Interview | ICRC | Manager of Programme Operations |
| 4 | Interview | ICRC | Monitoring and Evaluation Officer |
| 5 | Interview | ICRC | Admin and HR Support Officer |
| 6 | Interview | ICRC | Regional training Officer |
| 7 | Focus Group | Partner Primary School | Teachers (Including PE Teachers and Delivery Team) |
| 8 | Interview | ICRC | Training Officer and Coach |
| 9 | Interview | ICRC | Training Officer and Coach |
| 10 | Interview | ICRC | Project co-ordinator |
| 11 | Focus Group | Correctional Facility | Correctional Facility Staff (Including Admin Manager, Psychologist, Sports Delivery Staff) |

4.4 Procedure

Once the researcher had gained access to all participating organisations, a suitable data collection period was arranged. This arrangement was facilitated by the gatekeeper, who utilised their local knowledge to support the researcher in organising matters such as transport and accommodation. The gatekeeper typically agreed to meet either on the morning of the first day of data collection, or, where international travel was concerned, upon the researcher's arrival at the airport. The following section describes the process of building rapport, and conducting interviews and focus groups.

4.4.1 Building rapport upon entry. The ability of the researcher to establish and sustain rapport between themselves and the participant is crucial to the success of qualitative research (Jones, Brown & Holloway, 2013). Through an increased sense of trust, comfort, respect and confidentiality, positive rapport can encourage participants to share more information and add depth to their responses (Mason, 2002). For these reasons, the researcher prioritised the development of positive rapport between not only participants of the research, but other staff members who could influence participant's perceptions of the researcher. This included, and was assisted by the gatekeeper who provided regular culturally relevant updates and guidance on matters such as local customs.

The researcher had been in communication with the gatekeeper of each organisation prior to any visits, so the process of building and maintaining rapport with this individual began via Skype and email communications. This included the researcher expressing interest about their organisation and role, while carefully and attentively responding to initial concerns and considerations about the research by expanding upon the initial email and information sheet. In doing so, the researcher presented themselves with the traditional approach of the constructivist

paradigm as the interested and passionate participant who seeks to learn from experts on the subject matter (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Ponterotto & Greiger, 2007). Though some responded more positively than others, gatekeepers were generally positive in their response to this.

The process of building rapport with other participants began upon the researcher's arrival to the organisations place of work. A similar approach to the gatekeeper was used and the researcher sought to build rapport with participants by responding to any concerns, discussing the purpose of the research and expressing an interest in the individual's role within the organisation. Participants were reassured that they would be providing the researcher with an invaluable insight into their experiences and knowledge, rather than being tested. In some cases, this process involved the researcher agreeing to engage in social activities that would illuminate the researcher about the individual or the organisation as a whole. These activities included sharing lunch with participants, receiving site tours, watching project delivery and taking part in recreational sporting activities. The researchers' willingness to divulge information about themselves and build informal relationships encouraged participants to trust them. This was noticed by their increased willingness to speak about themselves and their organisation, offering information without prompt. The development of rapport was also noticed in participants increased desire to spend time with the researcher. In most cases, after a few days of interaction, participants began to invite the researcher to social activities outside of their work environment.

Despite the fact that the present thesis was not an ethnographic study, it was recognised that engaging in these social activities may make the researcher seem more approachable, and enhance the participants trust and comfort in the presence of the researcher. Additionally, this engagement allowed the research to be more naturalistic, and gain contextual knowledge that informed each participants interview. Nonetheless, the researcher remained mindful that a

healthy distance must remain between the researcher and participants so as to not compromise the researcher's neutrality (Patton, 2015).

4.4.2 Conducting interviews. Interviews were arranged both upon appointment and by convenience. Appointment interviews were arranged by the gatekeeper, and were tailored to ensure they had the least negative impact upon the participant's work schedule. Convenience based interviews were conducted ad-hoc as the researcher worked around the work schedule of participants. Although this required a great deal of flexibility and adaptability, this was not deemed to be a limitation with the present study as Holloway (1997) argues that research size during field based qualitative research is rarely definitive, and will change as the researcher gains increased access to participants.

In most cases, interviews took place in a quiet environment in which the participant felt comfortable and could not be heard by others. Although this was not always possible. In some instances, the researcher had to be flexible and simply take steps to minimise disruption, rather than eliminate it entirely, while maintaining the confidentiality of participants responses by ensuring they could not be heard. For example, the researcher met with some participants in a sports stadium where there were no quiet or entirely private places available to conduct an interview. When this occurred, the participant was taken into the stands where the exclamations of competing athletes could be heard, but the voice of the interviewee could not be heard by anyone other than the researcher. Another common example occurred when interviews took place within a room or office that was shared or other had access to. This meant that, the interview had the potential to be, or indeed was interrupted. This resulted in breaks, or in extreme cases, complete rearrangement of some interviews until a more appropriate location was available.

In spite of these difficulties, all participants were reminded of the purpose of the research, and were given an opportunity to read both the information and consent sheets (Appendices B & C) and ask any further questions before the interview began. Participants were informed that they were under no obligation to take part in the interview, and that they could withdraw at any time. This was restated where interviews were interrupted, or had been disrupted several times. The participants were also assured of their confidentiality and reminded that the interview was not a test, so there were no right or wrong answers. Where participants agreed to these terms, they were invited to sign the consent sheet, granting permission for the researcher to digitally record the interview. Participants were further reminded of their right to withdraw, temporarily or permanently following interruption.

Once participants had agreed to be interviewed and signed the consent form, the interview began, loosely following the interview guide (Appendix D). Each interview began with introductory questions about the participant's role within the organisation. These questions were tailored based on the researcher's prior knowledge of the interviewee. The purpose of this was to ease the participant into the interview, and allow the researcher to demonstrate an element of care that would assist the development of rapport. The interview then discussed both the participant and their organisations interpretation of safeguarding. This section allowed the researcher to clarify the way in which the participant was using key terms such as 'safeguarding'. Furthermore, by asking participants to back up their points on what their organisation considers safeguarding with practical and existing examples, the researcher was able to place several subsequent questions into context with potential prompts to be used throughout the interview.

Participants were then questioned on the challenges that they face in implementing both the International Safeguards and safeguarding initiatives in general. If the interviewee had

already discussed this with the researcher outside of an interview (e.g. in a social setting), the researcher asked them to restate or elaborate on this. Questions on this matter stemmed from the entry question, “What do you (or your organisation) find are the main challenges to safeguarding children?”. Having expressed the main challenges, participants were invited to discuss some of the solutions that their organisation or they have identified and used. These solutions were discussed in relation to the organisations safety management systems, employee values, leadership or otherwise. The intention of this section was to determine examples of good practice, and potentially establish normative, pragmatic and anthropological elements of their safety culture.

The interview then moved on to discuss safety culture more explicitly. Participants were provided with a definition of safety culture and asked whether they agreed that it adequately represented the concept. Participants were then questioned on the makeup of safety culture and what they felt it consisted of, which preceded questions about the extent to which they felt their organisation had one, and its nature. Participants were also asked about what does or doesn't makes it a safety culture, and how much the values, systems and strategies previously discussed contribute to that safety culture. This included questions on whether the previously discussed safety management systems were in themselves adequate, or whether they were in need to updating, changing or being supplemented to reinforce their effectiveness. Again, more specific questions about the organisation were asked based on any prior conversations, or any pertinent observations of the researcher.

The next section discussed a key aspect of safety culture in more detail, leadership. It was recognised that questions about specific management or authority figures within the organisation were likely to be met with scepticism and participants were unlikely to criticise management

staff through fear of reprimand. Consequently, rather than asking for reflections on participants' actual leadership staff, questions in this section were more abstract. For example, participants were asked "What characteristics are important from a leader to develop and promote safety culture?". Where participants were confident to discuss their actual leadership staff, they were asked for specific examples that would help answer the question, whereas other participants offered abstract examples.

Questions then focussed on employee engagement. During this section questions focussed on how employees demonstrate engagement in safeguarding, how an organisation may encourage it and what factors may determine employee engagement in relation to safeguarding. Questions included "what do you think motivates people to be particularly mindful of safeguarding?" and "What kind of personal attitudes/personalities do you think are most influential?". Throughout these three sections, participants were also given the opportunity to disconfirm the literature on safety culture. For example, participants were asked whether they felt these factors were significant at all, and whether there were any other factors that impacted their safety culture and were worth consideration.

To end the interview on a positive and constructive note, the final aspect of the interview focussed on the participants offering evidence of the impact that they felt their organisations safeguarding had on children. Participants were invited to share any powerful anecdotes and explain why they felt it provided a demonstration of their organisations safety culture in action. This was followed by a discussion on what each participant felt was next for their organisation. This allowed the participant to think about how their organisation could progress, while crucially, it also gave the researcher further indication of what the participant perceives the ideal state and factors of an organisation with a safety culture to be. The researcher encouraged

responses by offering positive feedback and expressing verbal and physical interest and enthusiasm.

Once all questions had been answered, each participant was thanked for their involvement and the recording was ended. At this point the participant was asked if they had any questions for the researcher. The researcher also made an attempt to settle any anxiety that participants may have had about their responses by complementing one aspect of the interview. For example, as the researcher and the participant returned to their place of work, the researcher would say “I found what you were saying about very interesting.... Thank you”.

4.4.3 Conducting focus groups. All focus groups were arranged in advance by the gatekeeper. They all took place within a quiet room in which only the members of the focus group could hear participant’s responses. Upon arrival, participants were thanked for attending and as participants had never met the researcher, a significant period of time was spent introducing the researcher and the project to them. During this time, participants were asked to read the information sheet and were given the opportunity to ask any follow up questions that emerge from this. Participants were informed that they were under no obligation to take part in the focus group, and that they could withdraw at any time. The participants were also assured of their confidentiality as individuals and asked to respect the confidentiality of their peers in the focus group. Participants were reminded that the focus group was not a test, so there were no right or wrong answers. Additionally, participants of the focus groups were asked to not speak over each other and to be respectful of each other’s opinions. Once all participants had read the information sheet and signed the consent form, the focus group began and was recorded using a digital voice recorder. This was based on the focus group guide (Appendix E).

At the start of each focus group, each member introduced their job role and responsibilities. As with the interview, the purpose of this was to ease the participant into the focus group and for each person to find comfort speaking in the group. The group were then asked about the meaning of safeguarding and the things that their organisation does that may fit into this category. This allowed the researcher to clarify the way in which the participants were using key terms such as ‘safeguarding’, while assisting the researcher to place several subsequent questions into context and providing potential prompts to be used throughout the interview.

As with the individual interviews, participants were questioned on the challenges of implementing the International Safeguards and safeguarding initiatives in general. Discussions on this topic emerged from the question, “what do you think are the main challenges to safeguarding children?”. This led to a question on some of the solutions that they as an individual or as a group of employees with a similar role had come across or used. This helped to establish a shared understanding of safeguarding, the positive aspects of the organisations operation and the shared challenges.

Participants were then provided with a definition of safety culture and asked to describe the extent to which they agreed with the definition, the extent to which their organisation had one, and the facets of it. The researcher used prompts on the extent to which good leadership, effective safety management systems and employee engagement would contribute to a safety culture, and the nature of these elements. The researcher also probed participants to establish if any other aspects were deemed relevant to safety culture. Finally, as with the interviews, the focus group encouraged participants to share examples of the impact of their safeguarding work, and discuss the next steps for their organisation.

Once all questions had been answered and the discussion on next steps had settled, participants were informed that they had reached the end of the focus group. Participants were asked if they wanted to add any closing statements and then the recording was ended. Participants were then thanked for their time and asked if they wanted to ask the researcher any questions.

4.4.4 Researcher skills and techniques. Throughout the data collection process, the researcher was tasked with using various skills and techniques to enhance the effectiveness of the data collection process. One strategy in particular was empathetic neutrality. This involves a non-judgmental approach to building rapport in which the researcher is sensitive, respectful, aware and responsive to what the interviewee (Patton, 2015). The researcher used several interpersonal skills, such as those discussed by Jones, Brown and Holloway (2013); maintaining eye contact, smiling, being as receptive as possible to the participants' comments and never responding in a negative or judgemental fashion. The researcher also sought to demonstrate that the participant was receiving maximal attention. For this reason, the researcher avoided taking notes while in the interview or focus group, and engaged in attentive and responsive active listening.

As the present thesis used semi-structured interviews, it was also important that each interview had the flexibility and dexterity that allowed it to truly be an interpretive practice (Holstein & Gubrium, 2011 cited in Guba & Lincoln, 2011). Therefore, while the researcher used the interview guide for direction, the order of questions was often altered to enhance the flow of the conversation, and additional questions were asked on an ad-hoc basis to particular participants. These questions addressed matters that had been of particular interest during initial informal conversations, emerged during the interview, or questions that only particular

participants would be able to answer based on their role within the organisation. In doing so, the interview process was consistent with Robson's suggestion that questions are likely to develop as one's research is ongoing (2005).

The present thesis also prioritised the use of probes, which are techniques which encourage participants to expand upon their answer (Robson, 2002). This included a range of general probes such as asking if the participant has anything further to add, repeating their words, using periods of silence to encourage the participant to share more and offering enquiring glances (Di-Cicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Robson, 2002). Semi structured interviews and focus groups also required the targeted use of prompts. This encouraged the participant to respond by offering examples of potential answers that would be appropriate to answer a particular question (Robson, 2002). For example, the researcher may ask, "why do you think that is so important? Does it motivate people?". The present thesis derived these answers based on increasing awareness of the organisations investigated, the comments of the participants at earlier points in the interview or focus groups, and through the extensive review of literature that formed the basis of the interview guide.

4.5 Data Analysis

Qualitative data requires analysis to describe, interpret, explain and/or evaluate it (Matthews & Ross, 2010). Qualitative data analysis brings order to the data by organising, categorising and looking for relationships within the data set (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). This process can be described as an artful and scientific interpretative process which begins to make meaning of the data at the outset of data collection (Sparkes & Smith, 2014), particularly during field based research (Patton, 2010). Although this process is not a linear one, instead it is

dynamic and iterative process (Holloway & Wheeler, 2010), this can make it both complex and time consuming for researchers (Jones, Brown & Holloway, 2013).

There are a variety of methods qualitative researchers may use to analyse their data which differ on procedural grounds and their suitability to particular paradigms and data collection methods (Patton, 2010; Patton, 1990). Braun and Clarke argue that qualitative data analysis can broadly be split into those which are inexplicably tied to particular epistemological stances, such as interpretative phenomenological analysis (Smith, 2004), and those which are somewhat independent of theory and epistemology. Of those data analysis methods, arguably the most popular and most flexible is thematic analysis, this is the data analysis method chosen for the present thesis.

4.5.1 Thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79). This approach “moves beyond counting explicit words or phrases and focusses on identifying and describing both implicit and explicit ideas” (Namey, Guest, Thairu & Johnson, 2008, p.138). This is achieved by minimally organising the data set into rich and illustrative themes and interpreting various aspects of the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998). This is achieved as the analysis seeks to provide core representations of particular experiences (Holloway & Wheeler, 2010).

Thematic analysis is generally perceived to be a broad form of analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Not only can it be used as a mode of analysis in its own right, but as a basis for other forms of analysis, such as grounded theory (Ryan & Bernard, 2000, as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Braun and Clarke also outline its potential use with various epistemological positions. Consequently, its flexibility has led to thematic analysis being described as enjoying

theoretical freedom, while providing a “flexible and useful research tool which can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complicated account of data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 78).

This flexibility has also led to a criticism that this approach lacks rigor and often takes the ‘anything goes’ approach to qualitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Particularly because the approach has been poorly demarcated and lacked the explicit guidance required to be consistently conducted in a robust manner (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Attride-Stirling, 2001). Nonetheless, thematic analysis is not inherently unsophisticated or devoid of vigour (Braun & Clarke, 2006), instead it has been poorly demarcated and devoid of adequate methodological guidance, which has led to inconsistent execution of the method (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Attride-Stirling, 2001). It is further argued that the confusion surrounding thematic analysis is such that other forms of analysis, such as discourse analysis, are often in actuality thematic in nature. For this reason, in order to conduct a thematic analysis that is theoretically and methodologically sound, one must understand the demarcations of this method, and follow a clear, time-tested process of conducting thematic analysis, such as that offered by Braun and Clarke (2006). This process begins with the researcher making explicit the type of thematic analysis that they wish to conduct by answering key questions about; what constitutes a theme, the breadth of themes that will be described, whether the analysis will be inductive, deductive or concurrent, whether themes will be semantic or latent, the epistemology of the research and the research question itself. As some of these questions have been answered already throughout this chapter, the answers to these questions will not be repeated here. Instead the questions that will be answered relate to; what counts as a theme, the breadth of themes and whether they are semantic or latent themes.

What counts as a theme? A theme captures something important about the data, helping the researcher to answer the research question or address its aim (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). Although the extent to which topics within the data constitutes a theme is a matter of debate. This debate centres on the prevalence of a particular matter within the data. Ideally, a theme should be represented on a number of occasions throughout the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Nonetheless, Braun and Clarke also argue that frequency does not inherently equate to significance. Rather, significance should be determined by whether a particular matter is important in relation to the research, something that is not necessarily determined by the amount of times that it is mentioned (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Therefore, within thematic analysis, the researcher retains the power to look beyond frequency and apply their judgement to the analysis of the data in order to determine themes. This differentiates thematic analysis from other popular alternatives such as hierarchical content analysis.

The flexibility with which a theme can be determined was particularly significant for this thesis. It allowed the researcher to gain an insight into safety culture from various perspectives, without marginalising the views that were expressed least. This was particularly significant as some perspectives may have been heavily influenced by factors such as participants' their role within their organisation. For example, where participant's job roles were predominantly delivery based, participants may have focussed on the practical challenges of implementing safeguarding initiatives and safety culture. Conversely, the lower proportion of leadership staff may have focussed on the managerial implications of safety culture. In this instance, there may have been a significantly higher frequency of themes which address the issues of delivery staff. Although this higher frequency would not necessarily render the perspectives of the managerial staff less significant to the present research. For these reasons, the present thesis determined

themes by both how frequently they were expressed, and the researcher's judgement of what is significant in addressing the research aim. The frequency of occurrence was taken into account, but not presented, nor considered the determining factor of significance.

What breadth of themes will be produced? Braun and Clarke (2006) state that authors of research using thematic analysis should determine if their analysis will produce themes which are rich descriptions of the entire dataset, or detailed accounts of specific aspects of the data. This impacts the claims that can be made about the findings of the research. The research may claim to provide an overview of the predominant themes as a whole, or a detailed and illuminating account of the complexities of specific aspects. As the present thesis explored safety culture in its broad sense within the sport field, it was determined that the themes would provide rich descriptions of the data as a whole, rather than hone in on particular aspects of safety culture that have been addressed. This was not to suggest that descriptions of global themes would be lacking in detail and analysis.

Will the analysis produce semantic or latent themes? Another decision on the type of thematic analysis conducted centred on the type of themes the thesis produced. Themes can be produced at an explicit semantic level, or a latent and interpretative level (Boyatzis, 1998). Semantic themes are presented as similar to the way they were expressed within the raw data. These themes are not interpreted beyond what participants have said (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In contrast, latent themes go beyond the organisation of semantic themes and begin to analyse and group these themes in regard to their underlying ideas, assumptions and conceptualisations (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In order to obtain a deeper understanding of the data produced in this thesis, a semantic analysis was used, leading into a latent analysis. This adopted a position similar to Patton's which states that in its ideal state the analytic process should develop from

semantic themes, “where the data have simply been organised to show patterns in semantic content”, to latent themes “where there is an attempt to theorise the significance of the patterns and their broader meaning and implications” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 84; Patton, 1990).

4.5.2 Conducting thematic analysis. In order to conduct the thematic analysis, the interviews and focus group data was transcribed verbatim by the researcher. Succeeding this the researcher strictly followed the popular thematic analysis process prescribed by Braun and Clarke (2006). The first stage of Braun and Clarke's thematic analysis is the familiarisation process. At this stage the researcher must immerse themselves in the data so that they are familiar with the depth and breadth of the content. In order to do this the researcher transcribed the data, then read through the transcription several times. At this stage, notes were taken, to be considered in more detail at a later stage. Transcription is considered an excellent way to begin the familiarisation process and a key phase of the interpretative analysis of data (Bird, 2005). Therefore, care was taken to ensure that the transcript retained all verbal information in a manner that was true to its original presentation.

The second stage of the thematic analysis involves generating initial codes. Having read the transcripts and attained familiarisation with them, the researcher began to code the data. This involved the researcher manually working through printouts of each interview to determine both semantic and latent features of the data. This was conducted at least twice with each interview as the researcher developed codes inductively and deductively. This resulted in the development of a group of codes for each participatory organisation, and globally regarding the phenomenon of study, safety culture in sport.

The third stage began once all interviews had been coded and codes had been collated for each individual organisation, and aggregated for all organisations. The data was sorted in this

way to allow both an organisational and global analysis. Beginning with the individual analysis of each participating organisation, the researcher sorted through each of the codes attempting to place each code into a group with similar codes that represented a particular aspect of the data. This involved the researcher going to and from unsorted group of codes, attempting to find the best groupings. The researcher followed Braun and Clarke's suggestion that themes that do not fit anywhere may be temporarily housed in miscellaneous to be housed elsewhere later, or to be discarded (2006). Some codes were also used to develop sub-themes which provided interoperation of a smaller aspect of a main theme.

Following the development of themes, stage four involves the review and refinement of those themes. In accordance with Braun and Clarke (2006), this occurred in two phases. The first phase involved checking that the codes form a coherent pattern, or if the ordering of themes are problematic themselves. Themes were then analysed across the whole data set and with theoretical guidance, themes were evaluated for accurate reflection of the phenomenon globally. This phase also involved reviewing the data to establish if any codes may have been missed.

Once each theme had been established and reviewed, the researcher defined each theme. Braun and Clarke (2006) describe this as "identifying the essence of what each theme is about" (p. 92), as the researcher considers how that theme fits within the phenomenon of question. This required the researcher to interpret the codes, rather than merely paraphrase the data, and relied upon the notes developed in stage two as codes were initially developed. This stage also required further consideration of whether any sub-themes existed within the data.

The sixth and final stage is the presentation of the final set of findings. Within Braun and Clarke's (2006) process, the development of themes can be conducted using the graphic representation of themes in the form of a thematic map or thematic network. This is a web like

network which works as an organising principle to represent the process of initial codes to main themes. This is a way of organising a thematic analysis which facilitates the depiction of the structure of the themes, sub-themes and codes (Attride-Stirling, 2001). At this stage the researcher refined the thematic map and labelled them accordingly.

4.6 Establishing Trustworthiness

Researchers using fixed quantitative research designs traditionally seek to establish the quality of their research on the grounds of validity and reliability (Robson, 2002). Discrepancies between these types of research, and more flexible, field based, qualitative research means that it is with great difficulty that the quality of research can be assessed using these criteria (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). For example, the reliability, thus replicability that one would seek to evidence in a fixed quantitative research would not be possible within a flexible qualitative social sciences research as social life has elements which are particular to a given setting, and identical circumstances cannot be re-created (Robson, 2002). For these reasons the relevance of popular research quality measures such as reliability and validity to flexible, naturalistic qualitative research is disputed (Patton, 2015; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Robson, 2002). Some have argued against the very notion of a criteria for the assessment of qualitative research, while others have argued that common criteria should be used for both naturalistic qualitative and positivist quantitative research (Phillips & de Wet, 2017). However, the most popular position has been between these two extremes. This is the suggestion that a set of criteria which can be used to assess the quality of qualitative research can be developed based on the paradigmatic assumptions of naturalistic qualitative research (Phillips & de Wet, 2017).

Denzin and Lincoln (1989, as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) offer the most popular criteria for the assessment of naturalistic qualitative research (Schwandt, Lincoln & Guba, 2007),

proposing that qualitative research should use the parallel criteria of trustworthiness. Adapted from well-established criteria on the quality of positivistic quantitative research, this set of criteria consists of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. By offering the parallel criteria, Denzin and Lincoln (1989, as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005), propose what Schwandt (1996) describe as “standards, benchmarks and in some cases regulatory ideals that guide judgements about the quality of inquiry processes and findings” (p.22). This aims to significantly reduce the uncertainties of qualitative research, provide an analogous but unique measurement of quality, and ensure that judgements of the quality of qualitative research are not applied arbitrarily.

This approach is not without criticism, and a debate has emerged regarding the applicability and value of the parallel criteria. For example, Sparkes and Smith (2009) argue that it is philosophically contradictory to state that qualitative research is fundamentally different to quantitative research, while simultaneously judging qualitative research on criteria that is adapted from the typical assessment criteria of quantitative research. Thus, it is argued that each form of qualitative research may have its own unique assessment criteria, which may be subject to time and contextual factors. Sparkes and Smith (2009) have also argued that the flexible and unique nature of naturalistic qualitative research is such that Denzin and Lincoln’s criteria of trustworthiness (1989, as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) may actually prevent growth and the development of new approaches to qualitative research. This is because it may cause more obscure, yet insightful forms of research to be judged negatively based on a desire to maintain the ‘status quo’ on perceptions of research quality.

The argument that the parallel criteria may be limiting mainly applies to obscure and emerging forms of qualitative research. Sparkes and Smith (2009) argue that the parallel criteria

“creates problems when confronted with more unusual form[s] of research” (p. 492), such as autoethnography. Therefore, this issue is less applicable to the present thesis which used more traditional qualitative methods (i.e. focus groups & interviews). However, there is merit in the suggestion that this approach may be considered philosophically contradictory and that more suitable criteria may emerge, either in relation to naturalistic qualitative research as a whole or per individual form of inquiry. Indeed, in spite of claims that this criteria has been adapted for suitability with naturalistic qualitative research by building upon the many years of research on the rigor of positivist quantitative research, Lincoln and Guba (2007) concede that “much remains to be learned about the feasibility and utility of these parallel criteria” (p.19). Lincoln and Guba (2007) also state that the criteria offered should not necessarily be regarded as a complete set.

This raises questions over the parallel criteria’s applicability for use within this thesis. Nonetheless, it is significant to note that the parallel criteria remains the most commonly used assessment criteria for qualitative research (Schwandt, Lincoln & Guba, 2007; Phillips and de Wet, 2017). Additionally, as argued by Phillips and de Wet (2017), “developing a framework for assessing rigour in naturalistic research will probably never satisfy either positivist or constructivist purists, but that does not mean we should not work with what is currently available in the literature” (p. 105). Therefore, the present thesis acknowledges the ongoing debate, yet utilises the parallel criteria in recognition of its pertinence and in agreement that in spite of the criticisms, “there can be little doubt that they represent a substantial advance in thinking about the rigour issue” (Schwandt, Lincoln & Guba, 2007, p.19).

Establishing credibility. Credibility describes the confidence with which one can state that their findings represent elements of truth (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Pitney and Parker (2009)

describe this as “whether research findings capture what really happened” (p.62). This is a parallel term to what is traditionally understood as internal validity (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). Within the present thesis, credibility was established and enhanced through various means. One of those means was through prolonged engagement, where the researcher spends a significant portion of time with the subject of investigation in order to ascertain if their assertions may be accurate reflections (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). The present researcher visited each organisation, spent significant amounts of time understanding the way their organisation worked, and in some cases, gained experiences of the tasks that staff are required to complete. The researcher also established credibility through the sampling method used. Guba and Lincoln (1985) state that by including deviant or negative cases within an analysis, the research allows itself the opportunity to disprove findings from particular cases, though it also allows itself to uncover commonalities that may emerge from situations of great difference, which Patton (1990) states are “of particular interest and value in capturing the core experiences and central, shared aspects of a program” (p. 172).

Establishing transferability. Transferability is a parallel convention to external validity, describing the extent to which the findings of a particular study can be extrapolated and applied to other contexts (Sparkes and Smith, 2014; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to achieve this the researcher sought to use thick descriptions of each theme. This includes contextual information which assists the reader to understand the extent to which the details described may be transferred to other organisations, situations, countries and people (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Establishing dependability. Dependability “is parallel to the convention of reliability, in that it is concerned with the stability of the data over time” (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p. 242, as cited in Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Researchers can achieve dependability by leaving an audit trail

(Sparkes & Smith, 2014). The present thesis did this by keeping a full record of all activities completed during the study as suggested by Robson (2002). This included a record of interviews, field notes, the researchers journal and details of the coding process. This allows the researcher to demonstrate a logical, traceable and documented process (Sparkes & Smith, 2014).

Establishing confirmability. Confirmability is the parallel convention of objectivity. This describes the assurance that the data and interpretations of research have considered and minimised the potential impact of researcher bias (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, as cited in Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Social sciences researchers are part of the social world that they are studying, therefore they bring their own beliefs, values and experiences (Matthews & Ross, 2010). Rather than ignore or attempt to eliminate these factors, constructivist researchers seek to understand their biases that emerge from them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Patton, 2015). Wolcott (1995) recommends that researches should;

“covet your biases, display them openly, and ponder how they can help you formulate both the purposes of your investigation and how you can proceed with your investigation.

With biases firmly in place, you won’t have to pretend to complete objectivity” (p. 165).

This can best be achieved by maintaining an audit trail and by the researcher adopting a disciplined sense of reflexivity, which the present researcher did throughout the thesis. This is a process through which the researcher “considers how [they] are part of the research process and how [they] contributed to the construction of knowledge” (Gilbert, 2008, p. 512; Sparkes & Smith, 2014). Reflexive data is any data produced by the researcher with the purpose of providing insight into what they are doing, feeling or experiencing throughout the research (Matthews & Ross, 2010).

In order to achieve confirmability, the researcher identified the perspective and potential biases that they brought to the research and considered how they may impact the way they analysed, interpreted and reported the findings (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). One of the main methods that reflexive data is collected is through a research diary or journal (Jones, Brown & Holloway, 2013). Therefore, the following are the researcher's reflections, which include extracts from the researcher's journal, written at various points during the research process.

4.6.1 Reflexivity: Who am I? I identify as a Black British man with African heritage in my mid-twenties. I am also a Christian, born and raised in inner city London. I have had various experiences in sport and taken up a multitude of roles within sport. This includes roles as a young participant, a coach and as a mentor. Despite enjoying relative success as a young athlete, most of my experiences in sport are negative. Specifically, being the victim of bullying and quitting competitive sport due to an emotionally neglectful relationship with a former coach. These experiences have provided me with first-hand experience of the potential impact that breaches of child safeguarding can have on young athletes.

My moral makeup and personal experiences contribute to my passion and desire for safeguarding. They also inform a general enthusiasm to use my academic abilities to improve the lives of others. I believe this passion and enthusiasm helped me remain focussed and motivated during the research. Additionally, it helped me during the data collection period, particularly when I met other individuals who shared this passion and enthusiasm. A genuine interest and desire for safeguarding was often a crucial element in the development and maintenance of rapport. I believe this helped to relax participants as it made them confident that the researcher was likely to agree with them and share their philosophies. Nonetheless, I was also tasked with

remaining positive and not allowing my negative experiences with coaches in particular to force me to negatively prejudge the intentions and desire of coaches to safeguard young athletes.

In addition to this, my physical appearance and heritage also impacted the present thesis. Many of the participants had some resentment towards the International Safeguards on the basis that it represented a neo-colonial approach to addressing safeguarding in sport. Some participants felt that the International Safeguards may be used as a tool to force acculturation that results in developing countries having to adopt the worldviews and practices typically associated with developed western countries like England on matters such as discipline and corporal punishment. Although my presence was not to advocate for the International Safeguards, I was often the subject of this resentment. This often hindered my ability to build rapport, subsequently limiting the information some participants were willing to give me. Some participants described the International Safeguards as ‘your International Safeguards’, while one participant regularly said, “the language of the International Safeguards is so west is best”. Although in some cases, particularly in Africa and the Caribbean, I bore some resemblance to the natives, and understood particular aspects of the culture due to existing familiarity with it. In these instances, participants assumed familiarity with me and were strikingly candid about their concerns. These participants were extremely honest on the basis that my heritage would enable me to understand why ‘it doesn’t work like that here’.

4.6.2 The researcher as an insider or outsider. It is generally held that a level of engagement within the contexts that one wishes to study is useful in enhancing the researchers understanding (Robson, 2002). Although the extent to which a social sciences researcher should be involved and engaged with the participants of their study is the subject of much debate within qualitative research literature (Cui, 2015; Southgate & Shying, 2014). This debate centres on the

roles of researchers as insiders or outsiders, and the extent to which researchers should be involved or detached. Insiders should be understood as researchers who are studying groups that they have some degree of membership to (Cui, 2015). In this sense they share a broad sense of identification with the group, and are involved in its functioning (Southgate & Shying, 2014). Alternatively, outsiders should be viewed as researchers of groups with which they are not considered members of (Cui, 2015; Southgate & Shying, 2014). For these reasons outsiders are detached from the group, share little to no identification with the group and its functioning.

Amongst many of the debates on these topics, a pertinent consideration is the efficacy and ethics of adopting either style (Southgate & Shying, 2014). Many arguments have surfaced on either side of the debate, although it has also been argued that it is impossible for the researcher to be entirely one or the other during the data collection process (Naples, 1996; Spradley, 1980). Based on this, it has been suggested that researchers should strive for involved-detachment. This is the dynamic variation of involvement and detachment throughout various points of the research (Perry, Thurston & Green, 2004). My desire was to achieve this balance throughout the research, becoming involved where it assisted me to develop and maintain rapport, trust and respect, but distancing myself where I needed to be analytical and maintain my integrity and neutrality as a researcher.

The most significant issues that I had in this research project were when I became, or was at least perceived to be, either of the two extremes. An example of this was seen on one international trip where the organisation believed that my attendance with them meant that I should be conducting work, as any employee would be expected to do. Therefore, despite no prior agreement of this, I was asked to deliver coaching sessions and workshops. This is expressed with the following extract from my research journal;

“In a team meeting I was strategically asked to run a session tomorrow. By strategic I mean I never really had the option to say no. I was told that I am ‘Going to step it up as a Coach’. I’m quite confused about when I agreed to attend this trip as a coach. I don’t mind helping out as I have been, but I am also wary that this will reduce the opportunities that I have to collect data. I am not here to replace a paid member of their staff. That will limit my ability to collect data and I am wary of the impact that perceptions of me as a coach will have on my research, particularly as coaching staff are required to wear branded uniform. I am not happy with this”.

In this specific situation, I strategically avoided leading a sports session to potential participants, not least due to reservations that it may impact the participants’ perceptions of me. This strategic avoidance was deemed more appropriate than an outright refusal, which may have had serious negative impact on the rapport and professional relationship between myself and the organisation.

Other times when I became, or was perceived to be, more of an insider included social situations in which organisational members allowed themselves to speak freely and express certain controversial views. These situations include sharing working dinner with travelling members of an organisation. Highly inflammatory, offensive and disrespectful comments were often made about matters such as religion (specifically my religion), particular cultures and police brutality towards ethnic minority groups. In situations such as this, I noticed that if I expressed a particularly strong view, or challenged that of others, it may have a negative impact on the research subsequently. Therefore, I was incredibly self-conscious about my comments and responses. I practiced empathetic neutrality, making an effort to demonstrate a level of

understanding that would maintain rapport, but never openly expressing my own views on the matter through agreement or disagreement.

In the alternative, I also ran into challenges when was perceived to be an outsider. For example, when visiting one country base of one organisation, the gatekeeper was a senior member of staff from headquarters. Therefore, the perception of country base staff, who are answerable to headquarters was that I had been sent from headquarters to conduct this research. Consequently, participants were wary of me and there were reservations that I may be there to assess their work and report back to headquarters. To combat this, I presented myself as somewhat ignorant about the organisations structure. By asking participants questions about their organisation and who was answerable to who, participants were given the impression that I can't have arrived with pre-existing knowledge, seeking to test them. I also sought to use various personal skills to build trust and rapport, including positive body language, light humour, and showing a willingness to embrace the local culture. I also made an effort to get to know each individual, while presenting them as the experts, and myself as the willing and enthused student.

I experienced similar difficulties with another organisation, where staff members who had my attendance explained to them superficially, held the belief that I worked for UNICEF. For this reason, I was spoken to tentatively, and initially, some staff felt that their answers may impact their funding relationship. Or in the converse, I was treated as a conduit for complaints about the International Safeguards which were rooted in methodological, conceptual or philosophical disagreement. At times I had to make my role as a researcher explicit and clarify that "I do not work for UNICEF".

4.7 Ethical Considerations

The moral duty of researchers to ensure that their research protects its participants from harm is well documented (Jones, Brown & Holloway, 2013). Ethical considerations must be made at various points in the research, including when choosing the topic, gaining access to participants, retrieving data and writing and disseminating findings. Mason (2002) argues that the majority of these ethical considerations can be anticipated before the research begins. Therefore, prior to data collection, several ethical issues were considered. One of the most significant ethical issues considered before the commencement of data collection was the potential for the research itself to uncover or experience abuse or harm to children. The specific interest of the present thesis was such that the interview guide did not ask for participants to disclose accounts of abuse or maltreatment, although there was a potential for them to discuss this anyways, or for the researcher to witness maltreatment during visits. For this reason, within each visit, information on appropriate reporting mechanisms internally and externally were sought. Due to the varied development of safeguarding procedures globally, this was not always a formal organisation for the protection of children and may have been the wider police force. The researcher did not experience or have any cases of abuse or maltreatment disclosed, therefore these reporting mechanisms were never utilised.

Other ethical considerations that were made before data collection began. For example, the researcher considered issues such as the potential for participants to become confused between the Safeguards research project and the present thesis. For this reason, two separate information sheets were created, and plans were made to verbally provide a thorough explanation of the difference between the two forms of research. It was also anticipated that participants would require clarification that they could elect to be involved in one of the two research

projects, without any punishment or negative consequences. Though in practice, no participants asked for further information on this, and all participants were happy to be part of both studies. The researcher further considered that it would prove difficult to gain adequate consent from children globally, therefore the decision was made to only include consenting adult participants.

Before a formal application was made for ethical approval, the present thesis benefitted from an initial consultation from a representative of the Brunel University ethics committee. This consultation informed the methods of the thesis and informed the researchers application for ethical approval. This application was approved by the Brunel University Ethics Committee (Appendix F). Although the project had attained ethical clearance, ethics can be both procedural, in regard to gaining ethical approval, and practice based in regard to managing issues that may emerge during data collection (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004). For this reason, ethics were strongly considered throughout the thesis. Participants were reminded of their right to withdraw verbally and reminded that their confidentiality would be kept. Participating organisations were also given pseudonyms to ensure anonymity. While individual participants were given the right to have previous statements removed from the analysis.

4.8 Summary

This chapter has provided a methodology and an overview of the methods used in this thesis. This began by providing a detailed discussion of the constructivist research paradigm adopted. Upon taking a traditional approach to constructivist research and using a qualitative data collection method, the chapter also provided a rationale for the selection of interviews and focus groups as the specific qualitative data collection method. The chapter also included a summary of the sampling procedures, which included an explanation of the process of gaining access through gatekeepers. This was followed by the presentation of participant profiles for

each participating organisation, before providing an outline of the data collection procedure. The chapter considered the details of the data analysis process, thematic analysis, before concluding with the researcher's assertions on how trustworthiness was established in this study, along with a consideration of the salient ethical issues.

Chapter 5: Discussion of Results

The aim of this study was to conceptualise safety culture from a child safeguarding in sport perspective. After 52 units of data were collected from five organisations, data analysis was conducted using Braun and Clarke's (2006) process of thematic analysis (as discussed in 4.5.2). The first five stages involved the researcher; transcribing and familiarising themselves with each interview, generating preliminary semantic and latent codes for each interview, sorting and aggregating those codes into themes for each organisation, reviewing and refining themes across all organisations and appropriately defining each theme. Thus, it can be said that the data analysis process was conducted both within and between participating organisations. Consequently, during the sixth and final stage of Braun and Clarke's (2006) process of thematic analysis, which involved mapping themes with consideration for the most appropriate way to present them, the main concern was to negotiate enough balance between providing high-quality and detailed descriptions of each organisation, and highlighting shared patterns that are given increased significance having arrived out of heterogeneity (Patton, 1990; Sparkes & Smith, 2014; Patton, 2015).

To achieve sufficient balance between these two intentions, it was considered that this thesis may present its findings per organisation, before discussing those findings that relate to the entire data set. However, this was not deemed an efficient manner of presenting the data, particularly as many of the findings between participating organisations were thematically

similar. Thus, considering the overarching aim of conceptualising safety culture from a child safeguarding in sport perspective, this thesis elected to present findings in relation to the identified themes between all organisations. This allowed the researcher to discuss “central themes or principal outcomes that cut across a great deal of participant or program variation” (Patton, 1990, p. 172), with the view that “any common themes that emerge from great variation are of particular interest and value in capturing core experiences” (Patton, 1990, p. 172). However, it remained necessary to consider and discuss variations in the content or nature in which some themes were discussed within organisations. This allowed for the recognition of differentiation and fragmentation of views. Therefore, while presenting common themes, this thesis also included, where it was most relevant, analysis of how those themes were discussed within individual organisations, if at all.

As a result of this this data analysis process, themes were identified, grouped and presented in relation to the key influencing factors of safety culture in sport from a safeguarding perspective. Findings suggested that safety culture in sport is influenced by the presence and nature of; safety management systems, committed leadership and stakeholder engagement. These factors were identified in all five of the organisations explored, but their precise formation and application varied as they were impacted by another emergent, and mediating theme regarding safety culture in sport from a safeguarding perspective, internal and external contextual factors. These contextual factors describe surrounding elements which are not explicitly safety or safeguarding related, but were discussed as possessing the ability to set the conditions that the safety culture exists in, it’s nature and its success.

This chapter presents evidence of each identified factor of safety culture; safety management systems, committed leadership and stakeholder engagement. It presents a

framework for those internal and external contextual factors that findings suggest are mediators of them. The findings of this thesis are also presented with reference to raw data for each theme and subtheme, which can be found in appendix G. While presenting these findings, this chapter also provides the basis for the general discussion (chapter 6), which considers the relationships between these factors, and presents a conceptual model for the understanding of safety culture from a child safeguarding perspective.

5.1 Safety Management Systems

Safety Management Systems (SMS) were identified as a first order theme of safety culture. Participants argued that not only do SMSs contribute to strong and positive safety cultures, but they are crucial pillars and necessary components of any safety culture. For example, ICRC's Monitoring and Evaluation Officer said, "You need to have the systems and the policy for the culture part to happen". Similarly, ICRC's Manager of Programme Operations spoke of the importance of creating an organisational safety environment that transcends individual will to implement safeguarding practices. The Manager of Programme Operations said,

"When you have good structures in place, you can have turnover, you can have people come and go because there's a fall back. There's something that exists for them to either learn from or to use or to reference [when] needed. I mean, ideally you have really good structures and really good people, but if you have really good people and no structures you're not going to be in any position to impact things. I do think that you can have really good structures and less good people and still see a lot happening, just by virtue of the systems that would be in place to ensure that".

Within the first order theme of safety management systems, six second order themes were identified; safety policy, incentives, training, communication channels, planning and monitoring and evaluation (M&E) (as shown in Figure 4). These themes have been conceptualised as distinct components of SMSs, and are each discussed in relation to previous research throughout the following sections.

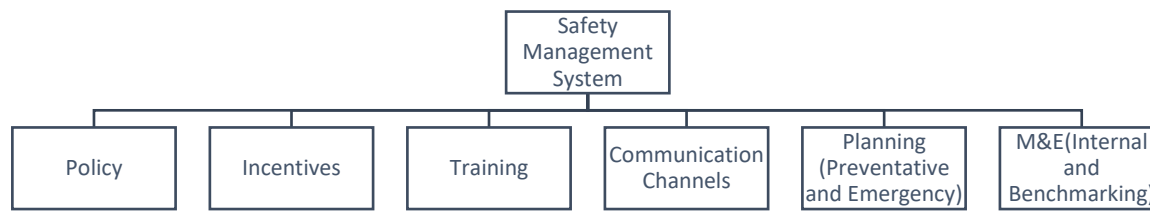


Figure 4. Second Order Themes for Safety Management Systems

5.1.1 Safeguarding policy. Safeguarding policy was described as a crucial element of the safety management system in each organisation. It was identified as a second order theme, consistent with Fernández-Muñiz and colleague’s (2007b) conceptualisation of SMSs. Although, in recognition that this policy was specific to safeguarding, rather than a generic policy on safety within the workplace, the present thesis renamed this second order theme, safeguarding policy. The importance of safeguarding policy was discussed in relation to its ability to reflect the organisations principles and set the basis for the systems and procedures that make up the SMS. Examples can be seen in the following quotes,

“The safeguarding policies and things like that have to be in place first and foremost, and then all the other things come around it” (Euro FC Safeguarding Officer)

“Everything comes from it...We made that a central point for our discussion and then built everything out from there” (ICA Founder and Global Strategist).

The safeguarding policy was also deemed important to guide the practice of deliverers of sport through behavioural guidelines and codes of conduct. A Safeguarding Officer at Euro FC said,

“It's the code of conduct. It sets standards for the club, and says what the club finds acceptable and what we don't. It's to make sure everyone's on the same page and to ensure a good standard of practice” (Euro FC Safeguarding Officer).

Additionally, it was highlighted that safeguarding policy gives the organisation's SMS legitimacy, which can motivate and positively impact partners, employees and beneficiaries such as parents and children. Speaking about external partners specifically, Kenya Girls Club's Director said,

“It means that when we are working with external partners... it really helps us to set a standard and know that they will hopefully also implement the same standards” (Kenya Girls Club Director).

Interestingly, despite highlighting its importance, many participants also warned that policy is often given a magnified sense of importance, which perpetuates the belief that simply having one makes an organisation safe. The Kenya Girls Club Director explained that while some organisations do not have a policy, those that do have one, but fail to implement it are in no better position. The Kenya Girls Club Director said, “There are many organisations that either don't have a policy, or have one but its lying somewhere in the back”. Similarly, ICA's Chief Executive Strategist said, “Some people create a policy just to create a policy and satisfy somebody's tick box”, while the ICRC Programme Manager and Focal Point expressed the view that “policy is more about [proving] the accountability of the organisation”. While the ICA Founder and Global Strategist said, “I think so many NGO's around the world have signed things and it goes into a filing cabinet, but it's not happening on the fields”.

These sceptical views are supported by findings from previous research. After exploring the introduction of safeguarding into youth sport in the UK with nine safeguarding officers, one

participant offered the almost identical view that “there’s more to it than having a policy” (Hartill & Lang, 2014, p.621). After ten semi-structured interviews with coaches and directors of sports clubs in the Netherlands, Jacobs, Smith and Knoppers (2016) also argued that sporting organisations tend to make the false assumption that the existence of a policy alone will keep children safe. This is despite a lack of evidence to substantiate this claim (Vertommen et al., 2016). Safety culture research also suggests that despite popular belief, policy is the weakest individual predictor of safety culture (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a), or in some studies, not a statistically significant determinant of the safety management system at all (e.g. Frazier, et al., 2013).

One reason for this exaggerated view of the importance of policy may be the historical tendency for safeguarding crises to be linked to the poor quality or absence of policy (Parton, 2015), and responded to with the development of codes of conduct and policies in sport (Brackenridge, 2014). The absence of causality between policy existence and SMS performance may also be a result of poor implementation, which is often contributed to by policy development being driven by fear, rather than genuine commitment to social justice or human rights (Brackenridge, 2001). Therefore, despite some evidence that safety policy is an important element of the safety management system, findings also suggest that it is necessary for expressions of the importance of safeguarding policy to be qualified in order to prevent an over-reliance on policy, which may have a counter-productive effect on the SMS and safety culture.

Regarding the ideal content of the safeguarding policy, findings were in accordance with that of Fernández-Muñiz et al., (2007b) who stated that it is paramount that the policy makes clear the organisation’s principles and values towards safety. Examples of this included statements of the organisation’s objectives, mission, commitment to safety and the scope of its

safeguarding work. However, a discrepancy was observed between participating organisations concerning the importance of safeguarding policy being specific, detailed and prescriptive in outlining the practical means to safeguarding and operationalising the organisation's principles and values towards safety. ICA and ICRC, whose work necessarily involved transnational, cross-cultural delivery, argued for the importance of broad applicability, flexibility and a policy which leaves room for contextualisation. ICRC's Safeguarding Manager said, "You find the same intention and push, but maybe it's structured slightly differently [in different countries], depending on the way the team is set up". Similarly, ICA developed a broad policy which may be contextualised by including statements in their policy such as "follow the recommended local reporting structure". The ICA Founder and Educational Strategist said that their policy was "relevant and implementable given the contexts [they] work in". Alternatively, Euro FC, Caribbean Sports Co. and Kenya Girls Club, viewed their safeguarding policy as a manifesto of their work on safeguarding, which requires clear guidelines for behaviour, codes of conduct and specific and prescriptive guidance on tasks such as risk assessment.

Organisations differed in their perceptions of the best approach to policy (discussed in more detail in 5.4), and more specifically, how prescriptive the policy should be. Consistent with Parton's (2014) supposition that the success of safeguarding initiatives are relative to the overall welfare, political and policy contexts of the specific country that the organisation is based in, each organisation's approach to policy reflected the scope and contexts of their work. International organisations, such as ICA and ICRC required more flexible policy that could be adapted to various local contexts. In these instances, a contractual obligation to adhere to the principles of the policy, and implementation guides that offer a range of possible solutions to popular issues were used. Conversely, organisations such as Kenya Girls Club and Euro FC,

whose main work occurred in the same locations, had greater awareness of their contexts and were able to be more prescriptive in forming codes of practice and guidelines for behaviour.

5.1.2 Incentives. Incentives were identified as second order themes and significant contributors to the SMS. This was consistent with previous literature from fields such as healthcare (Parker, Lawrie & Hudson, 2006), oil manufacturing (Mearns, Whitaker & Flin, 2003; Filho, 2010) and construction (Choudhury, Lang & Mohamed, 2007a). In line with the findings of Fernández-Muñiz et al., (2007b), there was agreement that the SMS must incentivise and stimulate stakeholder engagement and leadership commitment. This was discussed as especially pertinent where there is ideological opposition to safeguarding. Though participants in this study also recognised that incentives remain necessary when there is ideological agreement, as this agreement is not always translated into action.

This suggestion that action does not necessarily follow ideological agreement is one that has been noted in previous research on safeguarding in sport. After a longitudinal impact study on the launch of a Child Protection Strategy by the English FA, Brackenridge and colleagues found that stakeholders may be profiled by their voices, knowledge, feelings and actions. Though, voices, knowledge and feelings towards safeguarding were not necessarily determinative of actions (Brackenridge et al., 2005). Some explanations of this discrepancy may be negative outcome expectancies, or low individual or collective efficacy. Data from this thesis suggests however that the main reason for this may be a lack of motivation, particularly in light of other considerations, or competing responsibilities which may be treated with greater value.

For example, the Caribbean Sports Co. Director stated that in their geographic region and in the SfD field, resources are typically limited. Therefore, the motivation to develop, implement and maintain a comprehensive SMS may diminish as those within the organisation consider the

distribution of resources across the scope of the organisation's work. Another Director noted that priorities tend to go to those tasks upon which funding agreements are primarily based on. So, the Director argued that there may be a tendency to view certain elements of safeguarding as 'extra-curricular'. The Director asked, "If I am a [stakeholder] or a national governing body, why would I want to operate with [such] standards? Why would I want to have a policy in place? Especially if I am still getting funding without it...". Therefore, incentives were described as necessary, not only to convince stakeholders/organisations of the need and importance of safeguarding, but also to mobilise those stakeholders/organisations that may experience a lack of motivation to develop, implement and evaluate comprehensive SMSs.

When discussing the most commonly used incentives, findings suggested that incentives for engaging with SMSs in sport are rarely material or extrinsic. Exceptions included Euro FC, who paid financial remuneration for those who took on extra safeguarding responsibilities, and ICRC who infrequently acknowledged outstanding contributions to safeguarding children in their global online newsletters. Nonetheless, findings suggested that incentives are rarely material, and are more frequently logical or emotionally charged motivators for engaging with the SMS. In these instances, incentives ranged from those which encouraged engagement by appealing to the individuals' self-interests, to those which inspired individuals' to be more altruistic. Therefore, incentives were categorised into those which relate to; children, the individual and the organisation. This was articulated by Euro FC's Head of Safeguarding who said, "I talk about three prongs; protecting them (children), protecting you and protecting the [organisation's] reputation...in that order".

Incentives which relate to children typically attempted to appeal to the ethical and moral standing of the individual. This approach tended to involve emotive language or stories which

were value laden and promoting the idea that ‘this is the right thing to do’. An example of this approach was offered by the ICA Founder and Educational Strategist who said, “We think that [our success is] when there’s an emotional buy in from people”. Interestingly, the moral argument that ‘it is the right thing to do’ for children was not always found to be the most powerful. Instead the most powerful incentive was the most self-interested one. That is, the argument that safeguarding is in the personal interests of stakeholders and one’s reputation, job and career could be harmed if they did not follow the SMS and/or were subjected to an allegation. An example of this incentive/rationale was offered by the Caribbean Sports Co. Director who said,

“We are saying this is best practice. It not only protects the children, but also protects you the individual who may be doing something out of good intention, but ending up ... falling out of the system, because somebody makes a claim that you may have been involved in something inappropriate”.

Considering arguments that safeguarding initiatives tend to be born of (Kerr, Stirling & MacPherson, 2014), or cause a sense of fear in those who work closest to children (Piper, Garratt, Taylor, 2013), this may represent a broader climate of trepidation. Such trepidation also seemed to be heightened with Kenya Girls Club in rural Kenya as employees tended to place immense value on their job, recognising that employment and regular income is scarce.

The final incentive was the protection and furtherance of the organisation. With this rationale, it was argued that safeguarding children is favourable for the organisation’s growth and maintenance. For example, participants from Kenya Girls Club and ICRC spoke of the financial ramifications of safeguarding as it was deemed attractive to donors and potential donors who are typically from European countries. Another organisational incentive was the suggestion

that safeguarding is consistent with the overarching objectives of the organisation. Finally, safeguarding was also positioned as a necessary act to ensure the organisation's reputation is not harmed, which would have a subsequent effect on its success, and in the worst cases may result in punishment from governing bodies, funding cuts and job losses. An example of the organisational incentive was offered by a Kenya Girls Club Community Coach who said,

“Yes, it is very important for the organisation to protect the child because most of the time the children are at the field with the name of Kenya Girls Club”.

Research in sport has recognised that organisations and individuals require clear reasons/incentives to be dedicated to safeguarding (e.g. Mountjoy, Rhind, Tiivas and Leglise, 2015). Though no previous literature, in sport or otherwise, has made the explicit distinction between those incentives which are for the benefit of the individual, the child and the organisation. In addition, previous safety culture research from the healthcare (Lawrie, Parker & Hudson, 2006), oil manufacturing (Mearns, Whitaker & Flin, 2003; Filho, 2010), and construction (Choudhury, Lang & Mohamed, 2007a) industries have tended to position SMS incentives as tangible rewards. For example, bonus payments for early completion of work (Choudhry, Lang & Mohamed, 2007a). Therefore, the findings of this thesis differ from much of the safety culture research in its acknowledgement of immaterial incentives. Additionally, in its recognition of the potential to be motivated by one's own self-interests, the wellbeing of children or one's organisation, it is also distinct in comparison to the literature on safeguarding.

5.1.3 Training. Training was identified as a second order theme which comprised of training for internal (i.e. employees and volunteers) and external (i.e. partners and member organisations) stakeholders. Training was viewed as an essential component for equipping all who contribute to the safety culture by enhancing individual's knowledge and awareness of

safeguarding generally, and the organisations values, policy and protocols. ICRCs Programme Manager and Child Protection Focal Point even argued that “it’s the most important thing”. This is not surprising considering the inclusion of training in many safety culture models (e.g. Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; Makin & Winder, 2008; Frazier et al., 2013), in which it is consistently recognised as one of the most influential factors of the SMS (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; Frazier et al., 2013), and possessive of a statistically significant positive relationship with safety performance (Bottani, Monica & Vignali, 2009).

Safeguarding training was typically discussed in the form of one-day workshops with topics such as; identifying, defining and characterising maltreatment, familiarising participants with the organisation’s safeguarding policy, considering the implications of a failure to safeguard children, discussing the appropriate means of responding to safeguarding cases and in some instances, role playing responses to allegations or concerns using scenarios. While addressing these topics, it was deemed important that training goes beyond educational sessions and has a practical application. For example, a Director of Caribbean Sports Co. said,

“The split hairs with the definitions, vulnerable committees etc.... I think it’s more important that the coaches, and teachers and administrators know what’s good practice, what’s poor practice, what’s abuse, and what’s your responsibility... what do you do? Both in terms of your role and responsibility, but also critically, what do you do if there’s an incident of poor practice or of abuse”.

Participants argued that there is also a need for specialist training for those with extra responsibilities (e.g. safeguarding officers). In some cases, this involved upskilling internal stakeholders to find, train and encourage safe working relationships with partners. This was consistent with the practical implications offered from research with safeguarding officers in

sport which discussed the need for more role-specific training (Hartill & Lang, 2014). For example, the ICRC Safeguarding Manager said, “Depending on what country they’re at, they’ve engaged in other types of training like positive discipline, training for coaches and teachers, or training on safeguarding community mapping”. At Euro FC, internal stakeholders were further advised to renew their training qualifications more frequently than the mandatory 3 years’ interval, and utilised the expertise of partners such as social workers and child protection organisations for further internal training opportunities. An apprentice said, “People come up with new ideas...so it’s important to make sure you are always keeping your head fresh”.

For all organisations, training was mandatory for delivery and non-delivery based staff. This was an internal decision for most organisations, but for Euro FC this was a compliance criteria from their national governing body. Considering findings from previous research that volunteers and those with less delivery based responsibilities are often under scrutinised and undertrained in sport (Kerr, Stirling & MacPherson, 2014; Piper, Garratt & Taylor, 2013), the view that training must be mandatory may represent an example of research impacting practice and a move towards addressing a significant issue in sport. It is also credited as an effective way to positively influence the attitudes, values, beliefs and competences of all within the organisation (Christian et al., 2009), ensuring that the safety culture is sufficiently integrated throughout the organisation (Frazier et al., 2013). Although the potential benefit of this could be hindered by the absence of a standardised and well researched consensus on the ideal form and content of training.

Though commonalities of safeguarding training were present (as discussed above), except for Euro FC, organisations developed their own training programmes internally. These training programmes followed no particular framework, and included irregular assortments of the

aforementioned features. This was in the absence of a compulsion for stakeholders to partake in recognised, standardised or accredited training programmes. Additionally, it was typically a response to a lack of availability of training, or the view from senior employees that the training available was sub-standard. While advocates of this approach, who tended to be senior employees, argued that it allows organisations to tailor safeguarding training to the demands and needs of the organisation, critics, who tended to be delivery based employees, argued that without genuine standardisation, it is also possible that the quality and/or applicability of training may vary heavily from cohort to cohort. This was more likely considering findings that internal training was rarely delivered by individuals that had received quality assurance training themselves, either in safeguarding, or in the general delivery of training programmes.

Research discussing training and its benefits to the development, implementation and maintenance of safety culture does not prescribe the ideal form, content and type of training. Though it is clear that organisations should not assume training is effective and appropriate as a lack of appropriate training has been found to have a counterproductive effect and increase the likelihood of incidence, as stakeholders are given a false sense of confidence from being trained or qualified (Attwood, Khan & Veitch, 2006). Therefore, in the absence of agreement on key factors, such as the ideal content, nature and skills for deliverers of safeguarding training, and whether a tailored approach is more beneficial, there is scope for further investigation into safeguarding training in sport, and how this may facilitate safety culture in sport.

5.1.4 Communication channels. Communication channels were identified as a second order theme. Findings demonstrated concurrence with previous studies which have found that consistent, honest and bi-directional communication between leadership and stakeholders is one of the hallmarks of a positive of safety culture (Frazier, et al., 2013). Participants were also in

agreement with previous research which has found that the establishment and effective use of various communication channels allows the demonstration of leadership commitment and stakeholder engagement (Filho, 2010; O’Toole, 2002), and opportunities to influence levels of leadership commitment and stakeholder engagement (Christian et al., 2009). Participants argued that it is important to have structured and unstructured communications on the safety culture and its effectiveness. For example, a Euro FC Safeguarding Officer said,

“I think communications’ a massive thing, so people have to be willing and able to communicate. If things are going on, they know who to communicate it to, and even if it’s something that they might not think anything of, just making sure that anything at all gets communicated to the right people”.

Examples of means of communication included; staff meetings, site visits, session debriefs and conference attendance. While international organisations tended to use modern technology to engage with partners, members and internal stakeholders around the world (e.g. emails).

Discussing the regular use of Skype meetings, the ICRC Safeguarding Manager spoke of its usefulness as it allowed individuals to give feedback on the success and failures of the SMS, while also allowing leadership to discuss priorities, regardless of location, saying,

“The cross country sharing that comes out is a big piece for us. It’s all about how one country can share with another country a best practice, something that has worked, what’s not working, what are huge challenges etc., it’s instrumental”.

When considering the contributors to the various communication channels discussed, findings differed slightly from much of the safety culture literature. Communication tends to be discussed in the contexts of internal communication between and amongst employees and leadership. Statistical findings from safety culture surveys suggest that where there is fluent and

periodic communication between leadership and internal stakeholders, communication is the most statistically significant influencer of the SMS (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; Frazier et al., 2013). This is because effective communication will allow the flow of information from leadership to stakeholders ('top-down') and from stakeholders to leadership ('bottom-up'), ensuring all are given ongoing reminders and updates on the risks, policies and procedures (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). On the rare occasion that communication is discussed in relation to external parties, the focus tends to be on communication between external stakeholders like partners and member organisations who often take up roles similar to employees (e.g. Demichela, Piccinini & Romano, 2004). Findings from this study differed in its recognition of the importance of communication with lay people who are in the main considered beneficiaries, but whose actions can also impact the organisations safety performance.

Communication with beneficiaries such as parents/carers took place in the form of leaflets, digital communications, traditional community meetings, parent training days and community days. This was conducted on the basis that with greater awareness of safety issues, and how to combat and report them, communities will be better at keeping themselves and each other safe.

Participants also lauded the importance of communicating with children regarding safeguarding and their rights. The Kenya Girls Club Director put it that "children have rights and they have rights to know their rights". At this organisation, children were given various roles within the field which ranged from peer liaison officer, spiritual leader and health and wellbeing leader. In these roles children served as peer leaders in the rural communities, tasked with spreading the word on children's rights and safety, communicating on matters such as which incidents do and do not require reporting. Similarly, ICRC developed child-led advocacy groups which allowed children to prepare and deliver tailored advocacy schemes with the supervision of

adult employees and volunteers. While at Euro FC, children were included in decision making panels on safety and wellbeing.

Another advantage of involving children was the potential for standout individuals to enjoy a pathway into employment through youth leadership roles, which graduate into voluntary, and then paid coaching jobs. The organisation recognised that future volunteers and employees would have gone through a process of enculturation in which only those attitudes, values and beliefs are consistent with that of Kenya Girls Clubs are kept on. This in turn decreased their reliance on expensive, yet unreliable background checks and character references as exemplified in the following quote by the Kenya Girls Club Director,

“Many people applying to come on board as staff of Kenya Girls Club have come up through the system and we know about them. So, that really helps us to be able to determine, if this is the kind of person that we would want” (Kenya Girls Club Director).

In sport, the importance of including and educating beneficiaries has been found after a yearlong piloting phase of the International Safeguards. This global study found evidence to suggest that involving such individuals may be a fundamental pillar of the implementation of the International Safeguards (Mountjoy et al. 2015). These findings are supported by growing recognition of the significant impact that beneficiaries such as parents can have on the experiences of children in sport, from both a wellbeing and performance perspective (Knight, Little, Harwood & Goodger, 2016). Nonetheless, in spite of its potential advantages, strategies aimed at increasing the organisation’s involvement with children may actually exacerbate the risks of child maltreatment. As stakeholders’ experience increased contact and communication with children, there may be more opportunities for incidences of maltreatment. Furthermore, there may be additional opportunities for perpetrators to groom children, gaining their trust over

time, before systematically breaking down interpersonal barriers (as discussed by Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005). This is especially pertinent in instances akin to that of Kenya Girls Club, where perceptions that employees and volunteers have the power to provide children with pathways into employment, and in some cases a gateway out of poverty, may present internal stakeholders with an intense degree of power over not only the child, but their parents/carers. This is especially concerning considering previous research has consistently identified a link between the power of the coach, perceptions of their ability to lead the young athlete to success, and the willingness of parents to overlook, or facilitate maltreatment for the long-term benefit of their family (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2010; Gervis & Dunn, 2004; Stirling & Kerr, 2008).

Therefore, while findings suggest that there are advantages to communicating with and involving children, this cannot be accepted without the acknowledgement that increases in the potential for contact or communication with children may inadvertently increase their exposure to risk. Thus, caution must be applied to ensure that such initiatives do not indirectly increase the likelihood and opportunity for instances of maltreatment.

5.1.5 Planning. Planning was identified as a second order theme consisting of preventative and emergency planning strategies. Findings suggested that it is crucial for the safety culture that the organisation has various established systems and protocols which aim to minimise risk and harm before, during and after incidents. One form of preventative planning that was identified consistently was the safe recruitment of staff.

All organisations argued that it is important to adequately vet those who will have access to children, and ensure that they are ‘the right people’. The necessity to have ‘the right people in the right places’ was a constant theme throughout data collection. Organisations described the need for employees and volunteers to be heavily scrutinised before gaining access to children,

and then adequately allocated to interact with children for whom they would be most suited. This occurred through rigorous application processes, police background checks, probationary periods, mandatory standardised safeguarding training and reference checks. An ICA coach said, “they don’t just let anybody come in and work, it’s ‘can this person work with children?’, ‘are they good with people?’, that kind of thing”. It was deemed crucial that this applied to volunteers as well as paid employees.

The precise approach of vetting individuals varied heavily depending on the extent to which policies and procedures had been established and were highly respected within the contexts that the organisation works in. For example, Euro FC relied on national criminal record checks, which were esteemed and mandated by their national governing body. Conversely, when working in countries where such systems were absent, or deemed questionable in quality, organisations were required to be pragmatic and dynamic in their approach. For example, ICA relied on general police checks, while Kenya Girls Club and ICRC noted that police checks were not always reliable, thus they elected to investigate individuals by in local contexts by speaking to esteemed and trusted members of the community (also discussed in 5.4).

A consistent finding for all organisations was the need for training to follow background checks. Again, the content of training was dependent upon the internal and external contexts of the organisation. For example, as the organisation served areas which were subject to natural disasters, ICRC delivered disaster preparedness workshops as part of their safeguarding training. ICA discussed the importance of interacting with the religious leaders in highly religious, conservative countries to ensure training is consistent with religious beliefs. Finally, Euro FC’S training considered virtual maltreatment and how to manage questions and the potential presence of journalists. For most organisations, once these initial checks and processes were complete, the

individual joined the organisation and in the case of ICA, completed their probationary period. Though this was not the case for Euro FC, where it was argued that one must look beyond qualifications and experience, and assess the compatibility of the character of the children and the deliverer. The Euro FC International Football Programme Manager said,

“It’s all about meeting the needs of individual kids. You need to know the audience you’re going to have. You’re not going to put a really elite coach with a group of children who might be having their first experience of football. It doesn’t necessarily transfer because he’s the most qualified that he can actually do *that* well”.

Such preventative strategies were used in conjunction with risk assessments, site management/handover protocols and offering travel assistance to children.

In the area of emergency planning, organisations typically discussed their preparedness for cases of child maltreatment and their case management process. This may be internal and/or externally managed. For example, organisations such as Caribbean Sports Co. and ICRC engaged in community mapping for each country base to collaborate with reporting agencies for whom case management is an area of expertise. Conversely, Euro FC reported cases to external parties, but held comprehensive internal investigations in conjunction. Other strategies included working with schools to create and implement fair disciplinary procedures. A discrepancy was also observed with the approaches used to receive allegations. Organisations disagreed on how rigid reporting structures should be, with contextual factors influencing the organisation’s willingness to receive allegations in atypical fashion (e.g. verbal or using sign language). This was impacted by factors such as the level of literacy in the communities the organisation works in (discussed in more detail in 5.4.2).

The importance of emergency and preventative planning strategies has been considered in previous studies. While Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007a; 2007b) present emergency and preventative planning as a first order factor of SMSs and suggest that elements such as risk assessment and reporting structures are crucial to the SMS, Frazier et al. (2013) found little statistical value of such procedures towards the SMS, thus removing it from their final SMS model. It is possible that this discrepancy may be a result of Frazier and colleagues (Frazier et al., 2013) conflating procedures with rules, and policy. This may have reduced the overall statistical value of the factor, particularly as policy has been found to be the least significant influencer of the SMS (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). Nonetheless, in what may be a result of the initial response to safeguarding issues in sport, which focussed on the development and integration of preventative and emergency strategies such as criminal record checks, first aid, and incident reporting (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014), these findings support previous research which has found that planning and prevention work is particularly valued in sport and deemed a crucial element of effective safeguarding (Hartill & Lang, 2014).

The influential role that the contexts can have on the quality and range of the organisation's planning procedures was a key finding. The precise planning procedures and systems used and recommended by each organisation were highly dependent upon the contexts of their work, the organisation and their environment. Examples of this have been offered in previous literature, for example Rhind and colleagues stated that established national structures, like the DBS check in the UK, can be integrated to form an important part of the SMS of the organisation (Rhind et al., 2015). Though participants in this study offered further detail on the impact of context, discussing both internal and external contextual factors. Therefore, with the recognition that contexts may help or hinder the creation and effective implementation of such

structures and systems, it was deemed important that the effectiveness of safeguarding is not merely equated to the presence of preventative and emergency planning procedures, but also that they are considered, culturally sensitive and are not hindered by the internal and external contexts.

5.1.6 Monitoring and evaluation. The final second order theme of the SMS was monitoring and evaluation (M&E). This theme was most similar to the safety audits and inspections factor of Frazier et al.'s (2013) model, and Fernández-Muñiz et al.'s (2007b) control factor as it consisted of actions performed to benchmark the work of the organisation, and analyse its internal conditions. However, M&E was used as a term most applicable to the language used and understood in sport. It also drew a distinction between ongoing observations of the SMS (monitoring), and larger reviews of its applicability and effectiveness (evaluation).

Fernández-Muñiz et al., (2007a) suggest that internal analyses are most effective when they are periodic, standardised and systematic. Findings were consistent with this, as all organisations argued for the importance of both regular monitoring, and periodic evaluation which presents the basis for more significant updates and revisions of the SMS. One example of a formal means to monitor the effectiveness and application of the SMS was offered by ICRC who held quarterly meetings with Safeguarding Focal Points. In these meetings, Safeguarding Focal Points reflected on their recent experiences, offering feedback on areas that the SMS may be improved. Although most examples of means to monitor the effectiveness and applicability of the SMS were informal. These examples consistently described informal discussions between leadership and other internal stakeholders on the SMS, thus were directly impacted by the communication channels of the organisation. Findings also suggested that plentiful and effective communication channels which allowed open and honest expressions about the SMS ensured

that those tasked with M&E could take observations gleaned from regular monitoring, into larger scale evaluations of the SMS.

With regards to substantial evaluations of the SMS, differences were found in participating organisation's approaches to periodic evaluation. For example, while ICRC conducted tri-annual policy reviews, Euro FC updated their policy yearly and in response to any major concerns, while Kenya Girls' Club sought to review their safeguarding policy and procedures every two years. Despite these differences in practice, there were regular suggestions, particularly from those tasked with executing evaluations (i.e. Monitoring and Evaluation Officers), that yearly evaluations are ideal. These participants argued that regular monitoring, along with yearly evaluations would provide opportunities to be more consistently in touch with the effectiveness of the SMS. Though other participants, typically leadership staff, mentioned practicality issues, and the need to dedicate resources to the M&E of other organisational tasks. This was especially the case in the SfD field where it was expressed that a conflict tends to exist between the desire to conduct more regular and in-depth M&E work in safeguarding, and the need to evaluate other organisational tasks such as those which may justify or increase the chances for funding. Therefore, while it was agreed that policies and procedures would ideally be reviewed yearly, it was acknowledged that significant practical challenges tend to prevent this.

Regarding the content of these evaluations, the most common form of larger scale evaluations were qualitative organisation wide studies which investigated the effectiveness of the SMS and identified potential areas of improvement. Although very few organisations discussed a standardised and systematic internal review format. Exceptions included Euro FC who were subject to yearly audits from their National Football Association, and ICA who included safeguarding in their WISER model which questioned whether their programme was; workable,

impactful, self-directed, educational and results orientated, though most organisations were flexible in their approach to evaluating their SMS. It is possible that some common forms of evaluation may have gone unnoticed in this thesis as Hayhurst (2015, as cited in Kay, Mansfield & Jeanes, 2016) argues that in the global south, organisations often develop their own means of evaluation that differ greatly from typical approaches of the global north, thus are frequently dismissed by researchers and local people as not being an example of M&E. Though this may also be a reflection of the lack of global congruence on the necessary safeguarding elements and approaches, and the absence of regulation which remains in many places and types of sport (Kerr, Stirling & MacPherson, 2014; Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014).

In light of a paucity of regulation and guidance on safeguarding, benchmarking seems to have increased in significance in sport for development in particular. Organisations discussed the importance of partnering with similar organisations and leaders in safeguarding to stay up to date with global trends, and draw conclusions on the strength of their SMS. Speaking on this, the Caribbean Sports Co. Director said,

“This is a good thing about the networking. I think the sport for development network is probably one of the most generous networks with the sharing of knowledge and resources. So, we used that to develop our own policy, and then identified issues and areas for development”.

This and all other forms of M&E were deemed significant in allowing the organisation to be critically introspective, ensuring that the safeguarding work of the organisation and its stakeholders could be judged for its effectiveness, and explored for opportunities for development. Though it was also argued that while M&E may prove significant, this can only be

the case when practical recommendations emerge from it, and those recommendations are regularly and promptly acted upon by leadership, for the benefit of the SMS.

5.1.7 Summary. The present thesis found evidence to suggest that SMSs are first order factors of safety culture. Findings indicated that the key components of SMSs in sport are; safeguarding policy, incentives, training, communication channels, planning and monitoring and evaluation. Findings did not support Frazier et al.'s (2013) discovery that SMSs are the most significant influencers of the nature and quality of the safety culture. However, support was offered for the notion that comprehensive, and systematically functional SMSs can significantly strengthen and provide vital positive direction to safety culture (as argued by Bottani et al., 2009; Hsu, Lin & Chen, 2010).

These findings share some similarities with the model previously offered by Makin and Winder (2008; 2009). For example, both identify the potential significance of; policy, communication, audits and reviews. However, unlike the SMS model presented in this thesis, Makin and Winder presented components of SMS without scrutiny and rigorous empirical testing. Therefore, the many elements of SMSs offered by Makin and Winder (2008; 2009) are regarded as a list of non-exhaustive common features which may impact the SMS, rather than an exhaustive list of evidence backed factors. Subsequently, this model is dismissed as oversimplistic and lacking evidence. During data collection, it was however acknowledged that simple and easily digestible models, such as the safe place, safe person and safe systems model can provide useful heuristic tools for those stakeholders for whom it is not necessarily essential to have a comprehensive understanding of the SMS.

Similarly, findings suggested that Frazier and colleagues (Frazier et al., 2013) may have also oversimplified their model of SMSs by amalgamating key factors such as rules and training.

Indeed, the present study found that while both of these factors were significant, they did not present themselves as inextricably linked. Furthermore, the present findings were inconsistent with Frazier et al.'s (2013) omission of efforts to review and evaluate the SMS. Considering findings that in sport, M&E can set the basis for significant change in all other areas of the SMS, this is a significant omission. Particularly as many previous studies suggest that such reviews and audits are essential parts of most contemporary risk management approaches, allowing the organisation to better understand the processes being used and make recommendations for future practice (Hsu, Lin & Chen, 2010; Demichela et al., 2004; Makin & Winder, 2008).

It is possible that Frazier and colleagues' (Frazier et al., 2013) omission of monitoring and evaluation occurred as a result of the dilution of the factor into; incident reporting and analysis, safety audits and inspection and suggestions and concerns. Although these factors do not reflect, nor can they replace monitoring and evaluation as they do not necessary make reference to regular or structured introspective reviews of the organisations work as a whole. Therefore, they would present, at best, minimal insight, thus would be unlikely to be as effective in guiding the organisations safety culture and its processes. This may explain why the amalgamated factors were found to be poor contributors to the ultimate SMS in Frazier et al.'s research (2013).

Overall the structure of SMS found to be most effective and applicable to sport were most compatible with that of Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b), whose SMS model comprised of policy, incentives, training, communication, planning and control. The main differences between this model and the SMS model presented in this thesis lie in the more interpersonal nature of safeguarding children and characteristics of the sporting industry, compared to the industrial settings that such research is based on (e.g. oil and petrochemical). For example, it was

acknowledged that those who may impact the wellbeing of children in sport are more plentiful than just staff, and includes the children themselves. Therefore, factors such as training and communication become more complex, and are advantaged by the inclusion and/or targeting of both internal and external stakeholders. Another example lies in the use of incentives.

Recognising the financial limitations of most sporting organisations (particularly those in the SfD field), along with the moral, legal and professional implications of safeguarding, incentives were discussed in regard to rationales for engagement. These were grouped in terms of those incentives that relate to the individual, the child and their organisation, rather than material incentives as discussed by much of the literature.

Another consideration of the findings of this thesis was the importance placed on having a SMS that facilitates both leadership led ‘top-down’ approaches, and stakeholder led ‘bottom up’ approaches. Previous research has acknowledged that the SMS can provide a means for leadership to enhance and demonstrate their commitment to safety (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). Nonetheless it is also recognised that there is a potential for overly prescriptive and strict SMSs to strip stakeholders of the power to use their initiative and solve issues in ways they deem appropriate (Lund, 2004; Nichols & Tucker, 2000). This may rid stakeholders of a sense of achievement that can be attained from successful self-motivated engagement with the SMS (Vox & Cox, 1998), instead promoting the more extrinsically motivated and limited form of stakeholder involvement, compliance (Christian et al., 2009). In what may have been born of a recognition of this, a common feature within the present thesis was the desire for SMSs in sport to attain balance in regard to being both ‘top down’ and ‘bottom up’. When discussing safeguarding policy, a prominent view was that the policy should be less prescriptive, training was often discussed as a means of equipping stakeholders to be effective without supervision,

while communication was lauded for its importance in ensuring stakeholders can speak to leadership staff, rather than just be spoken to.

Makin and Winder (2008) have argued that highly prescriptive SMSs may struggle to be effective in environments that are more difficult to regulate and control. It is arguable that sport represents one of those environments due to the unpredictability and range of risk factors (the child, perpetrators, facilitators, the physical environment and the sport). Therefore, this preference to have both 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' SMSs may reflect the recognition in sport that both leadership and those stakeholders whose work is 'on the field' can both positively contribute to the SMS. Therefore, evidence is offered that sport is adhering to the recommendation by Theraldsen, Mearns and Knudsen (2010) to develop systems which enable stakeholders, such as staff, to discuss and recommend organisational changes. Which Hale et al., (2010) finds can in turn encourage stakeholder engagement and the contribute positively to the safety culture.

Overall, these findings have provided this thesis with the first factor of safety culture in sport, SMS. It has considered the findings of previous research, establishing that the key components of SMS in sport are; safeguarding policy, incentives, training, communication channels, planning and monitoring and evaluation. This has provided the first step towards conceptualising safety culture in sport, and the development of a conceptual model for the understanding of safety culture from a child safeguarding perspective. These findings were largely confirmatory of previous conceptualisations of SMS, though adaptations were made which represented the unique nature with which such themes apply in sport.

5.2 Stakeholder Engagement

Throughout the literature, employee engagement is consistently identified as a factor of safety culture (Cox & Cheyne, 2000; Mearns et al., 2003). Employees are viewed as the operators of the safety culture, and their enthused engagement with the safety culture can ensure the organisation attains the optimum state of safety culture (Filho et al., 2010). Findings from the present thesis were largely confirmatory of this. Participants argued that employees are important enactors of the safety culture. However, unlike in fields such as transport (Wang & Liu, 2012) and construction (Filho et al., 2010) where employees are the only significant contributors to the safety culture, participants recognised that there are many other influential enactors of the safety culture who are not necessarily employees. For example, Kenya Girls Club relied upon a large volunteer base who often had similar responsibilities as employees. Likewise, Caribbean Sports Co., ICA, Euro FC and ICRC worked with partners and member organisations who delivered their programmes and implemented their SMS, thus were influential to their safety performance and wider safety culture. Therefore, the engagement of safety culture enactors was deemed crucial, however, those enactors were called stakeholders, a broader term that is often used in sport to describe those who enact, and thus can impact, the safety culture and performance of the organisation (Rhind, Owusu-Sekyere, Hills & Kay, 2016; Mountjoy, Rhind, Tiivas & Leglise, 2015). This includes those who work or volunteer for the organisation (internal stakeholders), and those who do not work directly for the organisation but represent and enact their safety culture (e.g. partners and member organisations). Based on this, the present thesis identified stakeholder engagement as a first order theme.

The key factors that were identified were; knowledge and awareness, attitudes, values and beliefs, and motivation. With this, stakeholder engagement was identified as the result of

individuals' knowledge and awareness of safeguarding issues, along with their attitudes, values and beliefs towards safeguarding. These factors were found to combine and influence stakeholder's motivations, which were grouped into those which are intrinsic (e.g. a personal desire to protect children), or extrinsic (e.g. for the avoidance of punishment and/or to gain recognition or reward from leadership). While stakeholders may experience both types of motivation, and motivation may fluctuate over time or depending on the particular task at hand, findings suggested that the most dominant motivation type influences the stakeholder's overall safety performance type. Findings suggested that when stakeholders are predominantly intrinsically motivated, they are most likely to demonstrate a sense of personal investment and the more enthused form of participation, engagement. This was contrasted with the instance in which stakeholders are predominantly extrinsically motivated and are more likely to be minimalistic in their compliance of rules, policy and procedures. This process is demonstrated in Figure 5, and discussed in more detail in the following sections.

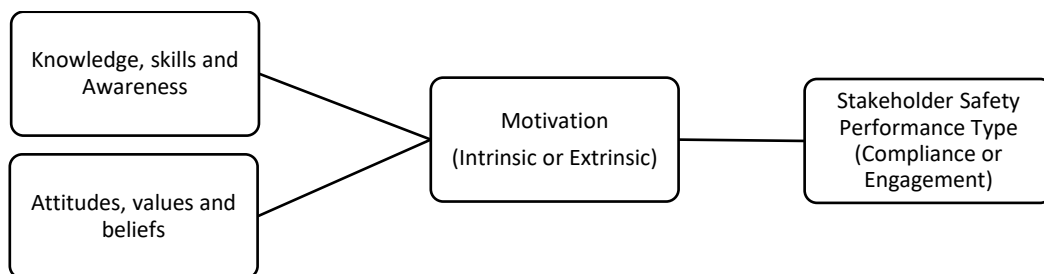


Figure 5. Process of Stakeholder Safety Performance.

5.2.1 Knowledge, skills and awareness. Safety knowledge and skills are regular components in individual safety performance research (e.g. Christian et al., 2009). Though one finding from this thesis was the importance of safety knowledge and skills being accompanied with awareness or consciousness. It was argued that the usefulness of knowledge and skills is diminished without awareness, which allows the individual to understand safeguarding beyond the abstract. For example, it was deemed important that stakeholders are knowledgeable on how

to identify, prevent and respond to cases of child maltreatment, but even more so that they conducted their core responsibilities with an increased level of consciousness to ascertain when such information was necessary to put into action. Highlighting the importance of awareness, an ICA Partner Government Official said, “[You must] raise awareness, it will make a huge impact, in my opinion, as far as adhering to children’s rights. If [coaches] are aware, they will do it”. This was consistent with the views of a Caribbean Sports Co. Partner Child Protection Officer who said, “It’s not always about the child being able to tell somebody anything. People have to be aware, as to what to see and what to look for”. This was consistent with previous research which has highlighted individuals’ conscientiousness as a crucial element of their safety performance (Griffin, Neal & Burley, 2000).

It was also apparent that the precise information that stakeholders should be aware of was highly contextual. For example, while it was argued by most that stakeholders require knowledge of what to do in response to a case of maltreatment, the details of this response were dependent upon the organisation’s approach and the contexts. Likewise, organisations argued for the importance of going beyond simplistic understandings of safeguarding to more ‘comprehensive’ knowledge, but what was considered ‘comprehensive’ was highly subjective. Therefore, while broadening awareness for Euro FC included increasing awareness on matters such as training intensity, and ensuring a balance between academy and school attendance, Kenya Girls Club stakeholders required heightened awareness of issues like female genital mutilation, forced marriage and rape. This raises questions over the level of detail than any model of safety culture can provide in this area, especially considering research backed suggestions that what is considered valuable knowledge and skills regarding child maltreatment can be highly contextual (Piper, Garratt & Taylor, 2013; Brackenridge, 2001).

5.2.2 Shared values, attitudes and beliefs. Shared values, attitudes and beliefs

represented a second order theme of stakeholder engagement. The majority of participants in this thesis argued that it is important that stakeholders place a high degree of value on safeguarding and perceive it to be an important element of the organisation's work. Across all organisations, it was said that safety culture is strongest when stakeholders perceive safeguarding as an important priority for themselves and the organisation. It was deemed crucial that this led to the recognition that everyone has a role, and the clarification of their unique responsibility in the safety culture. For example, at Euro FC, even those who had fleeting interactions with children such as the Euro FC Receptionist spoke of the need to consider their own role. The receptionist said, "I think [I have] got to watch for things...just be aware of it, monitor it and know what to do with it".

It was also deemed important for a safety culture that stakeholders hold similar beliefs on critical issues such as; what a child is, what should be considered maltreatment, and the most effective and appropriate means to address child maltreatment. In most cases perspectives on such matters were integrated throughout the organisation and were heavily influenced by the contexts that the organisation worked in. For example, Kenya Girls Club focussed overwhelmingly on safeguarding through, rather than safeguarding in or around sport. This meant that participants were conscious of issues such as rape, child labour and parental neglect, sharing beliefs that these issues were of relevance and may be addressed through sport. Conversely, Euro FC stakeholders were conscious that sports professionals were under increased scrutiny in their country and focussed on safeguarding in sport. Therefore, views on the organisation's approach and their individual roles stemmed from the central belief that their role began when the child was in their care, and ended when the child was no longer in their care.

Organisational life is rarely completely harmonious, and individuals are often juggling various tasks and responsibilities at a time (Antonssen, 2009). The potential for stakeholders to have vastly differing aims, objectives, tasks and responsibilities within a single organisation means that even when there is agreement that safeguarding is important, this does not necessarily result in agreement on which elements are most important, whether safeguarding should take precedence over other aspects of the organisations work and crucially how this should be done. This was especially evident at Euro FC where stakeholders were acutely aware of other responsibility such as those which relate to professional football and the organisation's global brand.

Where differences existed, they were likely to exist between individuals with different job roles. The most common example of this was seen between those who directly deliver to children and those who do not. In organisations, such as Euro FC, Caribbean Sports Co. and ICRC, deliverers had an emphasis on practicality and it was recognised that one potential source of conflict emerges when those with authority place unrealistic expectations on delivery staff who have a better grasp of the practical realities. Speaking on this, the ICRC Programme Manager and Safeguarding Focal Point lamented,

“those who make the policy are not the ones implementing the policy, [that's why] I think the most important [thing] is that who are using it should be part of the drafting, so it becomes realistic”.

Despite this, participants argued that differences in views were only an issue where discrepancies were major and without the shared foundation of a belief that safeguarding is important and necessary. As long as the majority of employees strongly held the desired views, participants felt that differentiation would not become an issue and new stakeholders would be

adequately enculturated. Nonetheless, considering the findings of Hartill and Lang (2014), that such discrepancies can hinder the efficiency of safeguarding initiatives in sport, it is arguable that for a positive and strong safety culture to be developed and maintained, stakeholders must deem safeguarding as *the* most important element of the organisations work, not just important.

5.3.3 Motivation. Participants recognised that a crucial mediator of stakeholder safety performance is not just the existence of motivation, but the type of motivation. Engaged stakeholders were lauded for their intrinsically motivated state, which comes from a personal desire to act, which in extreme cases was described as a personal responsibility to oneself. For example, a Caribbean Sports Co. Partner Sports Officer said,

“If I see something happening, I will not want to turn a blind eye because I’m more knowledgeable, I am more aware about this now. I would feel as though, you know, this is my responsibility and I must do this to help this child”.

Another example of this is offered at Euro FC where an Academy Coach described how such desire would ensure that the individual resists the temptation to avoid acting. When describing the qualities that engaged stakeholders have, the Academy Coach said, “Nobody would shy away from helping or observing or making a comment to people if they saw a problem arising”.

Conversely, compliant stakeholders were described as those whose negative attitude, values and beliefs, and/or poor knowledge, skills and awareness of safeguarding resulted in largely extrinsically motivated participation with the safety culture. At Kenya Girls Club, it was argued by a Coach that without “the feeling” to safeguard children, stakeholders will merely do what leadership require in order to stay out of trouble. This was similar to Community Coaches at Euro FC who conceded that some of their colleagues thought that safeguarding was “political

correctness gone mad”, but remained compliant for the avoidance of punishment and reprimand. Based on this, it was argued that the key difference between safety compliance and safety engagement is the motivations of the stakeholder, and their willingness to be proactive and use their own initiative to contribute positively to the safety culture and its performance.

Brackenridge has previously recognised that there is a vast array of reasons that individuals may be motivated to engage with safeguarding initiatives in sport (2001). As the present thesis recognised the importance of attitudes, values and beliefs, Brackenridge discussed safeguarding as an emotive topic, and a matter of morals and ethics. Though it was also recognised that external factors (e.g. contractual obligation) may also influence one’s desire to participate in safety management procedures. Building upon the work of Duquin, these motives have been split into those which emanate from an ‘ethic of care’ (e.g. morals and ethics), or a sense of ‘self-interest’ (e.g. obligation and reward) (Duquin, 1984 cited in Brackenridge, 2001).

There is a similarity between the internal/external distinction made in the present thesis. The ethic of care label describes an internally derived sense of motivation, while the self-interest label describes one’s focus on the potential benefits for the individual, which is typically extrinsic. Though it is important to note that while a genuine ethic of care would be an example of an internal motivation, it is not the only example of internal motivation. For example, one may perform safeguarding work as they enjoy it, or it provides them with a sense of accomplishment. This may override their ethical reasons for participation. Similarly, self-interest is a vague term that may be derived of internal factors (e.g. interest in the specific type of work), or external factors (e.g. reward and recognition). Therefore, the more rigorous and traditional distinction of internal and external motivation was used. Particularly as it is renowned and well backed by research (Hogg & Vaughan, 2011).

5.2.4 Initiative. The use of one's initiative was deemed the most obvious manifestation of stakeholder engagement. Stakeholder initiative was divided into two subthemes; identifying and highlighting potential safeguarding issues (being proactive), and addressing actual safeguarding issues (being reactive). Identifying and highlighting potential safeguarding issues described individuals demonstrably taking ownership by making unprovoked efforts to improve the safety performance of the organisation. The most common example of this was offering support to colleagues in the planning, delivery and review of projects and programmes for which the individual may or may not be deemed responsible. Speaking on the proactivity of staff, the Euro FC Head of Safeguarding said,

“Those examples of people coming to me and saying, ‘we are doing this, what do you think’? For me that’s commitment. It means that the staff get their position in working together for the club”.

For organisations who rarely interacted with children directly, this tended to be demonstrated altruistically by offering guidance on the structure or execution of the SMS of their organisation, partners or members.

Addressing actual safeguarding issues described individuals' willingness to deal with issues as they arise to mitigate or stop their negative effects entirely. These actions are not provoked by external factors such as the instructions of leadership, but by an intrinsic motivation to act. Findings suggested that the main way individuals demonstrate this are responding to signs of maltreatment and taking responsibility for safeguarding cases. This includes, but is not necessarily limited to; first-response counselling, guidance and assistance in the incident reporting process, following up on reported cases and offering ongoing support to victims. Another example was to challenge the poor practice of their colleagues, partners or members.

This included situations in which the individual may have contravened the safeguarding policy directly, or merely its spirit. An example of this was offered by a Caribbean Sports Co. Partner Sports Officer,

“There was an incident, I went to a game final of the volleyball tournament. The bus driver transported students at the end of the game and had one of the young girls in a real tough embrace. I had to call him, I said to him ‘That is not something you should be doing!’”.

Participants expressed the potential for conflict when correcting colleagues, and recognised the need for this to be enacted with caution and considered timing. Though they also acknowledged that it both shows the strength and positive nature of the safety culture, while ensuring that it is maintained through the ongoing promotion of the safety culture to other stakeholders.

5.2.5 Summary. The present thesis has found evidence to suggest that stakeholder engagement is a first order factor of safety culture in sport. Findings suggest that individual’s safeguarding knowledge, skills and awareness, interacts with their attitude, values and beliefs in relation to safeguarding children in sport to influence their motivations. These motivations may be predominantly internal or external, with findings suggesting that internal motivation tends to lead to a more enthused, personally responsible and proactive form of individual safety performance, engagement. Conversely it was argued that those who are predominantly externally motivated tend to display the more reactive, minimalistic and self-protective form of individual performance, compliance.

Based on these findings a Process of Stakeholder Safety Performance model is produced. This is similar to the Integrated Model of Workplace Safety offered by Christian et al (2009), as it considers the pre-existing knowledge and skills of individuals and differentiates safety

performance from that which is minimalistic and less proactive, and that which is more enthused and proactive. Though unlike the Integrated Model of Workplace Safety, the process model presented in this thesis does not explicitly mention those distal situation (e.g. safety climate and leadership) and person (e.g. personality) related factors that Christian and colleagues suggest are the basis of motivation, knowledge and skills. Though this is not indicative of a lack of consideration of them. Indeed, participants did highlight the potential for such matters to influence them (as also discussed in 5.1.2). Though the situation and person related elements of individual safety performance that were noted in this thesis went beyond the four mentioned by Christian et al., (2009) (i.e. organisational safety climate, leadership, personality characteristics and job attitudes). The potential mediators of knowledge, skills, awareness, attitudes, values and beliefs recognised the unique nature of safeguarding children, in the diverse domain of sport, while also considering the impact of the broader context. For example, the present thesis considered individual's values, attitudes and beliefs regarding both child maltreatment in the abstract and their organisation's approach, rather than simply and narrowly in relation to their specific job requirements. Similarly, climate was discussed as relevant and potentially influential, though findings suggested that this extends beyond just the organisational climate into the national, cultural, regional and potentially global climate. Therefore, in recognition of the diversity and vast array of matters that may impact individual's knowledge, skills, awareness, attitudes, values and beliefs, unlike Christian et al., (2009), no exhaustive list of such 'distal' factors were presented.

Overall these findings demonstrate the importance of stakeholder engagement for the development and maintenance of strong and positive safety culture in sport. They offer support for the notion that safety culture can be assessed by the extent to which stakeholders take

demonstrable personal responsibility (Frazier et al., 2013). They also offer support for the use of ‘stakeholders’ as a broader term over ‘employees’ in order to encapsulate the vast array of safety culture enactors whose engagement is crucial to its success. The stakeholder engagement factor has provided the second element of a safety culture in sport conceptualisation.

5.3 Leadership Commitment

Leadership commitment was identified as a first order theme. Findings from the present thesis were confirmatory of previous research in a variety of fields which highlight the commitment of leadership as a crucial factor of safety culture (e.g. Fernández-Muñoz et al., 2007a; Wamuziri, 2013; Zohar, 2003), including sport (e.g. Hartill & Lang, 2014). Also, consistent with previous research was the argument that commitment should not be assumed by policies or words, but must be demonstrated (Parker, Lawrie & Hudson, 2006). Participants, delivery based stakeholders in particular, were entirely uniform in their assertions that commitment must be translated into daily experiences, reflected in the awareness, concern and conviction of the organisations leadership.

Speaking on the importance of demonstrably committed leadership, an ICA Founder and Educational Strategist said, “[what has] contributed to [our safety culture] is a total commitment to the concept of safeguarding through children’s rights...we recognise that and then we see how we can translate it into action”. Similarly, an ICA Coach said, “I think it’s up to the boss...do you have a passion for it, and if you do then [we] will stick by it”. The ICA Chief Executive Strategist argued that this commitment should not be merely self-protective or self-interested. The chief executive strategist said,

“I can’t tell you the number of times I’ve done background checks, signed pieces of paper to do a talk or to go visit some other clubs training practice...but that’s it...there’s zero commitment. It’s basically that they’re covering their own ****”.

The importance of leadership commitment was discussed mainly in relation to its ability to greatly impact the work of stakeholders and the SMS itself, though this presented itself in a unique manner. Findings suggested that an element of all of the 9 key responsibilities identified in Wu et al.'s (2010) original safety leadership framework were important for the development and maintenance of safety culture. This was however inconsistent with the findings of their stepwise regression which identified only safety informing by operational managers, safety caring by employers and both safety co-ordination and regulation by safety professionals as significant contributors to safety culture. The present thesis’ congruence with the original framework, and not the framework offered following the stepwise regression, can be clarified by the following two explanations.

The first relates to the frameworks applicability to sport. Due to the great diversity in organisational size, type, mission and leadership structures in sport, the distinction between employers, operators/middle management and safety professionals was not always existent. Not all organisations were large or wealthy enough to have a leadership structure with such paid staff. Even where this structure did exist (e.g. Euro FC), differences in responsibilities meant that this framework was not entirely accurate or applicable. For example, in instances where individuals took on a variety of roles. Secondly, many of the responsibilities in the original framework had a large overlap and could equally fit in more than one of the key responsibilities of the framework. For example, where an individual discussed their impact on the policy and procedure of the organisation, it was difficult to know where to place such responsibilities as

safety controlling was defined by one's ability to set rules, safety decision making involved improving safety strategies, while safety co-ordination involved policy development.

Therefore, the key responsibilities of leadership were amalgamated. Their relationship to job titles were also removed to represent the variety of tasks and responsibilities of leadership staff in sport, and a new configuration was developed by grouping similar responsibilities. Based on this, two second order themes emerged; stakeholder leadership and SMS leadership. Stakeholder leadership described the mentoring and personal development through which leadership sought to build the capacities of stakeholders and increase their motivation and ultimate safety performance. SMS leadership described the actions taken by leadership to prepare, implement/oversee and develop the safety management system (as seen in Table 13).

It is important to note that findings suggested agreement with Wu et al.'s (2010) assertion that the impact that one may have on the safety culture is relative to one's level of power within the organisation. Within sport, those with the highest level of authority, (e.g., directors, sports owners and founders) had the most impact on the organisations safety culture. For example, with ICRC, a chain of responsibility was developed which meant that even the Programme Manager, who was largely influential locally, was impacted by the commitment of the global staff at headquarters. Speaking on this, the ICRC Safeguarding Manager said,

“There's certain levels of influence that someone at senior level can contribute to effective change. They also have a role in decision making that can affect the global organisation, the country [base] and a culture of staff members. If they're saying this is a key priority, then it also becomes a key priority of the practices within the team. We see that with our country managers and safeguarding focal points, [the ones that] have had a big push, and that has a big effect. So, leadership is key”.

Table 13.

Leadership Commitment Findings

| Theme | Definition | Constituents of Wu et al.'s (2010) framework |
|------------------------|--|--|
| Stakeholder Leadership | Efforts to build the motivation, capacity and ultimate safety performance of stakeholders through coaching, mentoring and counselling. | Safety caring – Build positive relationships built on trust and open interactions. |
| | | Safety coaching – role model, stimulate ideas, allow them to participate in decision making. |
| | | Safety interaction – offering directions, guidance and advice by acting as a figurehead, a leader and a main source of communication. |
| | | Safety expert – provide expert safety counselling on organisational safety performance. |
| | | Safety informing - monitoring, disseminating, representing the department (making suggestions based on bottom up and top down approaches). |
| SMS leadership | Actions taken by leadership to prepare, implement/oversee and develop the safety management system | Safety controlling – set rules and exert power to reward or punish. |
| | | Safety informing - monitoring, disseminating, representing the department (making suggestions based on bottom up and top down). |
| | | Safety decision making – the planning, resource allocation, implementation and general improvement of safety strategies. |
| | | Safety co-ordination – policy development, information management and communication. |
| | | Safety regulation – visibility/inspection, audit and incentive systems (requires the conformity of mid-level management and employers). |

Though it must also be noted that in some cases, power and influence was not necessarily represented in clear bureaucratic structures. For example, an informal chain of influence was

identified amongst board members at ICA which was based on the familial structures, rather than organisational structures.

5.3.1 Stakeholder leadership. Stakeholder leadership as an encompassing grouping of leadership themes which describe various efforts to build the motivation, capacity and ultimate safety performance of stakeholders through coaching, mentoring and counselling. This theme reflected the importance of investing in people to ensure the workforce has sufficient levels of competence, knowledge, motivation and commitment (Blair, 2013; Wu et al., 2010). It also represented two of the four areas of responsibility for safety leadership as found in a survey with over 200 offshore oil managers in the UK; visibility and relationships (O’Dea & Flin, 2001).

Participants recognised that leaders must negotiate a complex position which allows them to interact and be somewhat familiar with stakeholders, while not becoming overfamiliar and losing respect. Successfully negotiating this balance would allow leadership staff to serve as advocates within the organisation, and substantiate this with advice and guidance on how stakeholders may improve their performance. At ICRC, this was especially evident. Employees such as training officers discussed this ongoing guidance as more important than training. The monitoring and evaluation officer said,

“We have a debrief process where we talk about successes, challenges and next steps. I think this is an important process in which the [leader] can give feedback. [For example,]

“I noticed that you were saying this, you know maybe you could try saying it in a different way next time. What effect do you think you had when you did this thing?”.

Similarly, the ICRC Safeguarding Manager spoke of the importance of leadership interacting with stakeholders and demonstrating their commitment by advocating for the safety culture. The ICRC Safeguarding Manager said,

“If you look, sort of, more at the concept of leader as in, you know, who’s Senior Director, CEO, [inaudible] aspects I think as well, what’s really important, that they’re strong advocates for child safeguarding interaction, because that pushes everyone behind them”.

According to participants, the success of stakeholder leadership can be largely determined by the extent to which leadership has a presence and is approachable. At Euro FC, the following quotes were made by the Head of Safeguarding regarding the importance of presence,

“It’s about presence. I’ve managed that challenge by it not just being me. I pay people to be the eyes and ears; to be the face of safeguarding across the club” (Head of Safeguarding)

“It’s about being visible. So, I have a desk at the academy and I have a desk upstairs here. So, people know where I am...they know where to come if they've got a problem” (Head of Safeguarding).

Meanwhile, stakeholders at Euro FC also spoke of the importance of presence being paired with an attitude of approachability.

“***** is really approachable, he knows everybody personally, so if you've got a problem, you know you can just ring him” (Community Coach)

“It’s being able to be approachable to somebody, to be able to go up to somebody and not being frightened” (Receptionist).

Findings suggested that the larger the organisation, the more difficult it is for leadership to have such presence. Findings also suggested more difficulty for organisations whose delivery work is carried out through partners or member organisations. Although one strategy which was used

was to utilise ambassadors and strategically place them throughout the organisation. At ICA, a Partner Government Official said,

“You have role models. It could be mentors, it could be counsellors. People at the top, people at the bottom they come down, they come up and then if you do that you will reach a critical mass”.

Despite the importance of being approachable and having presence, as stated, it was also deemed important that leadership do not become overfamiliar. Participants warned that leadership staff must be willing to pass judgement and potentially disrupt friendly relationships, while not being swayed by their personal feelings towards individuals. This is to ensure leadership staff fulfil other crucial roles, such as to critique, offer feedback on stakeholder’s work, inform people of potentially unpopular decisions (which may be directed by those more senior), or to reprimand. The Euro FC Head of Safeguarding said,

“You want people to come and talk to you, but [they fear because] potentially, they do so at a risk... I have to make some criticism of [people] and their processes. That is difficult and has to be handled in a very sensitive way... I don't think you can ever say ‘no you won't get into bother’. If you do uncover there to be a problem, then nobody can escape, certainly from me”.

Many participants recognised that the willingness of leadership to be unwavering in their objective assessments of stakeholder performance can create a state of anxiety. Interestingly, a discrepancy was found between perceptions of the usefulness of this fear and anxiety. At Kenya Girls Club, it was recognised that this fear may actually serve as a useful motivator for staff. For example, the director acknowledged that “[Stakeholders] know that if it comes back to the office that they didn’t...there are consequences”. However, at Caribbean Sports Co. it was deemed

important for leadership to minimise this sense of fear in stakeholders. A director and founder said,

“When these things are presented it generates concern from people who think ‘How is it possible? How can we adhere to that?’, but the dialogue [we have] leads to understanding the intent, which often leads us to.... this is not to make life difficult for you”.

It may be the case that the effectiveness of such contrasting leadership approaches is determined by the contexts and the personalities of stakeholders who can become demotivated by anxiety and low self-efficacy, or encouraged in the knowledge that they will be punished as a result of failure or misbehaviour. Although based on the findings presented earlier regarding employee engagement, it can be said that an approach which relies solely upon exploiting the fear and anxiety of stakeholders is likely to be less effective as it is likely to create predominantly extrinsic motivation, which is likely to lead to compliance, rather than engagement. This may explain why despite discussing the usefulness of fear and anxiety, the Kenya Girls Club Director also said,

“I want that staff member or that coach, whose role it is to implement the policy, to think about it and to implement it even without oversight. I won’t do that just by threatening them with losing their job. I’ll do that [best] if I inspire them to believe that it’s really important”.

5.3.2 SMS leadership. SMS leadership emerged as the second theme of committed leadership. Participants argued that leadership must personally get involved and oversee the SMS to ensure its effectiveness in a strong and positive safety culture. Therefore, SMS leadership described the actions taken by leadership to prepare, implement/oversee and develop the safety management system. This was exemplified by the following quotes from Kenya Girls Club

where the director said, “my role is mainly to provide oversight and to provide support for implementation, and also to drive the future in terms of looking at vision and plans”, and the monitoring and evaluation officer said,

“It’s everyone’s responsibility, but it’s [especially] the responsibility of those who are in management or who are the ones designing and implementing the programmes to create an environment where all adults and children are held responsible and also given direction on how to implement the child safeguarding system”.

Preparation of the SMS described the actions taken to ensure that the SMS has the potential to be a success. At the most basic level, this can describe the development of a safeguarding policy which puts into place the foundation of a SMS. For example, at Caribbean Sports Co. the directors introduced the concept of safeguarding to the organisation and engaged in a process of building a SMS which ensured that stakeholders had the necessary tools and environments to achieve the safety performance to which the organisation aspired. Exemplifying this, the Caribbean Sports Co. Co-founder said,

“We [the directors] recognised that just enhancing the capacity of individuals is kind of limited because they struggle when they go back into a system without support. So, in addition to the programme, capacity building and providing support for those people who deliver programmes, we started including resources, M&E tools and all of that”.

Participants argued that the most significant way that leadership could demonstrate their commitment was to ‘put their money where their mouths are’ and ensure that the SMS is stocked with the necessary resources to be successful. At Caribbean Sports Co., a director identified this as a key component of their safety responsibilities saying, “our role to a large extent is really about resourcing”. The Euro FC Head of Safeguarding clarified that although this tended to

involve money, resourcing could also include more staff, time or physical resources. The Euro FC Head of Safeguarding said,

“They allow me to have a paid structure of designated safeguarding officers working for me, they are full-time staff who have other jobs but do additional work for me. The club takes very seriously and provides resources and gives me the support that I need. It also gives me free rein to move about the organisation and say ‘Right...what do we think this...what we think of that’.

Similarly, an ICA Founder and Global Strategist said, “there is cost to a number of these points and I think that’s a real issue when you’re asking for certain things to happen...the costs, and it’s not necessarily financial costs”. These sentiments were echoed at ICRC where the monitoring and evaluation officer said, “we [fund] a safeguarding manager position. The existence of such a position reminds us that there is a need for safeguarding”. Similarly, the ICRC Safeguarding Manager said,

“When you have focused time and energy, and you have the budget, you see continuous growth. We’ve seen that where countries have been able to focus more to strengthen over time. [Then] we really see those best practices that come out and those lessons learned”.

While other methods were discussed, such as presenting consistency between organisational identity and safeguarding, this was deemed the most influential. Additionally, a ICA Partner Government Official went as far as to say, “I think it needs a proper plan, proper planning and proper resource allocation. If [leaders] don’t invest, don’t expect results”. These expressions of the need for resources merely echo the views of safeguarding officers in the UK after Hartill and Lang (2014) found that staff are often concerned by a lack of resources made available by the leadership and governing authorities.

Leaders could also demonstrate their commitment by overseeing the implementation of the SMS. Findings suggested that precisely what actions this includes may depend upon the structure, size and type of the organisation. For example, at Euro FC, the most senior management had little to no involvement in the day-to-day running of the SMS and responsibility of this was given to middle management in the form of the Head of Safeguarding. In smaller organisations, such as Caribbean Sports Co. and ICA, the leadership were heavily involved in the implementation of the SMS. Examples included using their influence to embed the SMS in all areas of the organisations work, being actively involved in managing cases and allegations and taking steps to maintaining high standards throughout.

Within this thesis, maintaining high standards was described as those actions performed for the purposes of maintaining or enhancing the quality of safety performance. This was often given precedence and included examples such as; utilising the various rationales and incentives of their organisation, providing consequences for absconding behaviour and ensuring that due diligence is conducted, and that people adhere to the specified protocols. It was argued that standards can also be maintained as leadership manage the competing values that the organisation may place on stakeholders (e.g. increase or maintain revenue & innovate) which may impede upon the safety of children. As found by Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007b), leadership must have low tolerance of failure to comply with safety norms or safety principles, and leadership will exemplify their low tolerance when tested against other competing values and responsibilities. Frazier et al (2013) also suggested that leadership should seek to minimise the level of pressure placed on stakeholders to prioritise other goals, as this may tempt them to compromise in regard to safety.

One example of leadership ensuring compliance was with session attendance and timings at Kenya Girls Club. Though Kenya Girls Club were eager to have consistently well attended sessions and maximise their engagement time with children, it was also necessary to consider the poor lighting and transport system. Therefore, as a direct order from the Director, sessions were banned from continuing after 3pm to ensure all children could return home before sunset.

Speaking on the difficulty of managing competing values the Director of Kenya Girls Club said,

“Part of the challenge within the organisation is the fact that it impacts sometimes negatively on the plans and projects that we might have. I’m having to turn away good ideas. Staff think, ‘oh, it would be so nice if we could easily do this’, but then that’s against the child protection policy and we’re like, ‘oh, yes...’. The officer is looking at you going ‘What!? I just came up with a brilliant idea and you are just going to blow it off?’. But once something, has been put on the table and we find that its implementation would go against the policy, that’s it... it’s a closed question”.

This responsibility also required consideration of the partners and member organisations with whom they worked. Participants identified a need to ensure that partners adequately respected the SMS and where necessary, undertook their role of ‘contractor’ or deliverer without compromising the safety of children. Participants at organisations where this was applicable, e.g. Caribbean Sports Co., ICA and ICRC discussed the need for leadership staff to address issues before and during partnering relationships by developing a communication chain and identifying roles and responsibilities early in the relationship.

The final element of SMS leadership was the ongoing development of the SMS. Regardless of whether leadership are responsible for monitoring and evaluation, findings suggested that leadership can have a key role in ensuring that the suggestions for future

development, which may alter fundamental aspects of the organisations work, are actioned. This is because leaders tend to possess the power to make the most meaningful changes to the policy, procedures and systems of the organisation.

5.3.3 Summary. There are no frameworks in sport which expressly discuss leadership's responsibility to lead the SMS and stakeholders respectively. Though the importance of these individual tasks has been discussed in previous safety culture literature in other fields. Regarding SMS leadership, research suggests that effective leadership can be identified by actions which relate to the systematic functioning of the organisations safety culture such as regulation, decision making and co-ordination (Wu et al., 2010). Research has also discovered a direct, positive and statistically significant relationship between stakeholders' perceptions of the overall commitment of leadership and their influence on the SMS (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; 2007b).

Concerning stakeholder leadership, a recent behavioural assessment study in the healthcare industry found that the safety performance of senior nurses improved, and staff were more inclined to report events when leadership communication, visibility and access increased (O'Connor & Carlson, 2016). Similarly, Blair (2013 cited in Wu et al., 2010) states that it is crucial that leadership staff educate and contribute to the development of stakeholders for the benefit of the organisations safety performance. Additionally, where leaders are experts of safety, or at least more knowledgeable of the organisations approach, research also suggests that their enthused advocacy can lead to significant developments in stakeholder knowledge and skill (Blair, 2013; Wu et al., 2010). This may explain Christian and colleague's findings of a relationship between leadership and workforce attitudes and safety performance in a variety of fields (Christian et al., 2009).

As stated at various points throughout this thesis, the topic of safeguarding children is not a simple one, and even those who have a basic level agreement that it is necessary to protect children may disagree on various other grounds. Rhind and colleagues (et al., 2017) have discussed this in sport, highlighting the need for cultural sensitivity. Though successful leadership may include, but also go beyond this into people management. Particularly as the views spouted by leadership may strongly contradict the deeply held values of stakeholders in sport. Or, as argued by Brackenridge and Rhind (2014), they may be “undermined and challenged by those whose vested interests construct and preserve the status quo” (p. 334). Therefore, it is arguable that the need for leaders to be considered and sensitive in their leadership of individuals and the SMS is even more pertinent in sport and in relation to the potentially controversial topic of safeguarding.

With this consideration, these findings offer evidence of the significance of leader’s commitment for the development and maintenance of strong and positive safety culture in sport. Findings suggested that the commitment of leadership should not be assumed by words, but by actions and their leadership of stakeholders and the SMS. With this, stakeholder leadership and SMS leadership were identified as second order themes and the importance of leadership commitment was discussed mainly in relation to its ability to greatly impact the work of stakeholders and the SMS. Each second order theme was discussed in detail, with examples and analysis offered on its application to sport. Overall, this factor has provided evidence of the third element of a safety culture in sport conceptualisation.

5.4 Contextual Factors

Contextual factors are surrounding elements which are associated with and may impact particular phenomena (Cappelli & Sherer, 1991; Johns, 2001). Throughout this study various

contextual factors emerged, displaying an ability to set the circumstances that the safety culture exists in, it's nature and its success, despite not being specifically related to safety. Speaking on the importance of context, at Caribbean Sports Co. a partner Child Protection Officer said, “[it’s] always important, the context! You can tell kids things, you can tell teachers things, but you always have to think about the context”. While at Kenya Girls Club, a District Co-ordinator said, “we have various things in a society which affect and impact the implementation of safeguarding”. This was not entirely unexpected as context has previously been acknowledged by Cooper (2000) who says, “safety culture does not operate in a vacuum: it affects, and in turn is affected by, other non-safety-related operational processes or organisational systems” (p.113). Additionally, Brackenridge has discussed matters such as the use of the term ‘child’, social norms and political systems as potentially impacting the nature and quality of safeguarding (Brackenridge, 2001).

Findings from this study suggested that the contextual factors that impact safety culture are highly diverse in nature. They were categorised into those which emanated from the participating organisation, and those which did not. This was in line with the popular conceptualisation offered by Armenkis and Bedein (1999) who suggested that internal contextual factors include matters such as; the organisations level of speciality, strategy, resources, overall organisational culture and organisational structure. Conversely, external contextual factors described matters such as; the national political, economic and social contexts (Pettigrew, 1987). An overview is presented in Table 14.

Table 14.

Contextual Factors Overview

| Internal Contextual Factors | External Contextual factors |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|

| | |
|--------------------------|--|
| Resources | Local Culture (Safety and non safety-specific social norms & policies, systems and frameworks) |
| Organisational Mission | Safety Climate |
| Organisational Structure | Poverty (II)literacy |

5.4.1 Internal contextual factors. Identified contextual factors included resources, organisational structure and organisational mission. For example, Euro FC acknowledged that the significant financial and human resources that they possessed allowed them to hire a dedicated team of safeguarding officers and strategically situate them around the organisation. The inverse was seen with Caribbean Sports Co. who stated that a lack of resources often resulted in inadequate safety equipment for partner sports clubs who played sports such as Cricket and Baseball. A Sports Club Owner said, “We find our children do not always have the necessary equipment...these are some of the things that are greater in our country...playing without the proper protection”.

Organisational structure and mission were also acknowledged as contextual factors as they impacted the nature of the safety culture, particularly how fragmented it may be. For example, with ICRCs country base model, each country base had a slightly different SMS, which meant that their safety culture was not entirely integrated, but had some differentiation. Additionally, it was recognised that an organisation’s mission may help or hinder the safety culture by presenting a main objective that is either entirely compatible with safeguarding (e.g. child rights promotion), or creates a conflict (e.g. a focus on sporting performance). The potential for the organisational mission to create a conflict with the actual or desired safety culture was described in instances whereby safeguarding may be seen as taking resources away from those superordinate organisational goals, or hindering the creativity, thus progression of the

organisation. This finding may explain why Cooper (2000) has argued that unless safety is the dominating characteristic of the organisation's culture, which includes and considers its structure and mission, a safety culture cannot be present.

5.4.2 External contextual factors. One of the main external contextual factors identified was the local culture. This described the dominant attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviours of particular localities and communities. Throughout the analysis, it was considered that this may be the national or regional culture (as discussed by van Oudenhoven, 2001), though such cultural influences were not always attributed to these specific geographical distinctions. Therefore, the generic term 'local' was used to indicate its potential to be based on localities such as; district, nation, region or continent. At ICRC, the Regional Training Officer said, "We have to take into account that there's a bigger culture, and that is in the home, which also inevitably translates to the community". This 'bigger culture' included anthropological, normative and pragmatic cultural elements which impacted organisational safety culture. Examples of how the local culture impacted organisational culture was offered with; social norms (non safety-specific and safety-specific) and policies, systems and frameworks.

The non safety-specific social norms described cultural elements which do not directly pertain to safety, but may still have an impact on the effectiveness of organisational safety culture by impacting the typical behaviours, attitudes, beliefs and values of individuals within such societies, including the stakeholders who work for the organisation. Examples included; the concept of family, privacy, and perceptions of the rights and appropriateness of state intervention. This impacted individuals' understandings of maltreatment, willingness to investigate potential cases of maltreatment, and ideas of appropriate means of doing so. For example, an ICRC Training Officer said, "I would say with our culture, it's quite closed, so it's

not opened up like the Western culture. We're quite closed". This was said to potentially hinder the likelihood of survivors making allegations about their experiences. Conversely, when discussing North America, various senior staff from ICA discussed the frequency of disputes ending in litigation as a motive behind many organisations developing safeguarding policies, rather than a genuine interest in protecting children from harm. This was said to result in minimalistic safeguarding and the absence of strong and positive safety cultures that are demonstrated by actions.

At Kenya Girls Club, the local culture within the rural communities served as a strong influencer of general behaviour and attitudes. The following quotes demonstrate the variety of dominant ideas related to children,

"The fact that below 18 is a child might also be seen by people differently here. The moment you look like a grownup, you are a grownup" (Kenya Girls Club Monitoring and Evaluation Officer),

"Sometimes we do training with parents and...one of the first questions is what is a child? People [think] when a child goes to school, it's no longer a child" (Kenya Girls Club Monitoring and Evaluation Officer).

Variances also included ideas of children's roles in the community, and their relationships with adults. This was expressed at Kenya Girls Club, as shown in the following quote,

"When they go out into the community and something happens and they do speak out, the community's like, 'oh, these children are hard-headed, they speak out too much', because children are supposed to be seen and not heard" (Kenya Girls Club Director).

Within the Caribbean, examples of how the local culture influenced individual's ideas, beliefs and behaviours were also offered, as exemplified in the following quotes,

“It is a taboo issue and people are not forthcoming with information” (Caribbean Sports Co. Co-founder),

“I think child protection is quite a taboo subject in general and a lot of people don’t want to hear about or acknowledge it” (Caribbean Sports Co. Partner Child Protection Officer),

“It’s about people accepting that these things can happen. You hear incidents and people cancel them out as not happening in our society” (Caribbean Sports Co. Partner Director of Sport).

Similarly, the following quotes from Kenya Girls Club indicate common practices or traditions which were not safety specific, but said to impact the nature or performance of safety culture by influencing stakeholders and beneficiaries,

“Mother is not a decision maker in the family so when the father decides the mother cannot give any other situation in the family. So, culture also contributes” (Kenya Girls Club District Co-ordinator),

“Nobody wants [their] daughter to get pregnant before she’s married, so sometimes girls are married off, let’s say, before it’s too late” (Kenya Girls Club Monitoring and Evaluation Officer),

“If a girl is impregnated by her cousin, the case cannot go beyond the family level. They sit down as family members discuss it and then that’s it” (District Co-ordinator).

Closely related to this was safety specific social norms which was discussed mainly in relation to the appropriate means to discipline children. It was acknowledged that each nation, region or community has its own ideas around safety, which may not accord with international legislation or the safety culture of the organisation. This was discussed as creating a significant

challenge for organisations like ICA and ICRC who work in multiple countries at a time. The ICA Founder and Educational Strategist said,

“Many of the contexts we work in are not legally or attitudinally in line with the taken for granted principles of the developed world. So, you have laws and ingrained cultural attitudes that are not aligned with [our work]”.

Similarly, the ICRC Manager of Programme Operations said,

“If you’re from a country where the teacher regularly has a stick to smack a child, you’re not necessarily going to think there’s anything wrong with that because that behaviour has been normalised, you probably don’t even notice it”.

Summarising the difficulty of trying to make assertions on the appropriateness of actions which may be culturally normalised, the ICRC Programme Manager and Focal Point said,

“You’re dealing with a lot of beliefs and you’re dealing with a lot of sensitive matters. People are formed to see certain things, but you’re telling them to see different things that they are not trained to see. That’s the most difficult part. Not only that, when you are using the international regulation or international law or standard, you’re talking about United Nation Convention on The Rights of The Child...in *****.... in a school...in the middle of nowhere! What does it mean to them!?”.

Accompanying this was the policies, systems and frameworks that made up the normative aspect of the local culture. This ranged from national training pathways for those who work with children, to the availability of police background checks. The following quotes illustrate both the types of policies, processes and frameworks which participants argued were important, and how their absence may impact their work,

“One of the big gaps regionally is the policy because we have no government policy that speaks to safeguarding and child protection in sport” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director),

“We haven’t actually been undertaking [official] background checks. It’s really difficult to do that in Kenya. You can get a certificate of good conduct from the police, but that’s only valid for three months and it takes a long time to get one for those of us in rural areas” (Kenya Girls Club Director).

The converse was seen at Euro FC where the existence of policy, systems and frameworks were discussed as positive influencers of organisational safety culture. For example, a Community Coach said, “we have to have [safeguarding qualifications] through the FA because we’re football coaches”, while an Academy Coach said, “nearly all of our national football association qualifications involves some safeguarding content”. However, findings suggested that the quality and impact of these policies, systems and frameworks should not be assumed by their mere presence. A Community Coach at Euro Fc explained,

“We have been on a workshop and it was...I think that confused me more”.

While another Community Coach said,

“When you go to [training events], they're all pretty much the same. If you go on with the [football association], if you go on with athletics, they're all the same. Sometimes people will go, ‘oh, I've got to go on this again’. It’s like nothing really new comes up”.

At Kenya Girls Club, a District Co-ordinator added,

“Also, the infrastructure. If you have to move like 40 km to access the district hospital it becomes a challenge. Especially when it rains. If it rains heavily you can remain there for almost a week. So you can’t access any medication. So if it’s an infection and you have already been affected”.

While it was also necessary to note that some systems may be subject to corruption, as identified by both ICRC and Kenya Girls Club stakeholders,

“Because if you take that case to the law, they’re not taking it seriously. There’s a form of corruption which will make it simple and end without a solution” (Kenya Girls Club Community Coach),

“There’s bureaucracy and I don’t want to use this word but...corruption itself is quite strong here in the country. So, in terms of criminal checks and criminal records, it could be made and it’s not 100% true” (Anonymous).

In regard to poverty, ICRC participants discussed the typical occurrence of children being taken out of school to engage in child labour due to financial difficulties. With children often being used to top up the family income, participants discussed their role as often involving moral dilemmas and resistance from parents and carers who rely upon the funds the child brings in.

“I work with some children from poor families. Some of them work in ***** [because] the grandparents can’t take care of the children. (Project Co-ordinator).

“If the fathers drink and they’re not good at taking care for the family then they make the children go to work on the street or work in the factories” (Admin and HR Support Officer).

While an ICA Partner Government Official explained,

“You can imagine the situation whereby people cannot even manage or cannot attain a one meal a day. So as a result, they leave their children to supplement family income. So you find many people in the rural area let their children engage in child labour [and] you find that the children are the one also who top up the family income”.

Another moral dilemma was discussed with ICA who described their conflict between considering safety and by allowing children to play without basic equipment such as shoes, so as to be inclusive for the poorest in the communities they work in. An ICA Partner Local Coach said, “They are coming barefoot because of the poverty, it is very expensive to buy football shoes”. Meanwhile, the ICA Founder and Executive Strategist said, “The majority don’t play with shoes...so we’ve got to be very aware of local issues...there is cost to a number of [these things] ...and...I don’t know where funds come into place for these groups”.

Poverty was also described as a key influencer of victim co-operation. It was argued that victims of serious abuse are highly susceptible to bribery as they often welcome financial compensation based on the agreement that they will not make a formal allegation. In a focus group with Kenya Girls Club District Co-ordinators, one participant said, “Poverty also contributes. If a girl is impregnated and the man who impregnated her comes with some money, or goes and pleads with the family and they have nothing... they will accept!”.

Levels of literacy were described as another key influencer. Kenya Girls Club stated that there are extremely high levels of illiteracy in the areas that they work in. Therefore, children, parents and members of the community are unlikely to engage with disseminated information that is written, or make detailed written incident reports. This created an important consideration for Kenya Girls Clubs safeguarding work as explained in the following quotes,

“I know something being written down is important, but then that might not always happen...you’ll just have a much lower level of reporting if you’re just saying everyone who has a complaint has to go fill in a form” (Director),

“A lot of the parents here are illiterate, actually they don’t know their own rights and they also don’t know the rights of the children” (Monitoring and Evaluation officer),

“We don’t have 100% literacy, we have low rates of literacy, especially in women who are our target group for our work, so you’re going to recognise that you’ll probably have complaints from girls who can’t write, or if they can write, they can’t write in English., or they might not understand what is on the form” (Director).

The final emergent contextual factor, safety climate, described the general temporary atmosphere which may exist in particular cultures, nations or regions, which may create an increased or decreased desire to consider the safety of children. At Euro FC, the Safety and Security Training Manager exemplified the impact of safety climate after describing a recent popular issue. The Security Training Manager said,

“The incident that I’ve just told you about, that happened the day after we’d read in the papers that a man had been jailed for life for raping an 11-year-old boy in a toilet in a department store. If it can happen in a department store, then it can certainly happen in a football stadium”.

While a Community Coach also explained how a resistance to co-operate with the safety culture of an organisation may be born of events in the public sphere which can cause fear. The Community Coach said,

“I think it sort of comes from the media, but... it seems like you can't do right....it just seems to be creating that [climate] where people don't really want to help the children in fear”.

Though it has been discussed that popular cases of maltreatment may serve as motivators to stakeholders, this quote was particularly interesting as it acknowledged the potential for popular cases to also demotivate stakeholders through fear (as found by Piper, Garratt & Taylor, 2013). With this, it was argued that some individuals may become self-protective, believing that it is

better to not be involved in any cases of maltreatment, as they will inevitably be found to at fault for their behaviour, regardless of their role.

5.4.3 Summary. Overall, these findings offer support to the notion that contextual factors have a crucial mediating role in the development and maintenance of safety culture. Findings offer support for the conceptualisation offered by Armenkis and Bedein (1999). This states that contextual factors can be split into those internal and external to the organisation. This section has provided evidence of this, discussing external contextual factors (e.g. national political, economic and social contexts) and internal contextual factors (e.g. resources, organisational structure and organisational mission), focussing on their potential to impact the safety culture of sporting organisations.

5.5 Summary

The aim of this study was to conceptualise safety culture from a child safeguarding in sport perspective. The present chapter presents findings that safety culture in sport is influenced by the presence and nature of three key factors; SMS, leadership commitment and stakeholder engagement. Evidence of these factors is presented with examples, representative quotes and recognition of the unique elements of sport and safeguarding which hinder the direct applicability of previous safety culture models. This chapter also discusses the key contextual factors that influence these factors, dividing them into those which emanate from the organisation (internal contextual factors), and those which do not (external contextual factors).

Chapter 6: General Discussion

In Chapter Five, this thesis presented findings that safety culture in sport is influenced by the presence and nature of three key factors: SMS, stakeholder engagement, and leadership commitment. Chapter Five also illustrated the significance of mediating internal and external contextual factors. The current chapter builds on these findings and presents a conceptual model for the understanding of safety culture from a child safeguarding perspective. This chapter analyses the relationship between the three main influencing factors of safety culture, and then examines the mediating role of contextual factors. This discussion provides the basis for the presentation of the Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children.

6.1 The Relationship Between Key Influencing Factors

The limitations of adopting a maturity based approach to conceptualise safety culture has been discussed in Chapter Three. Prominent maturity models, such as that presented by Parker, Lawrie and Hudson (2006), offer useful heuristic tools, but are typically absent of theoretical underpinning. In addition, there is little evidence to support the notion that safety cultures can be adequately represented by such predetermined typologies. For this reason, much of the safety culture literature has conceptualised safety culture as the product of interactions between influencing factors (e.g. Cooper, 2000), and this is the perspective used in this thesis.

When considering the potential relationships and interactions between the identified key influencing factors of safety culture (SMS, Leadership Commitment and Stakeholder Engagement), findings suggested that similar to Cooper's (2000) approach to safety culture, the three may impact and/or be impacted by each other. Therefore, they were described as having an interconnected relationship which impacts in the nature, strength and proficiency of the resulting safety culture. Findings suggest that this interconnected relationship is not always equally

balanced, and the potential impact that may be exerted in each relationship is not necessarily exerted constantly. Nonetheless, the following sections present evidence of the potential relationship between each combination of safety culture factors.

6.1.1 Safety management systems and stakeholder engagement. Previous research has found that the most important impact of a comprehensive and functional SMS is its tendency to encourage stakeholders to engage purposefully (Podgórski, 2006). This in turn enhances communication, morale and productivity (Vassie & Cox, 1998). Findings from the present thesis were consistent with this, suggesting that safety management systems can impact stakeholder engagement by influencing the values, attitudes, beliefs and behaviours of stakeholders. This was seen in its ability to mandate behaviour through policy, codes of conduct and behaviour guidelines, while also ensuring this participation moved beyond minimalistic involvement and into engagement by educating and motivating stakeholders to want to engage with the SMS through training, incentives and rationales.

One example of how the SMS impacted stakeholder's engagement was with the use of the safeguarding policy and its accompanying codes of conduct and guidelines for behaviour. Having a policy was often seen as a way to enforce compliance and participants often recognised that failure to comply would have consequences. This was recognised by the Kenya Girls Club Director who said, "I mean, at the back of it, it comes down to a bit of that threat of knowing that there are consequences for actions, and so that if you don't do X, Y will happen". The Caribbean Sports Co. Director also recognised that policy served as an effective way to mandate a level of engagement from stakeholders saying,

"Without policy, you are at the mercy of the consumers of sport. They will either accept what you're doing or not. If there is a policy that really guides what you should

do...people will *have* to comply. As opposed to you are just trying to be as innovative as you can to allow people to gravitate towards it. If there is a policy, there is going to be compliance”.

A Community Coach at Euro FC stated that policy and codes of conduct help to maintain stakeholder’s levels of discipline towards tasks such as completing risk assessments and submitting accident reports as they were “always aware that the policy is there”, thus did their job “with the rules at the back of [their] minds”. While the Kenya Girls Club Health Officer said, “After developing these policies when everybody was told we have to do this, we are not supposed to do this...we are very keen”.

Evidence was also found of the SMS stimulating stakeholders to move beyond mandated participation and engage with the SMS. This was particularly the case with the training, incentives, communication channels and governance. Training and incentives provided means to motivate stakeholders by appealing to their sense of morality, and convincing them of the benefits of engagement. These two elements combined not only to provide the knowledge and ‘how’ of the safety culture, but also the ‘why’, which would underpin stakeholder motivation. In partnership with the systematic promotion of various rationales/incentives, stakeholders were encouraged that their engagement was not only beneficial, but the right thing to do, regardless of whether their main interests were children, themselves or their organisation. Evidence of the impact of this was seen with a Caribbean Sports Co. Partner Sports Officer who described training as “an eye opener” and a prompt for their subsequent engagement. Additionally, providing an example of how the SMS informed the ‘why’ of stakeholder engagement, a ICA Coach explained, “We talk to the coaches about how important it is to protect children, what

coaches should always do, what they should never do, what children have the rights to and things like that”.

The SMS also provided stakeholders with a platform to enact their engagement through communication and governance. Communication occurred with both stakeholders and beneficiaries, this allowed them to contribute to the SMS and feel a sense of ownership. Where their suggestions were addressed, it also ensured that the motivation underpinning their engagement was not diminished by a sense of helplessness. For example, at Euro FC, a Safeguarding Officer said, “We meet up on a regular basis and any problems that are raised since the last meeting are spoken about, it's never brushed under the carpet”. While the Euro FC Lead Scout said, “We’ve gone through many meetings and we’ve now got many procedures in place with the security team”.

Findings also suggested that the SMS is impacted by stakeholder engagement. These findings were consistent with that of previous research which is consistent in its assertion that the success of the SMS is determined by the actions of those who are tasked with enacting it (Lawrie, Parker & Hudson, 2006; Christian et al., 2009; Dollard & Bakker, 2010). This was also argued by participants such as the Kenya Girls Club Director who said that many organisations “have a policy but it’s lying somewhere at the back”, thus making it ineffective unless stakeholders actually use it. Similarly, ICA’s Chief Executive Strategist warned that many organisations have safety practices and policies, but only to convince others that they are ‘safe organisations’. Participants explained that in these cases, the SMS may be rendered ineffective, which can further impact the extent to which others are motivated to engage with it. For example, it was found that the SMS requires stakeholders to utilise the communication channels and engage in M&E in order to offer feedback on their success and failures. This ensures that the

SMS improves and stays relevant to its challenges, and does not become stagnant or regress in quality. Describing the process of monitoring and evaluating using the views of stakeholders, the ICRC Safeguarding Manager said,

“During our triannual comprehensive review, we look at compliance and acknowledge behaviour...we’ve also had a lot of recommendations on what needs to go into it from our teams; building on best practises, lessons learned, challenges, and international trends” (Safeguarding Manager).

Therefore, it can be said that the present thesis found evidence of the impact that stakeholders can have on the SMS. Not only in regard to its success, but its structure and focus, which can be modified and updated as stakeholders reflect on its effectiveness and applicability. Evidence was also found of the impact that the SMS can have on stakeholders. Thus, evidence was offered of the interconnected relationship between these factors.

6.1.2 Safety management systems and leadership commitment. Within sport, strong and committed leadership is identified as one of the fundamental pillars of the successful implementation of safeguarding systems (Mountjoy et al., 2017). In a longitudinal study with stakeholders from 32 organisations developing their SMS based on the International Safeguards, Rhind and colleagues (et al., 2017) reported that “leadership from senior members of staff was found to be critical in terms of initiating, driving, and supporting change” (p.161). Findings from the present thesis were consistent with this, and evidence was found that the commitment of leadership can have an influence on the safety management system. Indeed, committed leadership was defined by the extent to which leadership impacted the SMS and took a key role in building, overseeing and developing it. Thus, it was argued that as commitment goes up, so too does leaders’ involvement with the SMS, which results in it reflecting their ambitions. This

gives credence to the finding from previous safety culture research that argues that the SMS is often perceived to embody the importance placed on safety by leadership staff (Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b).

An example of this was offered at Euro FC where perceived leadership commitment was said to result in an increase in the funding made available for the SMS. The Head of Safeguarding said, “The [management] are wholly committed to having such culture. [They] provide a significant budget to do that and we are quite fortunate in that regard”. Similarly, the ICRC Manager of Programme Operations said, “The fact that [management] build in safeguarding as such a core component of our work just demonstrates the importance of it”. Middle management at Euro FC, in the form of the Head of Safeguarding further illustrated the impact that commitment can have on the implementation of the SMS by discussing their tendency to insist on quality case management practice. The Head of Safeguarding said, “I will always, to the annoyance sometimes of other staff, will take the ball and run with it. I am very determined in most situations to see a conclusion to what has happened”.

Very little evidence was offered of the SMS impacting the commitment of leadership of the very highest order (e.g. owners). This may be because, as Rhind (et al., 2017) states, “the most senior figure [tends to have] the power to influence the development of a safeguarding [or safety] culture within an organization” (p.161). Therefore, they may not have a comparable level of accountability to other leadership staff. Though one exception was noted in Euro FC who were mandated to have a SMS by their national football association. With this compulsion, owners were under a certain degree of pressure to commit to ensuring their organisation had an adequate SMS. However, it was found that the SMS can be used to encourage behavioural commitment from leadership where its structure, policy and procedures obligate leadership staff

to take certain actions. This was seen at ICRC where set processes, such as the tri-annual policy review required leadership to engage with the SMS and display a level of dedication towards M&E and the safety culture as a whole. However, rather than promoting mere engagement, leaders were tasked with demonstrating dedication and devotion with the awareness that they were subject to a higher standard of responsibility. This is exemplified by the Kenya Girls Club Monitoring and Evaluation Officer who said, “It’s everyone’s responsibility, but it’s [especially] the responsibility of those who are in management”.

6.1.3 Stakeholder engagement and leadership commitment. Throughout this thesis, various examples through which leadership could motivate and influence the level of engagement of stakeholders were identified. As discussed in the second order theme of stakeholder leadership, examples included; caring, coaching, interacting, informing and acting as an expert. An example of this was offered at Euro FC where a Community Coach described the leaderships’ encouraging approach as inviting and motivating. The Community Coach said, “***** is really approachable, (name withheld) knows everybody personally, so if you've got a problem, you know you can just ring [them]”. Similarly, at ICRC, a locally based Manager of Programme Operations spoke of the influence that senior staff from headquarters have on them, saying, “The fact that [senior management] build in safeguarding as such a core component of our work just demonstrates the importance of it to me”. This was also discussed by a Caribbean Sports Co. Director who described the importance of encouraging engagement, by minimising fear and resistance. The Director said,

“It is not just about presenting standards and saying, ‘this is all we have to do’, but getting into a dialogue that helps them to understand the purpose, the intention and that it is not intended to scare them or make life difficult for them”.

Though compliance was differentiated from engagement in this thesis, participants also discussed the potential for leadership to move stakeholders closer to engagement and further from resistance by demonstrating a lack of compromise for a failure to adhere to the rules of the SMS. Delivery based staff at ICRC and Kenya Girls Club stated that leadership staff strictly enforcing the SMS can condition stakeholder behaviour in a manner that is more compliant with the safety culture. While the Head of Safeguarding at Euro FC stated that the culture should be such that “nobody can escape” and “everyone must be accountable” for their behaviour. The Head of Safeguarding also said,

“You do [find yourself in situations where] you’re actually saying, ‘well, actually, we don’t do that here, that’s not how we do things’. You know, ‘we want to do it this way’. So, you have to be [critical], in the nicest possible way”.

Research supports these findings, arguing that the relationship between leadership and stakeholders is important for the development and maintenance of safety culture. Resistance and denial, which may be born of fear, are typical responses to the introduction and/or expansion of safeguarding initiatives in sport (Brackenridge, 2001; Hartill & Lang, 2014). Therefore, it often falls to leadership to make a concerted effort to encourage and motivate stakeholders to engage wholly with safeguarding policy and procedures (Hartill & Lang, 2014). This is especially impactful when it comes from “senior managers [who] have considerable influence on the culture of an organization and [whose] ‘buy-in’ is clearly important if safeguarding is to be truly accepted, valued and adequately resourced (Hartill & Lang, 2014, p. 164).

Fewer examples were offered of how stakeholder engagement may influence leadership commitment. Similar to the relationship between SMS and leadership commitment, this may reflect the typical disparity of power between senior staff and other stakeholders (Rhind et al.,

2017). Those examples that were offered centred on stakeholders seeking to hold leadership to account for absent or substandard elements of the SMS. For example, at ICRC, the Safeguarding Manager spoke of how a desire from stakeholders to see more funds dedicated to safeguarding was provoking action from leadership. The Safeguarding Manager said,

“You know, you’ll have people from our country focal points saying, ‘why don’t have we have [more] funding for this?’. You know, our focal points have other full-time jobs and so their frustration is, why don’t we have a 100% time child protection officer in each country. From us I say, I completely agree, 100%, but it’s a process that we need to integrate in so we can get those parts of funding for that role”.

Similarly, at Caribbean Sports Co. the Director stated that stakeholders were regularly told the story of previous stakeholders who refused to sign safeguarding policy until particular improvements were made. Such stories were used in an attempt to encourage stakeholders to informally discuss their issues with the safety culture, and formally engage with the M&E process. However, these examples were rare, only told from the perspective of leadership staff, and never corroborated by other internal or external stakeholders.

6.2 The Mediating Role of Contextual Factors

Using the distinction offered by Armenkis and Bedein (1999), Chapter Five has identified the importance of various internal and external contextual factors. Participants in this thesis did not discuss contextual factors as a fourth key influencing factor, rather it emerged as a broader, overarching cluster of factors that possess the ability to directly or indirectly mediate the key influencing factors of safety culture, or the safety culture as a whole. For example, when a co-founder of the Caribbean Sports Co. said, “[child maltreatment] is a taboo issue and people are not forthcoming with information”, and a Caribbean Sports Co. Partner Child Protection Officer

said "...a lot of people don't want to hear about or acknowledge it", they described aspects of their local culture, and how this impacts the safety performance of internal and external stakeholders. Similarly, a partner Director of Sport discussed the impact that these attitudes, values and beliefs may have on the likelihood of stakeholders to engage with the reporting procedures prescribed by the SMS of Caribbean Sports Co., saying, "you hear [about certain] incidents and people just cancel them out as not happening in our society".

In what may be a reflection of the range of countries that these organisations serve, and the variety of views this may expose internal stakeholders to, participants from ICA and ICRC frequently stated that effective safeguarding is typified by safety cultures that are accommodating and adaptable to the dominant views of local people. In doing so, they reflected two of the fundamental pillars of the successful implementation of the International Safeguards, the need for organisations to be dynamic and culturally sensitive (Rhind et al., 2017). For example, the ICRC Safeguarding Manager explained that when faced with unexpected and unfamiliar issues, for which there is no policy or procedure, the organisation must be respectful and adaptive to the local culture. The ICRC Safeguarding Manager argued that this involves being creative and considering new safety behaviour, yet making all effort to not deviate from the overriding principles of the safety culture. The safeguarding manager explained,

"There was an issue where a young girl in the community had been raped by brother and usually, in those circumstances, you have to marry [the rapist], otherwise it angers the rain gods'. The elder in the community had been involved [with us] and so we said, 'We're going to make a different sacrifice to the rain gods and we're going to ensure this girl gets support', and so she wasn't forced to marry her brother".

Previous research suggests that variations in matters such as the use of the term ‘child’, and the appropriate means of disciplining children can differ on the grounds of nation or region (Ferrari, 2002). This can have significant impact on the quality of safeguarding initiatives in sport (Brackenridge, 2001). However, findings from this thesis suggest that there are other external contextual factors that are not necessarily linked to local culture. This includes; the safety climate, legal obligations, reputation of the organisation, poverty, illiteracy, and the facilities available to the organisation. These contextual factors were also found to mediate the key influencing factors of, and the resultant safety culture. For example, despite initially developing policy that mandated appropriate footwear when taking part in sport, ICA discussed the performance of their resultant safety culture being impaired as stakeholders often dismissed violations of the policy to ensure that the poorest in certain societies were not unintentionally discriminated against. This was explained by the ICA Founder and Executive Strategist who said, “...there is a cost to a number of [these things] ...and...I don’t know where funds come into place for these groups”. While at Kenya Girls Club, it was noted that external contextual factors may be as basic as the location of a child’s house. This can mediate perceived, or actual safety culture performance. The Director said,

“It’s great to have a sport activity, except if a child has to walk, like, a number of kilometres every afternoon or every time you’re having a sports activity, then that immediately becomes a security factor”.

These examples describe external contextual factors exerting their influence, though participants in this thesis also discussed the mediating role of internal contextual factors. For example, participants from Euro FC discussed the substantial resources available to the organisation, the allocation of these resources, and the organisational structure, which provided

the Safeguarding Manager with a ‘free reign’ throughout the organisation. These contextual factors were discussed in relation to their influence on the SMS and safety performance type of stakeholders. Findings suggested that such contextual factors may also influence the expectation of stakeholders regarding the outcomes and quality of the resultant safety culture. An example is offered with the Euro FC Head of Welfare who said, “the money, the provisions and the budget is put in place for us to make [it] work and make us the best”.

In previous research, the role of contextual factors as an influencer of other safety culture factors has been discussed. Cooper (2000) includes context as a moderator and a significant determinant of safety culture factors. Hartill and Lang (2014) have also identified non safety-specific influences of safeguarding performance as diverse as; the organisations core business priorities, available resources and the strategic positioning of safeguarding within the organisation. Similarly, Kay, Mansfield and Jeanes (2016) have expressed the significance of context with the example of the typically unsuccessful transfer of initiatives developed in the global north to the global south. Such transfers are usually unsuccessful as they often underestimate, or neglect entirely, the potential impact of the varying contexts and the need for cultural and contextual sensitivity (Rhind et al., 2015). Therefore, based on these findings and previous research, the present thesis considered contextual factors as mediators of the success and nature of other key influencing safety culture factors (SMS, leadership commitment and stakeholder engagement), along with the overall safety culture.

6.3 The Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children

The findings of this thesis suggest that SMS, stakeholder engagement and leadership commitment are the key influencing factors of safety culture in sport. These factors have been found to have an interconnected relationship which can influence the resultant safety culture.

This thesis has also presented evidence that there are internal and external contextual factors that directly and indirectly mediate the key influencing factors of safety culture, or the resultant safety culture. Based on these findings, the Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children was developed (as shown in Figure 6).

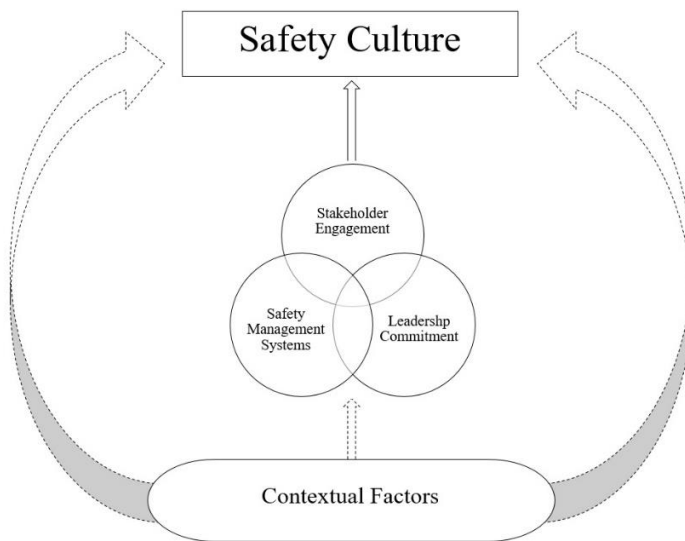


Figure 6. The Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children.

This model is a visual representation of safety culture in sport. At the centre of this model are the three key influencing factors of safety culture (SMS, stakeholder engagement and leadership commitment). These factors are presented as interconnected, or linked, representing their potential to impact each other. Findings of the influence that these factors may have on safety culture is represented by a solid arrow towards safety culture. The internal and external contextual factors are presented at the bottom of the model. Their potential mediating role is represented by dashed arrows towards the three influencing factors, and the resultant safety culture as a whole.

6.4 The Context of Research Findings

The need for a model that can guide the effective development and implementation of safeguarding policies, procedures and practices in sport has been expressed by Chroni et al.

(2012). This need is growing as safeguarding children in sport is being formalised and globalised (Mountjoy et al., 2015; Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). Together with the CHILDREN pillars, research suggests that the International Safeguards may satisfy this need. Longitudinal research has discussed the value of the International Safeguards in encouraging organisations to become more proactive and implement responsive safeguarding measures (Rhind et al., 2017). This systems approach is also praised for its potential to simultaneously address multiple contributing issues, and impact a large scope of sporting organisations' work (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014; Rhind et al., 2017). However, it is important to note that safety research in a multitude of fields has consistently found that systems, such as the International Safeguards, represent merely one part of the most effective organisational approaches to safety maintenance (Frazier et al., 2013; Cooper, 2000; Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a). Therefore, despite findings of their positive influence on safety performance (e.g. Bottani et al., 2009; Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b; Podgórski, 2006), research in a broad array of fields has regularly found that in order to maximise and prolong their positive impact, systems such as the International Safeguards must be accompanied by various other influencers of safety performance (e.g. the committed leadership of senior staff) (Edwards et al., 2013; Frazier et al., 2013). So, notwithstanding findings of the positive impact that the International Safeguards may have on safety performance in sport, it can be argued that there is still room for progress, and the development of approaches and models of safeguarding in sport that are even more comprehensive.

Perhaps the most comprehensive approach to safety performance, particularly as it relates to organisational life, has been offered in the form of safety culture (Edwards et al., 2013). There is a significant body of research on the positive impact of this approach, which argues for the multifaceted advantages of going beyond the typical systems approach of safety to also address

crucial social forces (Parker, Lawrie & Hudson, 2006). Such research suggests that safety culture can significantly improve the safety performance of varying organisation types in a wide range of countries and industries (Cull, Rzepnicki, O'Day, Epstein, 2013). This is especially the case when an extensive definition of safety culture is adopted, which considers the normative, anthropological and pragmatic aspects of organisational culture (Edwards et al., 2013). Prior to this thesis, the concept of safety culture has not been applied to safeguarding in sport. This is despite the culture of sporting organisations often being discussed as a fundamental consideration for safeguarding children in sport (Hartill & Lang, 2014; Bringer et al., 2001; Kerr, Sterling & MacPherson, 2014; Brackenridge et al., 2012). Therefore, there is merit and a theoretical basis for the conceptualisation of safety culture in sport from a safeguarding perspective, and the Safety Culture Model for Safeguarding Children.

6.4.1 Comparisons to previous safeguarding and safety culture models. Brackenridge et al.'s (2005) Activation States may be considered the most comparable safeguarding model in sport. The Activation States possesses some similar features to maturity based models of safety culture (e.g. Hudson, 2003), such as the recognition of individual and organisational voices, behaviours, beliefs and knowledge. However, the Activation States is not presented as a model of safety culture, neither does it; offer a definition of safety culture, root itself in safety culture theory, or suggest that its features have any relation to safety culture research findings (as explained in section 3.4.1). Thus, the Activation States is not considered a safety culture model, or a safety culture approach towards safeguarding children in sport. Additionally, with minimal evidence to support maturity based approaches to safety culture (Fleming, 2001), and contemporary research dismissing the suggestion that culture may be adequately represented by pre-existing typologies (Edwards, Davey & Armstrong, 2013; Fernández-Muñoz et al., 2007a),

the present thesis had insufficient rationale to adapt the Activation States and underpin it with safety culture research and theory. For these reasons, this thesis can be considered the first to apply the literature on safety culture to safeguarding children in sport. With no previous research conceptualising safety culture from a safeguarding perspective outside of the sporting industry, this thesis can also be considered the first to conceptualise safety culture from a safeguarding perspective in any field. The consequence of this is that Safety Culture Model for Safeguarding Children is most comparable to those safety culture models that have been developed in fields such as construction, aviation and healthcare (e.g. Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; Cooper, 2000; Frazier et al., 2013).

Safety culture models such as that produced by Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007a) have been produced based on cross cultural, cross national and cross industry research. Therefore, it is not surprising that the key influencing factors identified in this thesis are similar to that presented in previous research (i.e. leadership commitment vs management commitment, stakeholder engagement vs leadership engagement, and the SMS). However, some differences in sport contributed to changes in the influencing factors presented in the Safety Culture Model for Safeguarding Children. For example, the variety of organisation types, sizes and missions in sport meant that the structure of managerial commitment prescribed by Wu et al., (2010) required significant adaptation to ensure their suitability to sporting organisations, who rarely possess the leadership structure, or specific cluster of leadership responsibilities suggested by Wu and colleagues. Similarly, within the key influencing factor of SMS, the typical absence of standardised and esteemed training programmes contributed to a proliferation of in-house training for stakeholders. Though the main difference between findings of this thesis which has

informed the Safety Culture Model for Safeguarding Children, and previous safety culture research may have occurred because of the type of safety being considered.

Models developed in fields such as construction, aviation and energy production consider accidents, thus harm that may be unintentional. For example, when Christian et al., (2009) conducted a meta-analysis on workplace safety, they discussed ‘accident causation’, Hsu et al., (2010) developed a system based on ‘accident prevention’ in the airline industry, and Fernández-Muñiz et al. (2007a) discussed the value of safety culture in relation to its ability to lower ‘accident rates’. Conversely, the present thesis considered maltreatment, which may include intentional effort to cause harm and remain conspicuous in doing so (Butchart et al., 2006; Brackenridge, 2001). As a result, there were differences between this thesis and previous research in regard to specific areas of emphasis and content. For example, importance was placed on stakeholders’ willingness to use their initiative, which may involve reporting suspicions, and not just actual incidents. Importance was also placed on the quality of those reporting structures. Therefore, findings suggested that safety culture typified by a reasonable amount of suspicion and/or vigilance is actually valued. Though the additional consideration of safeguarding that specifically relates to children also had an impact.

Previous safeguarding research has suggested that almost anyone may be a perpetrator of child maltreatment in sport (Alexander et al., 2011; Rhind et al., 2015). Therefore, the remit of relevant individuals or ‘stakeholders’ whose engagement may impact the safety culture was much broader than in previous safety culture research that typically considers employees only (e.g. Frazier et al., 2013; Cooper, 2000; Christian et al., 2009). This remit was further expanded as the present thesis considered safeguarding in, around and through sport (Rhind et al., 2016). Thus, the present thesis discussed maltreatment that may occur in more than just the ‘workplace’,

and the Safety Culture Model for Safeguarding Children discussing stakeholder engagement, rather than the narrower employee engagement reflected the variety of potential perpetrators and enactors of safety culture in sport (e.g. partners, volunteers, parents, spectators and member based organisations).

Another key comparison that can be made between the Safety Culture Model for Safeguarding Children and previous safety culture models relates to the presentation of key influencing factors as interconnected. Many previous studies have discussed the interconnected relationship between the key influencing factors of safety culture (e.g. Frazier et al., 2013), and presented relationship based models (e.g. Cooper, 2000). One prominent approach has been to present the factors of safety culture as reciprocal and determinative of the strength and nature of safety culture. An early example of this is offered with Cooper's (2000) Reciprocal Model of Safety culture. This popular model argues that safety culture is the result of the reciprocal dynamic interplay of Safety climate, SMS and safety behaviour. Similarly, Ismail, Salimin and Ismail (2012) have produced a reciprocal model of safety culture in construction industry. This builds upon the reciprocal model produced by Choudhry, Fang and Mohamed (2007a) in the same industry. Though some studies have also found evidence that contradicts this entirely reciprocal relationship. For example, Fernández-Muñiz et al., (2007a) found that managers' commitment influenced employees' involvement and SMS, though SMS and employees' involvement had no significant impact on the managers commitment. Similarly, findings suggested that SMS have a statistically significant impact on employee involvement, but employee involvement had no impact on the SMS.

Incongruences between the findings of this thesis and those studies that have presented safety culture factors as distinct entities with little or no relationship may be caused by the

aforementioned differences in the precise structure of factors used to conceptualise safety culture. This may be enough to alter a statistically significant reciprocal relationship into a unidirectional relationship, especially if certain directions of influence are already weaker than others. Alternatively, they may be influenced by the qualitative methods of this study, which as Kay, Mansfield and Jeanes (2016) suggest, may uncover details that more rigid quantitative studies may not recognise. Furthermore, variances may reflect the realities of specific industries and types of safety. Indeed, despite not explicitly discussing safety culture, research on safeguarding children in sport does suggest that the factors identified in this thesis may share an interconnected relationship. For example, when Hartill and Lang (2014) interviewed experienced safeguarding officers on the introduction of safeguarding in sporting organisations in the UK they found evidence that stakeholders can influence management to broaden the opportunities available to promote safeguarding and ensure that the SMS is adequately resourced. This provides evidence for the notion that leadership may influence both stakeholders' commitment, and the SMS. The impact that leadership may have on stakeholder has also been discussed by Brackenridge, Rhind and Palmer-Felgate (2015) who concluded that positive leadership "can prove decisive in shifting hearts, minds, and actions in the direction of improved safety for children" (p. 247). While longitudinal research on safeguarding in sport has found that systems tend to be positively received by a variety of internal and external stakeholders (such as coaches, children, scouts, referees, parents and carers) who believe they encourage more cooperation and thus increase the overall effectiveness of safeguarding (Brackenridge, Pitchford, Russel & Nutt, 2007).

With recognition and empirical support for an interconnected relationship of safety culture factors, the present thesis explored the idea that these factors may be regarded as entirely

reciprocal, or equal in their impact and influence over each other. However, within this thesis, evidence of this was not always apparent. For example, few examples, were offered of the SMS impacting leadership of the highest order (e.g. owners), or of stakeholder engagement influencing leadership commitment. Further, these few examples were only told from the perspective of leadership staff, who research suggests, typically attempt to present their relationships as more collaborative and reciprocal than they are in practice (Mansfield, 2016). Therefore, the present thesis referred to the relationships between factors as interconnected, rather than necessarily reciprocal.

The final basis upon which the Safety Culture Model for Safeguarding Children may be compared to previous safety culture models is with its inclusion of contextual factors. Other than Cooper (2000) Reciprocal Model of Safety Culture, most safety culture models do not consider the mediating role of the context (e.g. Frazier et al., 2013; Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a). This is a significant omission as Rhind et al. (2017) express that in safeguarding, it is “fundamental to develop a good understanding of the complex safeguarding context” (p.157). While previous research also suggests that potentially important factors, such as the role of particular stakeholders, may differ based on the contexts that a particular organisation works in (Kay, Mansfield & Jeanes, 2016). With the position that “safety culture does not operate in a vacuum: it affects, and in turn is affected by, other non-safety-related operational processes or organisational systems” (Cooper, 2000, p.113), this inclusion within the Safety Culture Model for Safeguarding Children represents a significant development upon the majority of safety culture models. This includes Coopers Reciprocal Model of Safety Culture (2000), which discusses context, but unlike the present thesis, does so in a broad manner, without offering a

framework, or any examples of the specific types of contextual factors that may influence safety culture.

6.5 Summary

This chapter builds upon Chapter Five, which presented findings that safety culture in sport is influenced by the presence and nature of three key influencing factors (SMS, stakeholder engagement and leadership commitment) and various internal and external contextual factors. This chapter argues that an interconnected relationship between the three key influencing factors of safety culture exists, and that contextual factors may mediate the key influencing factors of safety culture, or the resultant safety culture as a whole. This discussion forms the basis for the presentation of the Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

This chapter provides a summary and conclusion of the present thesis. This will begin by reflecting on the key findings and specific contributions that this thesis makes to the body of knowledge on safeguarding in sport and safety culture. This chapter will then consider the practical implications, limitations and possible future directions for research. Finally, the present thesis is concluded with some closing remarks from the author.

7.1 Overview of Key Findings

This study was the first to conceptualise safety culture in sport from a safeguarding perspective. In doing so, this study offered an opportunity to understand safeguarding in a new, more comprehensive manner than previously dominant approaches. The present thesis found three key influencing factors of safety culture; the safety management system, stakeholder engagement and leadership commitment. These factors and their constituent components were similar to the influencing factors found in previous research (e.g. Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a), though adaptations were made that reflected the characteristics of the sporting industry, and the nature of the specific task of safeguarding children. Findings suggested that these factors share an interconnected relationship. It also emerged that there are mediating contextual factors, both within and external to the organisation, which can influence these key influencing factors, and the resultant safety culture as a whole. Based on these findings, the Safety Culture model of Safeguarding Children was developed.

7.1.1 Safety management system. Findings suggested that it is necessary to have a systematic approach to safety which is rooted in normative processes of the organisation. This is unsurprising considering the previous calls for a more systematic approach to safeguarding in sport (Brackenridge, Pawlaczek, Bringer, Cockburn, Nutt, Pitchford & Russel, 2005), and

emerging evidence globally that these calls are being heard (Hartill & Lang, 2014). Though what was unique was the conception of SMS which emerged as an adapted configuration of SMSs in safety culture research (e.g. Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007b). The present thesis found the ideal SMS to consist of; Safeguarding Policy, incentives, training, communication channels, emergency and preventative planning, and monitoring and evaluation.

The main differences between these findings and previous research was in the applicability of the existing model to sport. This was reflected in modifications to the previous popular configuration of SMS at both second and third order theme level. For example, incentives were not discussed in relation to direct and tangible reward, but more in relation to subscribing to particular beliefs, which present a moral incentive, or being driven by rationales which relate to the child, the individual or the organisation as a whole. Therefore, this factor was addressed as incentives for engagement. Similarly, it was necessary to distinguish between training for internal and external stakeholders as participants argued these two groups often require different training tailored to their tasks. It was concluded that findings were largely confirmatory of previous conceptualisations of SMS, but were adapted to represent the unique nature of the task in sport and as it relates to safeguarding children from maltreatment, which may be intentional, rather than the prevention of just accidents. This contributed to the body of knowledge that pertains to the systems which may be used as a basis for safeguarding children.

7.1.2 Stakeholder engagement. The second factor was stakeholder engagement. Consistent with the findings of Christian et al. (2009), participants argued that this is a seminal contributor to safety culture. This described the enthused, often voluntary and proactive involvement of stakeholders towards a strong and positive safety culture. The title of this factor intentionally moved away from the often-used phrase of ‘employee engagement’ in order to

represent the extremely diverse range of groups involved in when safeguarding children in, around and through sport. Findings suggested that this includes, but may not be limited to; volunteers, member organisations, spectators, parents and partner organisations, which previous research in safety culture seldom considers. Therefore, the present thesis discussed internal stakeholders as those enactors who represent the organisation directly, and external stakeholders as those who represent or impact the success of the safety culture indirectly.

Findings suggested that the elements which influenced the nature of stakeholders' performance were their knowledge and awareness of safeguarding and child maltreatment, along with their attitudes, values and beliefs. This was found to result in either an intrinsic or extrinsic motivation, which in turn determined whether the stakeholders were engaged or compliant. Compliance differed from engagement and was described as minimalistic involvement which only occurred in response to external stimulants, such as instructions from leadership staff, while engagement referred to the use of one's initiative to contribute to the safety culture. This initiative was described as the individuals' willingness to identify and highlight potential safeguarding issues (being proactive), or to address actual safeguarding issues (being reactive). The present thesis distinguished between the different types, degrees and intensities of stakeholder contributions. This differs from other research on safety culture which typically uses terms like involvement, engagement and participation interchangeably (e.g. Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; Mearns et al, 2003; Wu, Lin & Shiau, 2010; Podgórski, 2006; Dollard & Bakker, 2010). With these findings, this thesis provides a sport specific framework for stakeholder safety performance as it relates to safeguarding children.

7.1.3 Leadership commitment. The third factor was leadership commitment. Findings were largely confirmatory of previous research which identifies leadership as seminal to the

development and maintenance of safety culture (e.g. Fernández-Muñiz et al., 2007a; Wamuziri, 2013; Zohar, 2003). Although rather than discuss senior staff through the limited term of managers, the present thesis discussed leadership. This was due to the evidence that was found that ‘senior staff’ may include other non-managerial staff such as owners, supervisors or those who are not managerial staff, but are afforded significant leadership responsibilities. This was also on the basis that sporting organisations are heavily varied in size and structure, thus many of the typical bureaucratic structures of other fields do not consistently fit in sport. Recognising this, the present thesis established leadership commitment as the leadership teams’ demonstrable commitment to leading the SMS and the stakeholders. In doing so, the present thesis condensed Wu and colleagues’ (et al., 2010) framework, while recognising that safety leadership in sport requires an investment of both the organisational systems and the people enacting it. Similar to the findings of stakeholder engagement, this provides leaders within sport with a framework for the understanding of leadership commitment as it relates to safety culture and safeguarding. Further it builds upon research from the general area of safety culture, recognising that the safety responsibilities discussed by Wu et al., (2012) may be utilised by one particular safety leader as not all organisations may have the traditional three layers of management.

7.1.4 Contextual factors. Although context is considered a necessary consideration in previous safeguarding literature (e.g. Rhind, et al., 2017), it is rarely discussed in previous safety culture models. The present thesis found evidence to suggest that contextual factors are not only significant, but possess the ability to mediate any of the key influencing factors, along with the resultant safety culture. Findings provided support for the popular conceptualisation of contextual factors offered by Armenkis and Bedein (1999) which discusses the internal and external contextual factors. Examples of internal factors included organisational structure and

resources, while examples of external contextual factors included local culture and poverty. Context is rarely mentioned in safety culture research, and even when it has been mentioned (e.g. Cooper, 2000), it is discussed in generic terms, without a detailed definition or framework, and without representative examples to support it. Therefore, by adopting the framework of Armenkis and Bedein (1999), and providing representative examples, this thesis offers a basis for further consideration of contextual factors within the safety culture literature.

7.1.5 The safety culture model of safeguarding children. Contrary to much of the previous literature (e.g. Frazer et al., 2013), findings suggested that the key influencing factors of safety culture have an interconnected relationship. The potential for each influencing factor to impact another was found. Though significantly less evidence was offered of the influence that the SMS may have on leadership commitment, and of the influence stakeholder engagement may have on leadership commitment. For these reasons, the present thesis elected not to consider these factors as entirely reciprocal (as argued by Cooper, 2000). Couple with evidence of the mediating role of contextual factors, the present thesis presents the Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children (Figure 7).

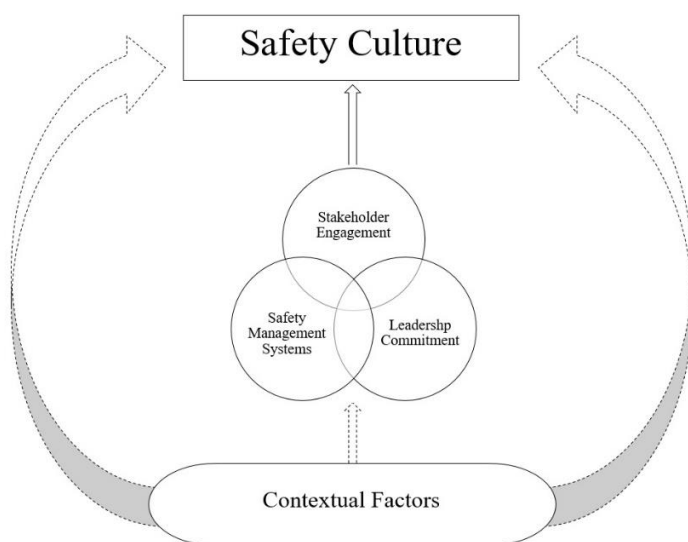


Figure 7. The Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children.

This model is the first dedicated safety culture model in sport. It is also the first safety culture model to be produced from a child safeguarding perspective. Therefore, it offers an advancement of knowledge in both the safeguarding children in sport, and general safety culture literature.

7.2 Practical Implications

The present thesis has several practical implications for organisations in sport and beyond. Based on these findings it can be said that safety culture can be used as an approach to safeguard children in sport. This is of relevance to all involved in sport who are responsible for safeguarding children (e.g. practitioners, owners, governing bodies and training providers). Such organisations may apply the Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children in a bid to develop and maintain a safety culture. For instance, with the presentation of a new, evidence backed approach to safeguarding children in sport, governing bodies may reconsider their understanding of safeguarding, the support offered to individuals, member and/or partner organisations, the provisions put in place and how organisations are assessed for satisfactory safeguarding initiatives. Governing bodies who typically use quantitative methods to monitor and evaluate the systems within their member organisations may also reconsider their analytical approaches to include qualitative elements that may offer a better gauge of key influencing factors such as the leadership commitment and stakeholder engagement. This may occur with greater recognition of the significance of contextual factors, particularly with governing bodies who work across several nations or regions which may differ in terms of their local culture. Findings are also of significance to training providers as it may impact ideas on; the best approaches and content of training for stakeholders, who should be trained, and how training can be used to develop stakeholders that possess the attitudes, values and beliefs to be engaged, rather than simply

compliant. In doing so the findings of this thesis may encourage training providers and governing bodies to go beyond specific systems or interpersonal approaches, and develop more holistic cultural approaches.

There may also be practical implications of relevance to deliverers who work directly with children. It can be said that the findings of this study serve as a useful insight into the views of key informants and industry leaders. Therefore, practitioners (both leadership and stakeholders) may seek to improve their performance by adhering to the suggestions of participants in the present thesis regarding the demonstration of commitment and proactive and intrinsically motivated engagement. Findings may stimulate ideas of those who work with children, encouraging them towards an evidenced backed approach which is applicable to their contexts and roles. This is especially important as the findings of previous research (e.g. Hartill and Lang, 2014) suggests that safety professionals in sport are in need of more specialised support and guidance.

For these reason, this thesis may be of relevance to the Founders Group of the International Safeguards. They may provide guidance and stimulate consideration of how the Safeguards can be further developed from a systems approach, to a more comprehensive safety culture approach. Although interestingly, in its presentation of a unique approach to understanding safeguarding children, these findings may go beyond sport to other institutions that are also responsible for safeguarding the wellbeing of children. Examples of this include academia, healthcare and religion. These areas are also under pressure to ensure that children are safeguarding in, around and through them (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). Therefore, stakeholders, leaders and safety professionals in these fields may be encouraged by a unique, evidence backed approach to protecting children, and may choose to adopt its principles for their

organisations, or for industry specific research. For example, leaders in these fields may make a concerted effort to demonstrate some of the SMS leadership, or stakeholder leadership behaviours discussed. Similarly, those with the most authority may aim to build their systems around the SMS structure prescribed within this thesis, while the notion of interconnectivity between factors may inform particular approaches to interventions aiming to develop or maintain a safety culture in these areas.

7.4 Limitations

One of the limitations of this thesis relates to the global nature of this study. As noted at various points throughout this thesis, conducting global research is extremely complicated as it must consider a multitude of issues which are cross-cultural (Hayhurst, Kay & Chawansky, 2016). Unfortunately, due to the frequent disparity between the availability of research in developed and developing countries, the present thesis was often unable to present representative literature on relevant topics. This issue is particularly concerning as it has the potential to influence research development and findings in a manner that is further exacerbating the lack of representation. Concerted effort was made to present and consider more globally representative literature in this thesis, though this remains a limitation.

Another limitation pertained to the use of language. The present thesis attained clarity on key terms which are often controversial, misunderstood or used inconsistently within the review of literature. These terms included; culture, safety climate, safeguarding and child maltreatment amongst others. Attempts were made to create clarity on the key terms such as safety culture both within the literature and during data collection as the researcher frequently restated the definitions of key terms for clarity. However, there may have remained a tendency for participants to refer to their own entrenched understandings of such terms, which could have led

to some terms being used inconsistently. Similarly, the main language used in this study was English, but as a global study, many of the participants either did not speak English, thus required the medium of a translator, or did not speak the English language as their first language and had limited understanding of English. In the instance that a translator was used, the present thesis was reliant upon the translator to adequately interpret and translate the words of the participant. Additionally, in the instance that English was not the first language of the participant, participants may have struggled to express themselves effectively and consistently. Effort was made to alleviate this by taking advantage of the semi-structured interview approach to ask questions multiple times using slightly different language to seek verbal confirmation that the question had been understood, and to restate the participants answer to confirm it had been adequately understood. Nonetheless, there may have been some instances when the words of participants may not have entirely reflected their true feelings on a particular matter.

The potential for participants to attempt to manage the impression of the researcher also presented a limitation. The present thesis was conducted on the basis that participants are key informants, though their organisations do not necessarily possess the ideal strong and positive safety culture itself. Nonetheless, there was the potential for participants to be subject to the Hawthorne effect (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939, as cited in Brackenridge et al., 2005). This occurs as people know that they are a part of a study and attempt to please or present a false impression of themselves. With this, it was considered that some participants may have either consciously or unconsciously presented an idealistic picture of safeguarding in sport. Despite the information sheet, consent form and pre-interview discussions explaining that participation was strictly confidential, voluntary and would not impact their involvement in the International Safeguards Project in any way, the likelihood of this is increased considering the researcher's

dual involvement with the International Safeguards Project. This may have given participants the false impression that it is within their interests to be seen as a safe organisation. Furthermore, fears of reputational damage may have limited the extent to which participants were open and honest about the issues and challenges that building and maintaining a safety culture in sport has.

7.6 Future research

The present thesis presents a new approach to safeguarding children in sport, though avenues remain for the further advancement of knowledge in this area. For example, as the present thesis is the first of its type in sport, there is rationale for further research which may strengthen or disprove the findings of the present study and the value of a safety culture approach to safeguarding children in sport. This may explore means of demonstrating that safety culture has been developed and provide more evidence that it makes children safer from maltreatment in practice. This may be conducted in a broader range of countries and cultures, while addressing some of the discussed limitations, and exploring the precise improvements in safety performance that a safety culture approach may lead to. Furthermore, future research may study the strength of the relationships between the identified safety culture factors in sport, questioning whether practitioners may be justified in prioritising particular areas.

Conversely, future research may focus on particular factors and question whether the definitions and conceptualisations used in this thesis are appropriate, applicable and theoretically sound for use in sport. This may relate specifically to the International Safeguards, questioning whether the International Safeguards present a preferable approach to the systems aspect of a safety culture than the SMS presented in this thesis. In doing so, research may aim to accompany the Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children with more prescriptive guidance. This may also be the case in regard to contextual factors. The range of contexts explored in the present

thesis meant that no single context was explored with enough participating organisations to make more detailed inferences on the significant issues that affect that specific context, be it a region, nation, or specific community. The focus of this thesis was on the characteristics of safety culture, but it is acknowledged that culture is a complex concept that goes beyond the focused definition of safety culture. Therefore, there may need to be a more research into the use of contextual factors and how they relate to broader definitions of culture.

There is still a need for broader research to advance general understanding of the multitude of types of child maltreatment in sport and the broader issues around safeguarding children in sport. This is particularly the case in developing countries. A greater understanding of these issues can support the implementation of any model or approach of safeguarding children in sport. Finally, as previously noted, the findings of this study may have implications which go beyond sport. Therefore, future research may also question the applicability of the Safety Culture Model of Safeguarding Children beyond sport, applying it to research in other areas where the prevention of child maltreatment is of concern. This includes, but is not limited to academia, religion and healthcare.

7.7 Concluding Remarks

Preventing child maltreatment is an unending task. I do not deceive myself to believe that one approach alone will protect all children in sport from all forms of maltreatment. Nonetheless I am encouraged by the findings in this thesis, which extend the body of knowledge on safeguarding to recognise the complexity of safeguarding children in sport, and the breadth of elements which can positively contribute to safer realities for children in sport. I believe that these findings demonstrate that safety culture may offer the most comprehensive approach

towards the prevention of harm to children in sport or beyond. As aptly put by the Monitoring and Evaluation Officer at ICRC;

“I think that Safety Culture means that it is much more engrained. It becomes like a habit almost, you do not question it too much, it is just a matter of course that you do it. So, for that to happen it has got to go beyond policy and systems, but also includes people. You have to be able to find the right people whose beliefs and attitudes will match the organisations. But then after their inducted they have to be in the environment where this is constantly reinforced, and it's consistently being thought of as important. For this to happen, there needs to be a recognition from all levels – not just management, but from the entire organisation that this is an important part of the work right”.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Sample Research Invitation Email

Dear **xxx**,

I hope that you are well. I would like to thank you once again for your help with our research project so far. We are now completing our report for the end of Year 1 and this will be circulated to you in July. We are now starting to plan for Year 2 of the project.

Case Studies

Our focus of this 2nd year will be developing case studies which communicate key messages regarding the implementation of the Standards. We are hoping to work with 6 of the organizations from the 32 who signed up for our research. These case studies will represent organizations at all stages of the journey as well as different organizational missions, sizes and locations. They will be based around a short visit which could take place any time between July 2014 and June 2015 at a time that is mutually convenient. The case studies will focus on the following themes:

- The challenges of working towards the Standards,
- Areas of success and good practice,

- The impact of the Standards
- Your next steps in terms of safeguarding within your organization.

Your organization has been identified by the research team and the Founders Group as a potential case study as an example of good practice in relation to working towards the Standards within the sport for development context. We feel that the examples you gave around involving local communities in your work is a good example as well as the ways in which you are thinking about how to monitor and evaluate the impact of the Standards.

What will the case study involve?

The initial interview which has previously been conducted will inform the case study. We are very flexible in terms of what else may be possible. Potential methods include:

- Attendance at a safeguarding event (e.g., training or a relevant meeting)
- Looking through relevant documents (e.g., safeguarding policy, incident reporting form).
- Interviews with key stakeholders (e.g., coaches, parents, managers)
- Focus group with children or young people
- Observation of a training session, tournament or match

We very much appreciate how busy you and your colleagues are and hence we are happy to work with you to discuss what may be possible. We would also welcome the opportunity to see/visit anything that you feel is region specific/innovative/different that you are doing in the area of safeguarding.

Please be reassured that throughout this research project, both the confidentiality and anonymity of any participants or organizations is assured.

We would appreciate it if you could let us know whether your organization may be willing to be a case study by xxx via e-mail (Daniel.Rhind@Brunel.ac.uk or Frank.Owusu-Sekyere@brunel.ac.uk). If you have any questions that you would like to discuss before confirmation, then please do let us know and we can arrange to speak with you to discuss this in further detail.

With best wishes,
Daniel Rhind and Frank Owusu-Sekyere

Appendix B. Research Information Sheet



The Application of Reciprocal Determinism to Conceptualise Safety Culture in Sport and Sport for Development.

Thank you once again for your help with our research project so far. Please read below for an overview of the research and if you have any questions please ask the researcher prior to signing the consent form.

The aims of the research:

This research seeks to understand what the concept of safety culture would look like in sport and sport for development contexts. The study is a global study, as such organisations of varying organisational missions, size and location will be represented.

What will we have to do?

In order to understand safety culture, members of your organisation will take part in focus groups or interviews about their perceptions of the organisations safety culture and the key factors of it. Interviewees will be invited to discuss their experiences and perceptions of the organisations safety culture and offer an insight to what safety culture actually is and what it entails in sport or sport for development. Additional data collection methods include:

- Observations at a safeguarding event (e.g., training or a relevant meeting)
- Relevant document analysis (e.g., safeguarding policy, incident reporting form).
- Observation of a training session, tournament or match.

Why your organisation?

Your organisation has been identified by the research team and the Founders Group as a potential case study and an example of good practice. This is in relation to your work with the International safeguards within the sport or sport for development context. The inclusion of your organisation suggests that you are a leader in your field in regards to safeguarding children.

What are the benefits of taking part?

By taking part in this study you will have the opportunity to contribute to the growing body of literature on safeguarding children and safety culture in sport and sport for development. You will also have the opportunity to offer guidance and support to similar organisations. You will

also be taking advantage of an opportunity to reflect on what your organisation does well to safeguard children.

Confidentiality

Please be reassured that both the confidentiality and anonymity of all participants or organizations are assured and will be treated with the strictest confidence. No individuals will be mentioned by name in the final version of this study.

Contacts

If you have any issues with this research project or would like to discuss it further, please contact Dr. Daniel Rhind (Daniel.Rhind@Brunel.ac.uk) or Frank Owusu-Sekyere (Frank.Owusu-Sekyere@brunel.ac.uk).

Appendix C. Consent Form



CONSENT FORM

The participant should complete the whole of this sheet

Please tick the appropriate box

| | YES | NO |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Have you read the Research Information Sheet? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Have you had a chance to ask questions and talk about this study? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Have you received answers to all your questions? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Who have you spoken to? | ----- | |
| Do you understand that your name will not be used in the study? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from the study... | | |
| • ...at any time? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • ...without having to give a reason for withdrawing? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Do you agree to your interview or focus group being recorded? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Do you agree to allow direct quotes when the study is written up or published? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Do you agree to take part in this study? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Signature of Research Participant:

Date:

Name in capitals:

Researcher name:

Signature:

Appendix D. Interview Guide

Introduction

Thank you for taking part in this interview. Please be reassured that this is not a test and your answers will be treated with the strictest confidentiality.

Safety Culture as a concept

As you know I am here to find out a bit more about safeguarding and safety culture.

Safety Culture can be defined as:

‘...the assembly of underlying assumptions, beliefs, values and attitudes shared by members of an organisation, which interact with an organisation’s structures and systems and the broader contextual setting to result in those external readily visible, practices that influence safety’
(Edwards et al., 2013 p.77).

1. To what extent would you say your organisation has a safety culture?
 - a. Do you think it’s something every organisation has?
2. What makes it a safety culture?

Safety Management Systems

3. Could you tell me a bit about what your organisation has in place to safeguard children?
(supplementary questions)

- Safeguarding Policies
- Practices/procedures
- Slogans
- Safeguarding officers
- Incident reporting
- Training

4. Are these things regularly reviewed and updated?

- How?

5. How important do you think these things are in helping you to safeguard children effectively?

(supplementary questions)

- Do you think your colleagues feel the same?
- Do some feel the systems are inadequate, out of date or ‘a waste of time’ for example?

6. What are the main issues your organisation faces in safeguarding children?

7. Are there things that the organisation doesn't do, that you think it should do more of?
- (If yes) are there opportunities to share these views either formally or informally?

Leadership

8. What characteristics do you think are most important from a leader when implementing safeguarding policy?

(supplementary questions)

- What might it look like in action?
- What is it typified by?
- Are there different challenges at different levels?

9. How important is this in developing a safety culture?

(supplementary questions)

- Are they effective?
- Do you believe good leadership can be the difference between having a safety culture and not having one?
- What influence might it have on employees?

Employee engagement

10. How involved would you say staff are when it comes to safeguarding?

(optional supplementary questions)

- Are there differences between coaches, managers, volunteers etc
- Do people just do what they are told or are most of the staff passionate about safeguarding?

11. Are there big differences in how involved some are compared to others?

(supplementary questions)

- (if yes) Why do you think that is?
 - o Belief in the system?
 - o Personalities?
 - o Competence?

12. What do you think motivates people to be particularly mindful of safeguarding jobs/roles/responsibilities?

(prompts)

- Fear of being culpable?
 - Strong competent SMS
 - Active, visible and passionate leadership
 - Climate
 - Financial incentive?
13. How important do you think it is to explicitly make safeguarding part of people's jobs?
(optional supplementary questions)
- Does this happen here?
 - (If yes) is it sometimes challenge to make sure it doesn't interfere with other aspects of your job?
14. To what extent is it important that you believe you can do what you are being asked to do?
15. How important do you think the personal values are in developing a safety culture?
(optional supplementary questions)
- Do the people matter if an organisation has the right policies and systems in place?
16. What kind of personal attitudes/personalities do you think are most helpful?
(prompts)
- Importance of safety
 - Competence/confidence
 - Negative attitude towards risk
 - Positive attitude towards reporting
17. How much do you rely upon your previous experiences or knowledge to know what to do to keep children safe?
(optional supplementary questions)
- Based on this how important is an individual's background/education/knowledge?
18. How do you think an organisation can go about ensuring it has suitable employees?
- Is this an ongoing process?
19. How do you ensure you keep people rooted in a suitable mentality?

Appendix E. Focus Group Guide

Pleasantries

Thank you once again for being part of this safeguarding discussion group. The aim of today is to discuss your experiences in sport. This is not a test so please just be as honest as you can. If you disagree with someone it's fine but make sure to remain respectful.

We may stir up some interesting and controversial debates about safeguarding so before we start I would like us to have a few ground rules. Firstly can we make sure to be respectful always to each other's views, even if we disagree. Secondly can we refrain from naming people personally and finally please be honest. For example, if you think safeguarding is nothing to do with you...say that! Remember this isn't a test and when this is reported you will all be anonymous.

Introductions

Can we just go around and have everyone say...

1. Their name
2. Provide a brief overview of their organisation
3. Say what you do in that organisation

Focus group questions

Safety Culture

As you know I am here to find out a bit more about safeguarding and safety culture.

Safety Culture can be defined as:

‘...the assembly of underlying assumptions, beliefs, values and attitudes shared by members of an organisation, which interact with an organisation’s structures and systems and the broader contextual setting to result in those external readily visible, practices that influence safety’

(Edwards et al., 2013 p.77).

1. To what extent would you say your organisation has a safety culture?
 - a. Do you think it’s something every organisation has?
2. What are the key elements that makes it a safety culture?

Safety Management Systems

3. How important is a safety system?
4. What do you think should be in that system?

(Prompts)

Safeguarding Policies

Practices/procedures

Slogans

Safeguarding officers

Incident reporting

Training

5. Why are those things important?

(Prompts)

Motivate staff

Consequences for behaviour

Sets the rules

Guides Behaviour

Reassures Children

Clarity and transparency

Leadership

6. How important is leadership in developing and maintaining a safety culture?

(prompts/supplementary questions)

- What might it look like in action?
- What is it typified by?
- Are there different challenges at different levels?

7. What does good and effective leadership include?

Employee Engagement

8. What do you think it means for employees to be engaged with the SMS?

(prompts)

Motivated

Belief in leadership

Personal interest

Excited

9. What makes this happen?

(prompts)

Views on the importance of safety

Competence/confidence

Negative attitude towards risk

Positive attitude towards reporting

Individuals background/education

10. What impact does this have?

(prompts)

- Fear of being culpable?
- Strong competent SMS
- Active, visible and passionate leadership
- Climate
- Financial incentive?

11. What other elements do you think are important for the development and maintenance of safety culture?

Appendix F. Ethics Approval Letter

Head of School of Sport & Education
Professor Ian Rivers

Brunel
UNIVERSITY
L O N D O N

Frank Owusu-Sekyere
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School of Sport and Education
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6th August 2014

Dear Frank

RE80-13 Researching the implementation of the international standards to safeguard children in sport: attraction to change

I am writing to confirm the Research Ethics Committee of the School of Sport and Education received your application connected to the above mentioned research study. Your application has been independently reviewed to ensure it complies with the University/School Research Ethics requirements and guidelines.

The Chair, acting under delegated authority, is satisfied with the decision reached by the independent reviewers and is pleased to confirm there is no objection on ethical grounds to grant ethics approval to the proposed study.

Any changes to the protocol contained within your application and any unforeseen ethical issues which arise during the conduct of your study must be notified to the Research Ethics Committee for review.

On behalf of the Research Ethics Committee for the School of Sport and Education, I wish you every success with your study.

Yours sincerely


Dr Richard J Godfrey
Chair of Research Ethics Committee
School Of Sport and Education



Appendix G. Raw Data

| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
|---------------------|--|---|---|---|---|
| Safeguarding Policy | <p>“Without policy you are at the mercy of the consumers. They will either accept what you’re doing or not. If there is a policy that guides what you should do...people will have to comply” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> <p>“That’s where the policy comes in. The policy says you must meet this and you must put these things in place” (Caribbean Sports Co. Co-founder)</p> <p>“You need policy, not just starting a club anyhow...then, you are guided [through] the process and people have to conform” (Sports Club Owner)</p> | <p>“The child protection policy for us is important because we do a lot of advocacy in the community... whenever we have any interaction with parents where child protection is an issue, then we would highlight that and say, you know, this goes against our policy, so we won’t let you do that, you know?” (Director)</p> <p>“It means that when we are working with external partners... it really helps us to know... to have a standard and to know that they will hopefully also</p> | <p>“It’s the code of conduct. It sets standards for the club, and says what the club finds acceptable and what we don’t. It’s to make sure everyone’s on the same page and to ensure a good standard of practice” (Safeguarding Officer)</p> <p>“The safeguarding policies and things like that have to be in place first and foremost, and then all the other things come around it” (Safeguarding Officer)</p> <p>“We are rolling out our global safeguarding policy. I think people can see, it’s not just words, the policy and the</p> | <p>“We created our own child protection policy that pulled in the experience of doing it in all of these countries around the world. We made that a central point for our discussion and then built everything out from there” (Founder and Global Strategist)</p> <p>“The child protection policy that we have is a direct result of my work both with [global child protection organisations] and consultation with [experienced] coaches” (Founder and Education Strategist)</p> | <p>“Our policy is at a place where we’ve made a lot of significant changes so that it could be an overarching piece” (Safeguarding Manager)</p> <p>“We do have a very general safeguarding policy which everyone has signed on to” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> <p>“You have to point out that this is a policy that everyone [is] accountable to. Those who want to be part of the organisation, there’s no exception. If you don’t sign, you</p> |

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| | | <p>implement the same standards in their own lives” (Director)</p> <p>“After developing these policies when everybody was told we have to do this, we are not supposed to do this...we are very keen” (Health Officer)</p> | <p>procedures...we actually do what we say on the tin” (Head of Welfare)</p> | <p>“I think [the policy and systems] have to go hand in hand. Some people create a policy just to create a policy and satisfy somebody’s tick box” (Chief Executive Strategist)</p> | <p>can’t join, that is that” (Programme Manager and Focal Point)</p> <p>“It provides an accountability measure. If it’s explicitly part of their job, it’s in their job description, [then] it’s also what they’re measured against during their performance measurement at the end of the year” (Manager of Programme Operations)</p> |
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| Theme | | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
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| Incentives | The Child | <p>“As a coach you have to be aware ...you have to safeguard the children as much as you can” (Sports Coach)</p> <p>“It requires dialogue...we are</p> | <p>I want that staff member and that coach, whose role it is to implement the policy, to think about it and to implement it even without oversight.</p> | <p>“Once they come into your trust and responsibility; you have to then start putting good practice in place to actually make sure that that child is safe</p> | <p>“We talk to the coaches about how important it is to protect children, what coaches should always do, what they should never do, what children have</p> | <p>“For us it’s connecting with yourself to be able to connect with others. So we always do an activity to identify who they are as an individual, their</p> |

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| | | <p>doing this because we have a crisis of kids being abused, not just by coaches, but also by their peers etc. So, we are putting these things in place really to try to make it safer” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> | <p>I won't do that just by threatening them with losing their job, I'll do that if I inspire them, if I inspire them to believe that it's really important, Director</p> | <p>and the content is appropriate” (International Football Programme Manager) “We have such a responsibility to look after them well and that is paramount. They're a special commodity” (International Football Programme Manager)</p> | <p>the rights to and things like that” (ICA Coach) “One of the key components is that it can't just be a sheet of paper [that you] sign and stick it in a briefcase. There needs to be an emotional connection. If you actually want it to have an impact, it has to resonate, [and] be something that people will believe in” (Chief Executive Strategist)</p> | <p>own personal experience with violence and abuse throughout their lives, and the way that affects the way that they perceive safeguarding and how they interact with children” (Safeguarding Manager) “It requires them to be reflect on their experiences as a child” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer) “If it comes from within it's so natural. You'll be able to translate it in whatever context and in whatever</p> |
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| | | | | | | challenge” (Regional Training Officer) |
| The Individual | <p>“We are saying this is best practice, it not only protects the children but also protects you the individual who may be doing something out of good intention but ending up in... falling out of the system because somebody makes a claim that you may have been involved in something inappropriate” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> <p>“You the coach have to safeguard yourself <u>first</u>” (Sports Officer)</p> <p>“Speaking to the child alone, you have to do that in a way that other people that</p> | <p>“Whereby a coach may be violating the rights of a child... I want to put it... We’ll maybe... She’ll have something to answer...” (Community Coach)</p> <p>“Maybe I will tell the staff that if you do a certain thing like... If you do a certain thing like that, maybe you will lose your job” (Community Coach)</p> <p>“Inspiring them, but also, I mean, at the back of it, it comes down to a bit of that threat of knowing that there are consequences for actions, and so that if you don’t do X, Y</p> | <p>“In your contract... let’s say I’d not chased something up or followed something up and then it gets highlighted, it’s me that gets it... gets it... sacked” (Community Coach)</p> <p>“So, I think, for us, it’s more the fear factor of being accused or getting yourself into trouble” (Community Coach)</p> <p>“If you don’t have them in place, then it’s all on your shoulders and</p> | <p>“We always talk about it like the law...because fear of, you know...that might be it, that might force people to do things” (ICA Coach)</p> <p>“If you’re a sound human being surely you wouldn’t like to be accused of child sexual abuse, would you? It’s to protect the coaches themselves that we need to have a rigorous safeguarding system in place” (National Representative)</p> | <p>“They do it because they want a job, they want to get paid, they don’t want to get fired” (Programme Manager and Focal Point)</p> <p>“[They are motivated by] the knowledge of organisational policies on safeguarding and the consequences. So, there’s a bit of the fear built-in as well” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> | |

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| | | are around are not observing something that could be....errr.... hurtful to your <u>name</u> , or to your position as a coach. You know... Things happen....” (Sports Club Owner) | will happen” (Director) | no one else's. So it's always important to make sure you're covered” (Apprentice Community Coach) | | |
| The Organisation | <p>“If I am a national governing body I want to put that in the public domain when I go to seek funding to say ‘we are safe stamp certified’. I think we need to do that, create incentives for them” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> <p>“When sports organisations are sending out national teams to represent the country, they request assistance from us, or we would provide them with exemption from departure taxes.</p> | <p>“Yes, it is very important for the organisation, Kenya Girls Club, to protect the child because most of the time the children are at the field with the name of Kenya Girls Club. So, I think it’s up to the organisation to protect the children</p> | <p>“It's also about the reputation of the business. We have to protect children, protect staff, but we're also doing it to protect the reputation of the business. We can't afford to do anything wrong or have anything bad happen in those things” (Safeguarding Officer)</p> <p>“Working for such a big football club, that’s a bigger</p> | <p>“Countries that have had a lot more funding, to be honest, are the ones where you’ll see a lot more effort” (Safeguarding Manager)</p> <p>“Where there was a lot more funding you’ll see that the country managers take it a lot further because of that funding” (Safeguarding Manager)</p> | | |

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| | | <p>These are some areas that we can use as leverage... a very small way that we can influence the thinking for people” (Director of Sport)</p> <p>“The government is always on its P and Q’s. While someone outside me go out and do anything, and get away free, they always hold the government responsible. So, the government is always putting in place measures so that they can safeguard <u>themselves</u>” (Sport Club Owner)</p> | <p>because they’re using the name of the organisation to participate in various activities”.</p> <p>the fact that we’re having a child protection policy is also a bit, okay, let’s say, pushed by donors, because child protection is a big thing, like, in Europe, where the money comes from.</p> <p>M and e</p> | <p>fear as well because of the brand “(Community Coach)</p> <p>“Wherever the badge is, you’ve got to protect children. If you get it wrong, it’s a big issue. You only need to get it wrong once, and your reputation is in tatters” (Safeguarding Officer)</p> | | |
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| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
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| Training Internal Training (top) | “We have training at three different levels. We have the basic awareness, foundation and then | “We have the advanced training where we’re able to look back and say, ‘okay, in April, this | “[We] have been running safeguarding awareness one-and-a-half hour sessions | “It’s very much a pupil-teacher model. They’re less experienced when | “You have to train and stuff to understand what you want them to know” (Admin and |

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| <p>External Training (bottom)</p> | <p>training for those designated child protection officers in their organisations” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> <p>“We need to start getting more of these workshops organised because it was an eye-opener for us” (Sports Officer)</p> <p>“So we would engage coaches and do a structured session with video and questions and answers, but also connected to good, child friendly coaching techniques” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> | <p>is what we said you should do in the fields. Have you been doing it, what are the challenges?’, and also just to give them a refresher” (Director)</p> <p>“We equip them with information, and we normally train them on how one can become a good facilitator so that they can go and deliver the same information to the other girls in their league fields” (Training and Events Co-ordinator)</p> <p>“After training the TOTs, they normally go back to their divisions and bring together the girls from each field, whereby the same information</p> | <p>for the stewards, and I can’t believe how popular they are” (Safety and Security Training Manager)</p> <p>“Even though you have to update [your coaching qualifications] every three years, we’re encouraged to update them every year to keep your mind fresh” (Apprentice Community Coach)</p> <p>“People come up with new ideas and stuff like that, so I think it’s important to make sure you’re always keeping stuff in your head fresh” (Apprentice Community Coach)</p> <p>“We have the opportunity to attend local training under child</p> | <p>they come on board, they will partner with a more experienced coach and then its ‘this is how we do it, how does that fit with you?’” (Founder and Education Strategist)</p> <p>“Our senior people have all had the opportunity to work with various people in the programmes and then they’ve built their own skills as well, so they have an incredible skill set” (Founder and Global Strategist)</p> <p>“Our job is to educate coaches to be aware of everything that’s going on, but, dogs walk across the field, cows walk across the field, motorbikes go across the fields in</p> | <p>HR Support Officer)</p> <p>“We incorporate safeguarding into our training every year” (Programme Manager and Focal Point)</p> <p>“All staff take part in safeguarding training, including like, the finance people, who are never going to be around a child, but still have to have the knowledge” (Manager of Programme Operations)</p> <p>“One of the thing that we talk amongst our self in the programme is that we incorporate this you know, child safeguarding concept of positive discipline in the training every year”. (Programme</p> |
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| | | they've been getting, they deliver the same information to the girls" (Training and Events Co-ordinator) | protection or social workers so that's quite a nice experience" (Safeguarding Officer) | these rural communities. So, it's not easy... but, making people aware of the safety of children — it's part of what we do in the in the training" (Founder and Global Strategist) "We've got our own child rights curriculum which we play on-field, games that teach about various rights of the children, that we're also taking from the UN Rights of the Children" (Chief Executive Strategist) | manager and Focal Point) "We try to build the capacity of teachers, of local coaches to implement child-centred learning methodologies. We also make sure that they know and they practise, positive discipline" (Regional Training Officer) |
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| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
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| | "We have meetings with different sections and child safeguarding will come up" (Sports Officer) | "The whole process of the child protection policy has been quite participatory. So, before it was | "We meet up on a regular basis and any problems that are raised since the last meeting are spoken about, it's | "I think the biggest thing is that it has to become acceptable to discuss it" (Chief Executive Strategist) | "In the majority of the countries we work, we have junior leader programmes and safeguarding clubs. |

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| Communication | <p>“We are desensitising magistrates, police, teachers etc. and I have also mentioned it at the last meeting sport coaches and staff. You know, to try to raise awareness” (Child Protection Officer)</p> <p>“Right now we are delivering, every month, sessions for the children’s homes to help them to raise their awareness” (Youth Development Officer)</p> | <p>implemented or accepted, we had quite a number of meetings with staff members to discuss these issues” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> <p>“We engage parents in meetings and other events. Like when we are having Tumanyana, this is a forum where girl’s parents are coming together to meet and discuss issues that are affecting their children, and the way forward” (District Co-ordinator)</p> <p>“Sometimes we discuss on issues of early pregnancies, on how maybe the parents could support us. Like taking care of the</p> | <p>never brushed under the carpet” (Safeguarding Officer)</p> <p>“We’ve gone through many meetings and we’ve now got many procedures in place with the security team” (Lead Scout)</p> <p>“Everybody’s receptive and will take on board observations and things that need discussing or bringing up at phase meetings” (Academy Coach)</p> | <p>“What [ICA and the government] do is to educate people through information...whereby we educate [parents and carers] to look after children and to provide what they are required to have” (Government Official)</p> <p>“[ICA and the government] raise awareness to public, and particularly parents...the abuses that we’re seeing right now, there are very few culprits, [but] people who are actually [damaging] society” (Government Official)</p> | <p>These children do awareness-raising activities in their schools, communities and with their parents and caregivers to keep themselves and one another safe” (Safeguarding Manager)</p> <p>“We recognise that the youth have innate leadership abilities that we could tap into. So in a given community or in a given school, we recognise that there will be students there who are both willing and have the motivation to provide some leadership roles with their peers. We call them Junior Leaders” (Regional Training Officer)</p> |
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| | | children during the league participation. So we normally discuss issues during the events” (District Co-ordinator) | | | |
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| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
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| Planning (preventative and emergency) | <p>“We have done fire safety training, so for that disaster preparedness and our next session is on first-aid” (Child Protection Officer)</p> <p>“One of the things that we try to do is to prevent the over-competitiveness. So, there is a program, in *****, when they come to visit us, we’re not going to play [area] vs. [area]. It will be a mixed thing to encourage the</p> | <p>“Not to avoid [issues] but to find... okay, so if we had a strategy that required all the children to come to Kilifi, which is a bit of a distance for them to travel, can we undertake the same activity, you know, split it into smaller groups and do it in the fields where the girls live, nearer to the localities where the girls live?” (Director)</p> | <p>“This is not infallible, things will go wrong. The majority of our work is proactive, it’s preventative. You need to recognise that things will go wrong and you need to be able to do with them appropriately” (Head of Safeguarding)</p> <p>“Whenever we are out on the premises we do a risk assessment. Things like; making sure</p> | <p>“Anyone that works for CAC as a volunteer or as a staff member, goes through as much as we possibly can with child protection training, background checks etc.” (Chief Executive Strategist)</p> <p>“We have a tough application process. I think just the application form takes most people two or three hours...we don’t take people just</p> | <p>“It’s very important. We have a two-prong piece...a confidential reporting system you can access online or by phone...and the email. They can email their report form and then that’s goes through the follow-up process” (Safeguarding Manager)</p> <p>“There needs to be a system whereby if there is any cause for concern, that these can be raised</p> |

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| | <p>promotion of peace between neighbouring communities” (Minister of Health)</p> <p>“It should be proactive, not just waiting for something to happen. We can’t always react, you need to put things in place to make sure it <u>doesn’t</u> happen” (Child Protection Officer)</p> | <p>“If they can solve it, they solve at the field level. If it’s not up to their level, then they will refer it to us, the Divisional Co-ordinators. So when we get the information from the field leaders, that’s when we go to the community and follow the government structure of reporting cases. If it is an emergency we don’t need to go to the village elders, we go directly to the police, or the children’s officer” (District Co-Ordinator)</p> <p>“We also do referrals. In case we have intervened a case, and then we reach at a point</p> | <p>we’ve got first aid box; understanding child protection policies; and knowing who the designated child protection officers are” (Community Coach)</p> | <p>because they want to volunteer if they’re not a positive part of it” (Founder and Global Strategist)</p> | <p>in proper channels. [At ICRC] everybody is aware of what these channels are” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> <p>“Now in some schools we have safeguarding committees in the schools” (Project Co-ordinator)</p> <p>“[In this school] there is like, a system where they have a security teacher, one per floor, walking around, monitoring” (Local Teacher)</p> <p>“[Despite questions around its integrity] we still do a background and criminal check. We [also] do the reference check and ask about any safeguarding</p> |
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| | | where we cannot... So we do referrals so that they can get support from other places” (District Co-Ordinator) | | | matters” (Programme Manager and Focal Point) “You have to be able to find the right people. We do have certain administrative checks. Like background check, an application from and the interview process” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer) |
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| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
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| Control (Internal and Benchmarking) | “Even from the beginning it was not just about addressing the issues that we have here locally and regionally, but taking the lessons learned and sharing it with the wider sporting world, which we continue to do. I think | “We have a review of the child protection policy still on the agenda for this year and we’ve reviewed it, I think, one and a half years ago internally” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer) | “There was a problem at a tournament we went to. I thought the community department had all of their trips and tours protocols boxed off...not so. We did a full internal review down the line” | “Every programme we’ve worked with since 2014 we’ve gone through our child protection training...we’re seeing what is working and what the best practices are” (Chief Executive Strategist) | “During our triannual comprehensive review, we look at compliance and acknowledge behaviour...we’ve also had a lot of recommendations on what needs to go into it from our teams; building on best practises, |

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| | <p>everybody learns something and we have something to share” (Caribbean Sports Co. Co-founder)</p> <p>“Part of [the] process [is] learning from other organisations and especially those who are leading. We do that maybe twice per year to share with them the updates and gain feedback around the overall agenda for safeguarding” (Caribbean Sports Co. Co-founder).</p> <p>“For organisations we are using the audit developed by [an international organisation]. We are using that to audit organisations, to make sure that they meet the basic standard...and we</p> | <p>“Once you are made aware of an international standard, then you want to make sure that you’re matching up to international standards” (Director)</p> | <p>(Head of Safeguarding)</p> <p>“It’s like plate spinning, isn’t it? You have just got keep going back and checking and geeing things up” (Head of Safeguarding)</p> <p>“We have been involved in research with ***** University. We did a quite detailed project around the safest way children can participating in sessions” (International Football Programme Manager)</p> | <p>“We learn from [other organisations] and from each other, in terms of sharing with other organisations. I think there’s a very, very well-networked group of sports and development organisations [and] we are a part of that network (Chief Executive Strategist)</p> <p>“We have a very comprehensive monitoring and evaluation system, we call it our WISER model. Those questions would identify if any of our staff was approaching child protection matters in a way that was not part of our policy (Founder and</p> | <p>lessons learned, challenges, and international trends” (Safeguarding Manager)</p> <p>“It’s important that we [review to] ensure it’s going according to plan and it’s up to the standard that we hold to accomplish” (Programme Manager and Focal Point)</p> |
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| | <p>use it for ourselves too” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> <p>“Those things do not work in silos, you can obviously see the research informing practice, and informing policy” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> | | | <p>Educational Strategist)</p> | |
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| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
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| Awareness | <p>“We never really used to think about safeguarding but then when we had the workshop we said ‘okay, we can do this’” (Sports Officer)</p> <p>“It’s not always about the child being able to tell somebody anything. People have to be <u>aware</u>,</p> | <p>“Okay. I can say everyone is aware about this because I’ve seen most of the girls” (Community Coach)</p> <p>“That [awareness] is [there] because we raise the issue even before we arrive at the tournament, and when we arrive,</p> | <p>“People are doing a job, what they have to do is do that job with safeguarding [in mind]. That says yes, we’re going to do X, Y, Z, but, if we do that, potentially there’s a risk” (Head of Safeguarding)</p> <p>“I think everyone is and has to be aware and be informed,</p> | <p>“[They] follow the sensitive, culturally aware, respectful approach in any event. Whenever we do anything in our own culture or a different culture, we need to be aware of the necessity to do that” (Founder and Educational Strategist)</p> | <p>“Recognising the importance of safeguarding, gender, community engagement, inclusion...it makes us successful in the organisation because we naturally make our decisions around them. It’s the knowledge” (Manager of</p> |

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| | <p>as to what to see and what to look for” (Child Protection Officer)</p> <p>“As a coach you have to be aware” (Sports Coach)</p> | <p>our staff and all our volunteers are aware and they will raise those issues” (Director)</p> <p>“I feel awareness [plays] a very big part” (Health Officer)</p> | <p>and not be ignorant of some of the problems that there are out there” (Academy Coach)</p> <p>“We’re very conscious of making sure that we are a safe environment for kids to have a positive experience in” (International Football Programme Manager)</p> | <p>“Our staff have learned at an extremely quick rate because we’re all working across so many different communities...even people that have started just a year ago” (Chief Executive Strategist)</p> | <p>Programme Operations)</p> <p>“There is an increasing awareness as far as our local staff are concerned. Everyone has gone into a level where safeguarding is part and parcel of what we do” (Regional Training Officer)</p> |
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| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
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| Shared Values, Attitudes and Beliefs | <p>“We have always seen it to be very important” (Youth Development Officer)</p> <p>“Safeguarding should be a priority of your work and it doesn’t matter which organisation” (Child Protection Officer)</p> | <p>“Everybody in the organisation [is] supporting the children’s rights” (Community Coach)</p> <p>“In most cases it is rape and child labour issues” (District Co-ordinator)</p> | <p>“We are individuals that care and want to integrate and have those relationships with the families as well as the players, because they need to trust us” (Head of Welfare)</p> <p>“We are all on the same wavelength. We all treat the kids</p> | <p>“I think all of us are in this together because we want to see the human rights improve globally” (Chief Executive Strategist)</p> <p>“It’s such a part of my values and who I am that I wouldn’t have to</p> | <p>“Having values that align with child safeguarding. Values that align with Right to Play is imperative to anybody being successful within the organisation” (Manager of Programme Operations)</p> |

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| | <p>“It is very important! It is very, very important! You can just kill and hurt a child by the way you approach and the way you talk to them. [They] may never come back” (Sports Officer)</p> | <p>“My major challenge is on rape cases” (Community Coach)</p> <p>“The sexual issues like rape and early marriages” (District Co-ordinator)</p> <p>“I mean, it is integral to everything” (Director)</p> <p>“In my organisation it is very important” (Health Officer)</p> <p>“I think we all agree it is important...” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> <p>“In the organisation, the staff, volunteers, the stakeholders, and also the managers. It’s my responsibility, and it’s our responsibility”</p> | <p>as if they were our own...everybody’s of the same mindset” (Head of Welfare)</p> <p>“Everyone sees the benefit and the reason. There’s a safety culture within this organisation because we’re constantly working with children and we’ve all got the same ethos” (Academy Coach)</p> <p>“That’s what we are here for really, to protect the children” (Community Coach)</p> <p>“It’s about everybody within the organisation understanding the role they play in keeping children safe” (Head of Safeguarding)</p> <p>“Everyone is aware of their</p> | <p>look back and be like, ‘Oh I can’t hit a child!?’...” (ICA Coach)</p> <p>“We know the policy and we don’t just say this is the policy, this is how to treat children, we as people treat children like that, that’s who we are” (ICA Coach)</p> | <p>“Generally, we have the same beliefs, so I think it’s easy for us” (Training Officer)</p> <p>“I mean if [the organisational missions] are in sync with personal beliefs that’s great. It’s much more engrained, it becomes like a habit and it’s just a matter of course” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> <p>“You need people whose beliefs and attitudes will match the organisation aims” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> |
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| | | <p>(Community Coach)</p> <p>“I think it’s everybody’s responsibility, yes, and I think that’s also what we try to... you know, discuss with the girls” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> <p>“All of us...I and the staff must ensure the children are safe” (Health Officer)</p> <p>“Everyone needs to [protect the child]” (Training and Event Manager)</p> | <p>responsibilities” (Academy Coach)</p> <p>“I think that’s one thing that goes throughout the club, that we all feel responsible for looking after the welfare of the kids that are left in our charge” (Academy Coach)</p> <p>“As a coach its always our responsibility to make sure we are taking care of the children we work with” (Apprentice Community Coach)</p> | | |
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| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
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| Initiative | “If I see something happening, I will not want to turn a blind eye because I’m more knowledgeable, I | “Nobody really organises an event in isolation, so, if I organise something, then, you know, my | “Nobody would shy away from helping or observing or making a comment to people if they saw a problem | “We try to be good examples. We’re always watching what’s going on. If somebody’s ever hurt we tell them to | “If we see harm in front of us we always react” (Programme Manager and Focal Point) |

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| | <p>am more aware about this now. I would feel as though, you know, this is my responsibility and I must do this to help this child” (Sports Officer)</p> <p>“People are actually looking out, looking out for these incidences. That some of the things that I have noticed” (Minister of Sport)</p> <p>“A child may not always come in say ' I have a problem at home'. You need to approach that child in whatever is the appropriate way and asked them to try and find out what the issue is, and whether there may be an issue or not” (Child Protection Officer)</p> | <p>colleagues are also there, and people will give you feedback like, ‘oh, perhaps we should look at this a bit” (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> <p>“There have been many issues rais[ed]... we’ve tried to solve and give feedback.” (Community Coach)</p> <p>“We saw it in the field whereby a coach was throwing a bad, abusive words to a player after his team was beaten by opponent, yes. So we went to the coach. We told him that this is not good. Then the coach listened to us” (Community Coach)</p> | <p>arising” (Academy Coach)</p> <p>“You do [have situations] where you’re actually saying we don’t do that here, that’s not how we do things” (International Football Programmes Manager)</p> <p>“I feel quite fortunate now because we have got to situation where people come to me and say ‘we are about to do this, we need your opinion on XYZ”” (Head of Safeguarding)</p> <p>“If someone sees something and thinks, potentially there is risk, then they will pull them aside and tell them” (Community Coach)</p> | <p>step off and we’re also watching the surroundings and making sure that it’s a safe environment” (ICA Coach)</p> <p>“There is no support from the government so we do everything...even if the grass grows up we take our own money and cut the grass” (Local Coach)</p> <p>“Kick-started by our training or us raising it, we’ve got local groups that are starting their own child protection policy now and our staff are work[ing] with [them]” (Chief Executive Strategist)</p> <p>“People have different roles and the emails go every way, so that there’s actually the</p> | <p>"I went to a detention centre...the director was calling all of the children names and telling me, that one is here for murder, this one for rape etc. I approached the Director and said let’s not call them names. Did you notice them? This is emotional abuse and what about their right to confidentiality?” (Programme Manager and Focal Point)</p> <p>“If staff notice a problem they will talk to the teacher to find out what the problem is” (Admin and HR Officer)</p> <p>“It’s a group of people that practice what they preach”</p> |
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| | <p>“All the coaches take the responsibility to ensure that the athletes are safe” (Sports Officer)</p> | <p>“I had a girl who was being withdrawn from school... I approached the employer to the girl and the employer was summoned. She was forced to pay the girl twice so that we can cater for her school needs, and take the girl back to school. It worked! The girl completed her class 8 last year. So sometimes it works but it needs.... like.... you have to be on top of it.” (District Co-ordinator)</p> | | <p>professional development of the curriculum and the capacity to implement that curriculum is because they are architects of it as distinct from just delivers of it (Founder and Education Strategist)</p> | <p>(Regional Training Officer) “I have people coming to me like ‘we need to have this in place what else can we do?’. We have country focal points saying, ‘why don’t have we have funding for this?’ (Safeguarding Manager) “Even before we implement an activity we think about the safety and the impact [of the activity]. That is applied with every ICRC employee. We think about the student first, even before the teachers or partners” (Training Officer)</p> |
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| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
| | “So it is not just about presenting standards and saying | “I want that staff member or that coach, whose role it | You do [find yourself in situations where] | “You have role models. It could be mentors, it could be | “If you look, sort of, more at the concept of leader |

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| <p>Stakeholder Leadership</p> | <p>‘this is all we have to do’, but getting into a dialogue that helps them to understand the purpose, the intention and that it is not intended to scare them or make life difficult for them” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> <p>“When these things are presented it generates concern from people who think ‘How is it possible? How can we adhere to that?’, but the dialogue [we have] leads to understanding the intent, which often leads us to.... this is not to make life difficult for you” (Caribbean Sports Co. Director)</p> | <p>is to implement the policy, to think about it and to implement it even without oversight. I won’t do that just by threatening them with losing their job. I’ll do that [best] if I inspire them to believe that it’s really important”. (Director)</p> | <p>you’re actually saying, well, actually, we don’t do that here; that’s not how we do things. You know, we want to do it this way. So you have to be [critical], in the nicest possible way (Head of Safeguarding)</p> <p>“[sometimes it’s] just keeping people’s mindset on: yes, I’ve got to do my job, but I have a responsibility to all those people in my care” (Safety and Security Training Manager)</p> | <p>counsellors. People at the top, people at the bottom they come down, they come up and then if you do that you will reach a critical mass” (Government Official)</p> | <p>as in, you know, who’s Senior Director, CEO, [inaudible] aspects I think as well, what’s really important, that they’re strong advocates for child safeguarding interaction, because that pushes everyone behind them” (Safeguarding Manager)</p> <p>“So the learning interventions that I usually use is not only in terms of training them, but also in terms of coaching them, in terms of mentoring our local staff” (Regional Training Officer)</p> |
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| Theme | Caribbean Sports Co. | Kenya Girls Club | Euro FC | ICA | ICRC |
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| SMS leadership | <p>“We [the directors] recognised that just enhancing the capacity of individuals is kind of limited because they struggle when they go back into a system without support. So in addition to the programme, capacity building and providing support for those people who deliver programmes, we started including resources, M&E tools and all of that (Caribbean Sports Co. Co-founder)</p> <p>“Our role to a large extent is really about resourcing the organisation, moving our agenda forward and scaling it up” (Caribbean</p> | <p>“It’s everyone’s responsibility, but it’s [especially] the responsibility of those who are in management or who are the ones designing and implementing the programmes to create an environment where all adults and children are held responsible and also given direction on how to implement the child safeguarding system”. (Monitoring and Evaluation Officer)</p> <p>“I think... just to make it so that it’s really part and parcel of organisations that are implementing this work” (Director)</p> | <p>“The [management] are wholly committed to having such culture. [They] provide a significant budget to do that and we are quite fortunate in that regard” (Head of Safeguarding)</p> <p>“I think because, on the whole, everyone is so busy in their roles across the company, it's making sure that safeguarding doesn't take a back seat” (Safeguarding Officer)</p> <p>“I will always, to the annoyance sometimes of other staff, will take the ball and run with it. I am very</p> | <p>“It’s not just hey, ‘you need to put together a policy because we’re telling you to’, but ‘this is something we really believe in and we’re working with you with the resources’ and then they understand that it’s important” (Chief Executive Strategist)</p> <p>“I think it needs a proper plan, proper planning and proper resource allocation. If [leaders] don’t invest, don’t expect results” (Government Official)</p> | <p>“The country manager has been really intentional about integrating it into the programme structure. It’s embedded in the programmes, models, outcome indicators, every system and procedure. So over time we will continue to see more and more growth” (Safeguarding Manager)</p> <p>“The fact that [management] build in safeguarding as such a core component of our work just demonstrates the importance of it to me... To me, the fact that we focus so much on weaving it</p> |

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| | Sports Co. Director) | | determined in most situations to see a conclusion to what has happened” (Head of Safeguarding) | | throughout all of our work is a demonstration of a [safety culture]” (Manager of Programme Operations) |
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