

# RESEARCHING AND ENHANCING ATHLETE WELFARE

Daniel Rhind & Celia Brackenridge (Eds.)

*Proceedings of  
the Second  
International  
Symposium of  
the Brunel  
International  
Research  
Network for  
Athlete  
Welfare  
(BIRNAW) 2013*

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## Acknowledgements

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## BIRNAW

The Brunel International Network for Athlete Welfare is an informal network set up to promote information exchange and research on the subject of athlete welfare, broadly defined. Members of the BIRNAW list include researchers, students, policy makers, advocates from sport and child protection, and government officials. BIRNAW works to maximise the impact of scientific research on athlete welfare and to provide evidence to underpin lobbying for humanitarian change in sport. Previous BIRNAW publications, including research reports, may be found at <http://www.brunel.ac.uk/sse/sport-sciences/research/birnow>

If you are interested in being listed with BIRNAW please contact Dr Daniel Rhind whose email address is above.

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## ***Preface***

Dr Anita White OBE

Sport is a cultural phenomenon that touches the lives and captures the imagination of many people. Most people assume that sport is “a good thing” and that participation in sport will bring physical, psychological and social benefits to participants and societies. However, as this body of work shows, this is not necessarily or always the case. Abuse and exploitation can and does occur in sport – a fact that sports enthusiasts and sports organisations have been slow to acknowledge.

The Brunel International Research Network for Athlete Welfare (BIRNAW) is a remarkable initiative that brings together researchers and policy makers from a variety of disciplines, organisations and countries. The activities and publications of this group have successfully provided an evidence base that has drawn attention to the issues in a powerful and convincing way. Its impact on the world of sport has been significant and is an excellent example of research informing sport policy and improving the practice of sport.

Through the work of those involved in BIRNAW, inspired by the vision of Celia Brackenridge and her colleagues at Brunel University London, awareness has been raised, and safeguarding measures are being put in place to ensure the welfare of athletes. There is still much to be done, but the world of sport, and those athletes whose welfare is now safeguarded, already have much to thank them for.

Chichester  
March 2014

## **Contributor details**

### **Professor Emerita Celia Brackenridge OBE** – Brunel University London, UK

Celia is attached to the Brunel Centre for Sport, Health and Wellbeing at Brunel University London. She has carried out major studies of on women and leadership in leisure management and child protection in sport, including abuse and harassment issues. She was programme consultant to the IOC Medical Commission Consensus Statement on Sexual Harassment and Abuse in Sport and to the UNICEF working group on violence against children in sport. Celia is author of *Spoilsports: Understanding and preventing sexual exploitation in sport* (Routledge, 2001).

### **Dr Abbe Brady** - Senior Lecturer, University of Gloucestershire, UK

During her 20-year career, Abbe has worked with young people both directly and through others, across a range of contexts as an educator, researcher, youth worker, coach and sport psychologist. She lectures in sports coaching and sport psychology at the University of Gloucestershire. She has also worked in coach, mentor and tutor development for sports coach UK. As an accredited sport psychologist working in high performance settings, she has gained insights to discourse, praxis and varied experiences of young athletes, parents and coaches, which has fuelled her research interest to understand athlete wellbeing in high performance sport and to promote athlete-centred practice.

### **Elaine Cook** – doctoral student, University of Toronto, Canada

Elaine received her BSM (Hons), from Brock University, her MSc from the University of Regina, and she is currently completing her PhD. She is the founder of the Justplay Behavior Management Program, which monitors the conduct of coaches, players and spectators within the youth team sport environments. In January 2013, Elaine was appointed as a member of the Panathalon Cultural and Scientific Committee. She also holds certificates in Solution-Focused coaching, counselling and training. Her research interests include aspects of appropriate and inappropriate coaching behaviours, the influence of sport culture on coaching behaviour, coach learning and solution-focused coaching as a positive coaching trait.

### **Professor Kim Dorsch** – Faculty of Kinesiology and Health Studies, the University of Regina, Canada

Kim received her BSc (Hons), MSc, and PhD degrees from the Department of Kinesiology at the University of Waterloo, Ontario. Her area of specialty is the social psychology of physical activity and health, focused specifically on aspects of sport psychology. Kim also applies the principles of sport psychology as an educational sport psychology consultant with many teams and athletes across the Saskatchewan. Her research interests include: aspects of appropriate and inappropriate coaching behaviours; the examination of group dynamics within a sport setting (e.g. collective efficacy and cohesion); and sport performance issues and mental training (e.g. motivation, self-efficacy, aggression, hardiness, stress, coping skills). Currently, her research is focused on enhancing the performance of officials through the development of a biofeedback and concentration training protocol.

### **Professor Kari Fasting** - Norwegian School of Sport Sciences, Oslo, Norway

Kari is a Professor Emerita at the Norwegian Institute of Sport. She is a long-standing member and past President of the International Sociology of Sport Association. She is also the President of Women Sport International (WSI) and the NGO Representative of WSI in the International Working Group on Women and Sport. Kari is a member of the editorial boards of the *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, *The International Journal of Olympic Studies* and *International Journal of Sport Policy*. In 2010 she was given the Award of ISSA Honorary Member.

### **Dr Misia Gervis** - Brunel University London, England

Misia is a Senior Lecturer in sport psychology and coaching. As a sport psychologist she has worked with numerous National Governing Bodies and elite athletes. She is a senior consultant sport psychologist to

The Football Association, working with the women's senior national football team, and with specific remit to develop sports psychology through coach education. Through her research into the emotional abuse of elite child athletes, Misia takes an active role in the Child Protection in Sport Unit as a member of their Research and Evidence Advisory Group.

**Professor Steve Greenfield** – University of Westminster, UK

Steve is Deputy Head of the Westminster Law School. He has an LLB from Middlesex University, an MSc (Econ) from the London School of Economics, a PGC in Teaching and Learning in Higher Education from the Open University and a Graduate Diploma in Psychology from the University of Westminster. He developed the Centre for Law, Society and Popular Culture with Guy Osborn with whom he also co-edits a book series, *Studies in Law, Society and Popular Culture*. His teaching interests cover Film and the Law, Law and Culture, Sports Law, Media Law and Entertainment Law. His research has produced three books *Contract and Control in the Entertainment Industry*, (1998), *Film and the Law* (2001) and *Regulating Football* (2001). Steve is a founding editor of the *Entertainment and Sports Law Journal* (ESLJ). He has incorporated ideas and theories from both film theory and psychology in his research, the former around ideas of genre and law film. His latest publication analyses the portrayal of the British Executioner in the film *Pierpoint*, applying a framework of moral disengagement. Current projects include work with South African colleagues on the regulation of youth sport. He is also developing a survey instrument to measure the impact of litigation on range of personnel involved in the organisation and delivery of youth sport.

**Dr Mike Hartill** - Edge Hill University, UK

Mike holds a PhD in Sociology and has lectured within the Department for Sport and Physical Activity at Edge Hill University since 2001. His principal area of research is child sexual abuse in sport, with a particular focus on boys, men and masculinity. He has conducted research with adult male victims of child sexual abuse in sport as well as evaluations of child protection in sport policy. He works with a range of UK, European and international organisations and is currently coordinating the 'Sport Respects Your Rights' project for Edge Hill University. He has recently completed an evaluation of safeguarding and child protection in rugby league and, with colleague Dr Melanie Lang, is co-editor of *Safeguarding, Child Protection and Abuse in Sport: International Perspectives in Research, Policy and Practice* (July 2014, Routledge).

**Dr Ian Jones** - Centre for Event and Sport Research, Bournemouth University, UK

Ian is Associate Dean for Sport at Bournemouth University. He is author of *Research Methods for Sport Studies* (Routledge, 2014), and co-author of *Qualitative Research in Sport and Physical Activity* (Sage, 2012). His research interests focus on sport behaviour, particularly sport fan behaviour, and sport and wellbeing. Ian joined Bournemouth University in 2006 from the University of Luton where he was Director of Undergraduate Studies at the Luton Business School. He is a member of the editorial advisory boards for the *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, the *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, and the *International Journal of Festival and Event Management*, and has acted as reviewer for a number of journals including the *Journal of Sport Management*, *Leisure Studies*, *Leisure Sciences*, the *International Journal of Sport Management* and the *European Journal of Sport Science*.

**Agnes Kainz** – SPORTUNION, Austria

Agnes has been working in the sport-for-all movement since 2007. In her role as policy officer for ENGSO Youth (the youth organisation of the European Non-Governmental Sports Organisation), she has specialised in coordinating European project co-operations and funding applications in the youth sport sector since 2010. After having been involved (both as project manager and/ or application coordinator) in three successful co-operations funded by the 'Preparatory actions in the field of sport' (DG EAC) between 2010-2013 on behalf of the German Sports Youth, she is currently managing the European project 'Sport

respects your rights' for SPORTUNION Österreich and enhancing her management skills further through MBA studies.

**Emma J. Kavanagh** - Centre for Event and Sport Research, Bournemouth University

Emma is a lecturer in sports psychology and coaching sciences at Bournemouth University. Her research interests are within the academic disciplines of sports psychology and sociology. Current projects include an examination of humanisation and dehumanisation in high performance sport and its impact on the wellbeing of the athlete, and exploring the rights and protection of elite athletes in sport as an occupation. She is in the final stages of her PhD entitled: *A Narrative Inquiry into the Experience of Maltreatment in Competitive Sport*. As a BASES Accredited performance psychologist, Emma has worked with a number of athletes at national and international level and is currently part of the BASES child protection task group.

**Professor Emerita Sandra Kirby** - University of Winnipeg, Canada

Sandra is Associate Vice-President (Research) and Dean of Graduate Studies at the University of Winnipeg. She was one of the founding members in 1993 of the *WomenSport International* Task Force on Sexual Harassment and Abuse (chaired by Celia Brackenridge) and was part of the working groups on sexual abuse and child protection in sport for the IOC and UNICEF. She has authored a number of books including *The Dome of Silence: Sexual harassment and abuse in sport* (Fernwood, 2000) and *Experience Research and Social Change: Methods beyond the mainstream* (Broadview, 2006). Sandra completed the first ever quantitative survey of sexual harassment and abuse amongst high performance athletes (1996). She is also an Olympian and currently a competitive rower and cross country skier.

**Frank Owusu-Sekyere** - Doctoral candidate, Brunel University London, England, UK

Frank joined Brunel in 2008 as an Undergraduate student of Sport and Exercise Sciences. Having been awarded a 1<sup>st</sup> Class Honours Degree, he went on to complete a Graduate Diploma in Psychology at Middlesex University where he was awarded a Distinction. In 2012, Frank returned to Brunel as a Masters student of Sports and Exercise Psychology, completing the course with a Distinction. Frank's area of interest is child athlete welfare and his research has addressed specifically emotional abuse in youth sport. Frank is currently a PhD student at Brunel, conducting research on the International Standards for Safeguarding Children in Sport. He is also in training as a sport psychologist. Away from his studies, Frank has been an employee of Tottenham Hotspur Foundation since 2011. He is a Lead Mentor and a member of the Community Development arm of the Foundation and has undertaken a variety of other roles including Youth Mentor, Teacher and Multi Sports Coach (Football, Tennis and Softball). These roles contributed to Frank being awarded the inaugural 2012 Tottenham Hotspur Foundation Inspiration Award.

**Dr Dean Ravizza** – Bosserman Center for Conflict Resolution, Salisbury University, USA

Dean is an Associate Professor and in the Department of Health and Sport Sciences and Senior Research Practitioner in the Bosserman Center for Conflict Resolution at Salisbury University. His work focuses on the intersection of research, fieldwork, and practice to advance the uses of sport for children and youth affected by armed conflict and for other vulnerable children. He served as the principal investigator for a long term research project based in Northern Uganda with a primary focus on the role of sport in the reintegration and social inclusion of children and youth formerly associated with armed groups. Dean utilizes participatory research strategies with the aim of creating knowledge that is owned and used by and for the stakeholders to design and implement community-based social interventions utilizing sport within conflict-sensitive environments. His fieldwork and research has informed programmes with a number of community-based, non-governmental, and United Nations organisations on projects related to sport for development and peace for children and youth in crisis, including the UNICEF, the United Nations High Commission for Refugees, and the United States State Department's Sport United programme. He earned his Bachelor and Master of Science degrees from George Mason University and PhD from Virginia Tech University with an emphasis on psychosocial aspects of sport and physical activity. Dean holds affiliate



faculty status with the Center for the Study of Sport and Leisure in Society at George Mason University, and is an advisory board member for the Institute for the Development of Sport at the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia. He is also a regular lecturer for the *Communities in Crisis: Inclusive development through sport* seminar in Berlin, Germany for graduate students in the international Erasmus Mundus programme and international fieldworkers. Dean currently serves as an active member of the Washington Network on Children and Armed Conflict, the Education Working Group of the International Sport for Development and Peace Association, the Brunel University (UK) International Research Network for Athlete Welfare, and other strategic groups involving vulnerable children and youth.

**Dr Daniel Rhind** - Brunel University London, UK

Daniel joined Brunel University as a Lecturer in Youth Sport in September 2008 having completed his PhD at Loughborough University, MSc in Applied Psychology at Cranfield University and BSc in Social Psychology at Loughborough University. He is also a Chartered Psychologist. His research focuses on exploring the associations between the coach-athlete relationship and athlete welfare. He is particularly interested in how social factors can promote the maintenance of unhealthy relationships. His work has been presented at a range of international conferences and has been featured in leading journals, BBC News and on BBC Radio 4 as well as in *The Guardian* Newspaper, *Community Care* magazine and the CPSU newsletter *Relay*. Daniel was awarded the Sport Psychology Research Prize (\$500) by the Canadian Sports Centre, Manitoba in 2008. He has worked on research projects funded by The Football Association, the International Tennis Federation, the Rugby Football Union, the Daiwa Foundation, the European Commission and the Oak Foundation. He currently leads a three year project funded by International Inspiration to inform the development and implementation of a set of global standards to safeguard children in sport. Daniel leads the [Brunel International Research Network for Athlete Welfare \(BIRNAW\)](#). He is a member of the CPSU's Research Evidence and Advisory Group and is also an adjunct Professor at the University of Regina, Canada.

**Tine Vertommen** - University of Antwerp, Belgium

Tine has an MA in Ethics and an MSc in Criminology and is currently completing a PhD at the University of Antwerp on the prevalence and consequences of harassment and abuse in sport. She has been involved in projects analysing incident registration forms at the NOC\*NSF helpline for sexual harassment in sport in the Netherlands and projects advising sport authorities in developing a child protection policy in Flanders. Tine also works as a criminologist at the University Forensic Centre in Antwerp, where she facilitates the treatment of sexual offenders in Flanders, Belgium.

**Dr Anita White** – Chichester, UK

Anita is an independent consultant working in the field of national and international sport policy and sports development, and Vice Chair of International Inspiration. She qualified as a PE teacher in the late '60s and taught in schools and teacher education institutions for 12 years. She then went on to gain Masters and Doctoral degrees before setting up the Sports Studies degree course at West Sussex Institute of Higher Education (now the University of Chichester) in 1982. In 1990, she joined the Sports Council as Head of Development and was later one of three Senior Directors of Sport England from 1995 - 2000. Anita gained 54 caps for the England Field Hockey team and captained the team to victory in the World Cup in 1975. In January 2002 she was appointed as President of the GB Olympic Hockey Board. Anita is an acknowledged leader in the international Women and Sport movement. A founder member and former Chair of the Women's Sports Foundation (UK) she was responsible in her Sports Council role for the staging of the first international conference on Women and Sport in 1994. This resulted in the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport that now has world-wide currency. She co-chaired the International Working Group on Women and Sport from 1994 to 1998 and advises many countries and organisations on women's sports development. Most recently she established the Anita White Foundation and archive for women and sport which is curated at the University of Chichester.

## **PART 1: INTRODUCTION**

## Chapter 1: *Introduction to BIRNAW*

Dr Daniel Rhind

In June 2010, the Brunel International Research Network for Athlete Welfare (BIRNAW) was launched at an international symposium held at Brunel University. At this time, BIRNAW comprised 19 members from 9 countries. Since then, the network has trebled in size and now has 61 members from 19 countries. This growth is a manifestation of the increased interest in athlete welfare and wellbeing from academics, researchers and policy makers around the world.

As well as this geographical expansion, this area has also seen a broadening of the contexts to which work related to safeguarding has been applied. This has now moved beyond the focus of the previous book, elite child athlete welfare, to consider participants of all ages and competitive levels as well as a growing body of work in the sport for development sector. BIRNAW members have collaborated to undertake research funded by a variety of organisations including the European Commission, Daiwa Foundation, UK Sport, the International Federation and the Rugby Football Union.

The chapters within this book are based on presentations delivered at the 2<sup>nd</sup> BIRNAW Symposium which was held at Brunel University London in November 2013. In the planning stage of this event, BIRNAW members were consulted about the content which would be of most use to them. Based on their feedback, this event included material to support early career researchers, and presentations from practitioners and academics representing a range of disciplines including psychology, sociology, coaching, law and sport for development.

If you are interested in joining the network or if you have any questions about this research then please contact Dr Daniel Rhind ([Daniel.Rhind@Brunel.ac.uk](mailto:Daniel.Rhind@Brunel.ac.uk)). Previous BIRNAW publications, including various research reports and the book of the 2010 Symposium, may be found at <http://www.brunel.ac.uk/sse/sport-sciences/research/birnav>

The programme for the seminar is included below. Speakers Dr Gretchen Kerr, Dr Ashley Stirling and Sally Proudlove elected not to submit material for this book but contributed greatly to the general discussions at the Symposium, for which we are very grateful. Since the Symposium we have been saddened to learn of the illness of Ashley Stirling and wish her well from all at BIRNAW.

Emma Kavanagh of Bournemouth University was awarded the Celia Brackenridge Prize for the Best Young Presenter, a unanimous choice of the judging panel.

The final event of the Symposium was the launch of the *Celia Brackenridge Collection: Research and Advocacy Archive 1974-2013*. This archive is housed in the Brunel University Library and available for use by scholars and others by prior appointment. Please contact the Special Collections Officer Katie Flanagan on [Katie.flanagan@brunel.ac.uk](mailto:Katie.flanagan@brunel.ac.uk) to arrange access. A catalogue of the Archive contents may be seen at <http://www.brunel.ac.uk/services/library/research/special-collections/collections/celia-brackenridge>

**Brunel International Research Network for Athlete Welfare (BIRNAW)**

**International Symposium, November 6<sup>th</sup>, 2013**

<b>Time</b>	<b>Speaker</b>	<b>Topic</b>
9:15am	<b>Dr. Daniel Rhind</b>	Welcome and overview of the day, with DVD by Helen Owton
9:25am	<b>WORKSHOPS – Session chair Dr Anita White</b>	
9:30am	<b>Prof. Kari Fasting</b>	Collaborative research: Challenges and pitfalls across cultures
10:15am	<b>Prof. Celia Brackenridge</b>	Dancing with the devil: The politics of working with sport organisations
11am	<b>Break</b>	
	<b>PRESENTATIONS – Chair Dr Daniel Rhind</b>	
11:20am	<b>Elaine Cook &amp; Prof. Kim Dorsch</b>	Cultural norms in youth sport: What are they and how do we know?
11:40am	<b>Emma Kavanagh &amp; Dr Ian Jones</b>	#cyberviolence: Developing a typology for understanding virtual maltreatment in sport
12pm	<b>Prof. Steve Greenfield</b>	Concerns about litigation within youth sport
12:20pm	<b>Sally Proudlove</b>	Promoting partnerships to protect children in sport
12:40pm	<b>Lunch</b>	
1:30pm	<b>Frank Owusu-Sekyere &amp; Dr Misia Gervis</b>	Is creating mentally tough players a masquerade for emotional abuse?
1:50pm	<b>Dr. Abbe Brady</b>	A framework for humanisation and dehumanisation: exploring its potential for research and practices within athlete welfare
2:10pm	<b>Dr. Dean Ravizza</b>	Protecting children through sport in Uganda
2:30pm	<b>Dr. Mike Hartill</b>	Sport respects your rights – Empowering young Europeans in sport for a culture of respect and integrity and against sexualised violence and gender harassment
2:50pm	<b>Break</b>	
3:10pm	<b>Dr. Ashley Stirling</b>	Empower + creating positive and healthy sport experiences: A Coach education module written to safeguard athletes from abuse and harassment in sport
3:30pm	<b>Dr. Gretchen Kerr</b>	Safeguarding youth in sport: Lessons Learned from the education sector
3:50pm	<b>Tine Vertommen</b>	Sport, a game with boundaries: Handling sexually transgressive behaviour via the flag system
4:10pm	<b>Prof. Sandi Kirby</b>	Sport Campaign by the Canadian Centre for Child Protection
4:30-5pm	<b>Dr. Daniel Rhind</b>	Future plans for collaboration
5-6pm <b>Room 273</b>	<b>Prof. Tess Kay, Director of BC.SHAW Katie Flanagan, Special Collections Officer, Brunel University</b>	Launch of <i>Celia Brackenridge Collection: Research and Advocacy Archive 1974-2013</i> Prize award for Best Young Presenter

## **PART 2: RESEARCHING ATHLETE WELFARE**

## Chapter 2: Collaborative research: Challenges and pitfalls across cultures

Prof. Kari Fasting

### Abstract

*In this session I will present and discuss with you some of the theoretical and methodological challenges I have encountered in preparing and carrying out cross-national research. My examples will be primarily from two research projects. One from the 1990s that took place in Spain, Germany, England and Norway, and one more recently in Czech Republic, Greece and Norway. These also illustrate two different modes of doing cross-national research. In the first, there were four researchers who planned the study together; in the second one, the study was planned and carried out in Czech Republic by me as a foreigner in collaboration with a colleague from Czech Republic, and later translated and repeated in Norway and subsequently in Greece. Challenges related to common theoretical perspectives, sampling, language, data collection, and working and writing together, will be focussed on.*

\*\*\*\*\*

Collaborative research can mean many different things but one can say that it is, at the least, any research project that is carried out by a minimum of two people. There are some advantages by not working alone. When done in the right spirit, collaborative research can result in more reliable and powerful results that may come to publication faster than they would if the research were done independently. But there can also be some drawbacks to collaborative research. Sometimes it is hard to know whether collaboration will be fruitful. A collaborator may be difficult to work with, or researchers may not reach a consensus about their results. Another common pitfall is struggles over authorship or ownership of the research (WiseGEEK n.d.). University of California Center for Collaborative Research for an Equitable California (CCRC) uses 'collaborative research' as an umbrella term for methodologies that actively engage communities and policy makers in the research process from start to finish. This means that university researchers, community-based organisations, and policy makers will work together in framing the problems to be tackled and the questions that need to be answered; they will work together to undertake the research and interpret the results for their significance for community and policy change; and they will work together to disseminate the research findings and advocate for change. As an example I think that it is fair to say that the work that Celia Brackenridge and I have done together concerning the prevalence and prevention of sexual harassment and abuse could be an example.

### Characteristics and benefits of collaborative research

Daprano *et al.* (2005) writes that the following components are necessary for a successful collaboration: the recruitment of essential members; the determination and negotiation of leadership and the distribution of power; the establishment of group goals (topic, timeline, tasks); the communication with members on campus and/or at other institutions; the inter- and intra-disciplinary agreement on terminology, theory, and methods; and the maintenance of member motivation. He further states that potential benefits for the researcher(s) may be: enhanced productivity through a division of labour; professional and social support; establishment of a network for idea sharing; better quality work by using members' strengths; deeper understanding of diverse backgrounds and diverse ideas; and an increased set of research skills learned from members.

There are many different forms of collaborative research. Here are some examples:

- One can write together with a person from another country on a dataset that already exists from that country.

- One can work together with a person from another country both in relation to data gathering and writing but with a dataset from only that other country.
- Comparative research or cross national research, which does not need to be collaborative research, as one person can do data gathering in more countries and compare the results.
- Comparative research means that one compares different data sets, often from different countries or cultures.

Allison (1988, p. 10) says the following about the importance of doing comparative research:

*If the goal of science is to identify some understanding of cultural universalities and specificities of behaviour, to develop theoretical insights which move beyond our own immediate time and space, then comparative research should be a consistent and major part of any field.*

Concerning cross-national research, one often looks for differences and similarities. Differences are normally much harder to explain and intercultural comparisons must be attributed to specific factors in the different cultures. This is why cross-national studies often are described as 'natural' experiments (Nowak, 1989). The most common way to carry through cross-national studies is where researchers from different countries work together in planning the study, including the data gathering, the analysis and the writing up of the results. This is what I have done in the European study described below. Another way of doing cross-national research is to develop and carry through a study in one country, and then later translate the survey or interview guidelines and use them in another country. This happened with the study mentioned later that I first carried through in Czech Republic and that later was run in Norway and Greece. This can be done either in cooperation with researchers from other countries, or it can be done by the researcher who originally developed the study in the first country.

### **Examples of collaborative research in Europe**

Let me now share with you some experiences from a European project titled 'The Experience and Meaning of Sport and Exercise in the Lives of Women in Some European Countries'. Four countries participated in the project and the project group consisted of Kari Fasting (chair, Norway), Sheila Scraton (England), Gertrud Pfister (Germany), and Ana Bunuel/Benhilde Vazgues (Spain). When we started the project at the beginning of the 1990s there was very little comparative research on women and sport, particularly with a qualitative approach. None of us had experiences from doing cross-national research and over the years we learned a lot. We therefore wrote an article about our experiences with the title: 'Cross-national research on women and sport: Some theoretical, methodological and practical challenges' (Fasting *et al.*, 1997). In this article we wrote about the challenges we faced in relation to feminism(s), doing cross-national comparisons, sampling, language, developing interview guidelines, carrying through the analysis, working and writing together, and about finances and personal issues. Some of the challenges are briefly mentioned below.

Four countries were compared: we had learned that countries do exist where the organisation of sport, the gender order and women's position in society may be so different that comparison would be extremely difficult (Oyen, 1990). We felt that this was not the case here, since all were European countries and part of the Western world with broadly similar political and economic structures, though in many way also very different. Three different sports that existed in each country (rhythmic gymnastics/aerobics, football and tennis) were included in the project, and we wanted to do interviews at both the recreational and the elite level. The final sample therefore consisted of 60 interviews in each country, 20 in each sport and 10 on each level. The interview guidelines we constructed in English but three of us had to translate them back to our own language. In developing the guidelines we ran into many problems such as: the same word meant

different things in all countries, some words do not exist in a particular country and some questions could be irrelevant in a country. Another challenge was the analysis. How does one analyze texts from qualitative interviews in a way that makes them comparable? We used the programme WinMax (today's name is MAXQData) developed for qualitative texts and ended up with about 50 main categories or themes. This was a long process that needed many hours of discussion but we finally did agree on using the same codes in each country. Oyen (1990) points out that it is useful to cooperate with researchers in other countries instead of collecting data across a range of countries as has often been the case in the past. According to her, familiarity with a nation's history and culture is a prerequisite today as it provides an interpretation of the results which cannot be obtained by any outsider (Oyen, 1990). This was clearly an advantage for us but we also experienced that being four researchers representing different cultures can, in itself, be a challenge. We did recognize that cultural stereotypes existed between us and that this affected the work process of the project group.

Another challenge was when we should write up the results from the project. How should we work together? We started with planning an article and decided to write one part each. This model didn't work very well, having four people making the first draft. We therefore landed on a model where one or two persons were responsible for the first draft after the whole group had decided upon the content. The rest of the group were then commented on and sometime rewrote the draft. The project took place over four years and personal issues also influenced our work, such as three separations from long term relationships that were personally traumatic. We also had one child birth, and some had childcare and family responsibilities, when others did not. Cross-national research, in particular, where we were dependent on each other, therefore sometimes presented quite a difficult context in which to negotiate personal issues. But as feminists we accepted that aspects of our personal lives were a part of our research and, as such, needed to be 'written into' the process.

The other project I want to tell you about was titled 'Gender Relations in Sport – The Experiences of Czech Female Athletes' (Fasting and Knorre, 2005). The aim of the project was that the results should serve as a basis for sport organisations in the Czech Republic in determining measures that would increase the proportion of women in sport activities at all levels of sport and in all sporting roles: the goal was to develop knowledge about the influence and the meaning of gender-relations in the lives of female athletes in the Czech Republic. Through the project we tried to answer the following research questions:

- What are the major barriers for female participation in sport?
- What are the female athletes' and sport students' experiences with male and female coaches?
- What is the amount of harassment experienced by female athletes?
- What are the major barriers towards female involvement in coaching and sport administration?

Given the challenges mentioned above, how come I - as a Norwegian and with no knowledge about the Czech society and language - dared to carry through a study in a foreign country? The reason was that the project was anchored in the Women's Committee in Czech Olympic Committee. I had met the chair, Nada Knorre, already in 1988 at a European Olympic conference on women and sport in Zagreb, where I had been invited to speak at conferences in the Czech Republic. Two years after this she asked me if I could carry out a study on women and sport in Czech Republic. Another reason why I dared to do this was that the project was also supported by the President and the Secretary General of the Czech Olympic Committee.

The method used in this study was a questionnaire that was filled out when Nada Knorre and I were always present so that the participants could ask questions if they wished. I introduced the questionnaire and gave some instructions and Nada Knorre translated. Altogether, 595 female athletes participated in the study. In addition, ten qualitative interviews were carried out. The research questions were developed in cooperation with the Women's Committee. But here, we did run into difficult challenges in relation to



language. We constructed the questionnaire first in English. It was then translated back and forth to Czech. We had long discussions about the meaning of many of the questions before they were translated into Czech. Also this time I found that some words/concepts in English did not exist in Czech at all, or the Czechs had different ways to express them. For example 'sexual harassment' did not exist in Czech. We were surveying sexual harassment and that was also a challenge because, at that time, it was a non-issue in the country and there was a high tolerance of unwanted sexualized language, comments about the body etc. (Vaskova, 2006).

The qualitative interviews were carried out with an interpreter. Doing interviews with an interpreter is, in itself, a challenge but I also had to choose which language I should use for the interviews: should it be in Norwegian or in English? I ended up choosing English because I took for granted that many of the athletes would know some English, and no one would understand Norwegian. In addition, the study was going to be published in English and Czech so we would later have had to translate the Norwegian into English. Even though I had an interpreter, I felt that I got better contact with the interviewees by talking English. Since I didn't understand any Czech I had no control over the accuracy of the translation but that is the way it normally is if one has to do interviews in a foreign country with the help of an interpreter. I was very lucky because I got an interpreter who could speak both Norwegian and English in addition to Czech. I therefore did ask her some questions in Norwegian when I couldn't find the word in English, or if I didn't understand the meaning of her translation.

Sometime later it was decided to broaden the project to include Norwegian data and, yet later, also Greek data. The challenges were again the translation, which was done from the original English version to Norwegian, Greek and back to English again. Because some concepts didn't exist in Greek, a set of questions concerning masculinity and femininity was taken out in the Greek version. I did the data gathering in Norway but not in Greece. Here, I worked together with Dr. Stiliani Chroni who was responsible for the Greek part of the study. Czech Republic, Greece and Norway are very different countries and, in writing up the data, it was sometimes difficult to explain differences and similarities in the results (see for example Fasting *et al.*, 2011).

### **Advice on collaborative research**

Based on my experiences I recommend that, if you are going to do some cross-national research or other kinds of comparative research, you should take into account the following advice.

- If possible, work together with people that you know or at least know something about.
- If possible (as a rule), work together with people who know and preferably live in the culture(s) that are under studied. The ideal is that they are a part of the research team but this is not essential. The important thing is to have contact with people who know the culture of the country and the sport and who can pull the 'right strings' in relation to data gathering.
- Be sensitive in relation to differences, both in the way sport is structured and organised but also in relation to norms and values and to gender relations in the different cultures.
- Be aware that language can't be translated directly: the 'same' word may mean different things, and/or some words don't exist in some languages, which means that a whole question may have to be reformulated.
- Have at least an oral contract about who owns the data and about co-authorships if possible. The ideal is to have a written contract.
- The more countries that participate in the study the more complicated it becomes, both in relation to data gathering, analysis and to writing up the data. This should be taken into account in the planning of the study.

- During my work in the Czech Republic where we, among others, gathered data about athletes' experiences of sexual harassment, it was an advantage to have a foreigner doing interviews on sensitive issues.
- People are different and live different lives and therefore try to be flexible and inclusive and respect your co-workers.

## Conclusions

Working in and doing research in other countries has been very valuable for me personally and I have learned a lot. I have acquired new knowledge in relation to how to interview with an interpreter and how to write with other people. I have also learned about gender relations, sport organisation and sport cultures in other countries. Because I worked with people in the different countries I also learned about legislation, literature and studies in other countries that had not been translated into English, and therefore not would have been available to me. But most important, as a result of carrying through these studies I got friendships for life.

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## Chapter 3: *Dancing with the devil: The politics of working with sport organisations*

Prof. Celia Brackenridge OBE

### Abstract

*Just imagine you have heard that a sport organisation has awarded you a million pound research project! Delight can soon evaporate into despair unless you have very clear strategies for managing the work and managing your client. Drawing on real examples, this chapter explores some of the things that can go wrong when working with sport organisations and how best to pre-empt these by good planning and project management.*

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I chose this title since, in around forty years of experience in higher education, I have yet to meet a sport organisation that really understands research and the research process. This is in stark contrast to other sectors of industry where, for example, local government departments and QUANGOs seem far better at specifying contracts and managing their relationships with researchers. As the education level of sport organisation employees gradually rises, and more and more of those organisations begin to employ staff with masters or doctorate degrees, this situation should eventually change. For now, however, we seem to be stuck too often with research commissioners who are sadly lacking in research skills yet who confidently boss us about!

I shall take you through some of the pitfalls and problems that I have encountered and hope that this might help you to anticipate and avoid these problems in your own research careers. I offer one caveat: there is no single formula for this – you also need to find your own way.

By way of illustration, here are some projects that I have managed for sport organisations:

- **The Impact of Child Protection on Football** (2002-2004), from Premier League to grass roots. This was done for The Football Association, priced at £450k and involved twelve researchers.
- **The Efficacy of the FA's 'Respect' Programme** (2007-2009), from Premier League to grass roots. Again, this was done for The Football Association, priced at £170k and this time involved nineteen researchers.
- **A review of sexual orientation in sport** (2008). This was essentially a desk study with some expert consultation, conducted for Sport Scotland, priced at £22k: it involved five researchers.
- **Child Protection and the FIFA World Cup** (2013). This was a systematic literature review and also involved interviews with over 70 experts, conducted for Oak Foundation, priced £62k and involved seven researchers.

### What can possibly go wrong?

I have encountered many problems when managing research for sport organisations, including clients who:

- failed to pay on time: I had to threaten legal proceedings to secure more than £150k in unpaid fees!
- fired the CEO partway through the project: this resulted in a major change of direction for the organisation and its budget which led to the project being cancelled after only two years of a five year contract;
- moved the main project liaison person, resulting in a need to undergo relationship building for a second time;

- expected much more than you have agreed which, of course, ends up costing more than the budget limit;
- didn't understanding the research process, confusing aims, objectives, outputs and outcomes;
- wanted to interfere with researcher appointments when they had little or no experience of how this should be done;
- demanded results/reports before they are ready because they thought that 'data equals findings' with no intervening analysis process;
- interpreted and/or present results wrongly: sometimes this results in unseemly public apologies. A typical error in the field of sexual abuse in sport abuse is the tendency to mis-cite (and inflate) the findings of the Leahy *et al.* (2002) prevalence study from Australia. This shows either that the research papers on this study have not been carefully read or that the person reporting the study does not understand its research design.

These kinds of problems can have unfortunate consequences such as: the adoption of weak or inappropriate research designs; unwitting breaches of ethics and intellectual property rights protocols; and, inaccurate or unreliable results, all of which may end result in bad science, bad policy and bad publicity.

### **How to ensure things go right**

There are some relatively simple ways to ensure that your research proceeds smoothly. An important first step is to get budgetary clearance before you start as money worries can easily derail even the best-designed project. Always have a written research brief that sets out:

- precise expectations from both parties (researchers and clients)
- the proposed timescale with clear targets and outputs (interim and final reports, executive summaries, presentations to boards or seminars and so on)
- budgetary limits and signatories for expenditure
- a sharply defined set of research questions
- a clear research design with sampling frames, methods, pilot testing and protocols e.g. dealing with the media, handling abuse disclosures

Give clear information on client access (when, to whom, how regularly) and support services available to the research team (mentoring, supervision, funding, IT, equipment and so on).

My years of experience of have led me to the realisation of a general rule which I call the C.A.R rule, which is that research contracts for sport organisations comprise ...

~30% **C**onsultancy + ~ 30% **A**dvocacy + ~ 30% **R**esearch

The consultancy component involves advice about research processes and procedures, how to generate good research questions, and how to set realistic time limits and budgets. The advocacy component involves representing the organisation to others, promoting (and even sometimes defending) its course of action.

Whatever time and energy is left over can be devoted to the research proper, and much of that residual time is spent on managing the research rather than collecting or analysing data. In short, the research project manager has to be a tactful politician as much as a technician!

## Lessons

Arguably the most important element of any research project is the research question. Spend a good amount of time brainstorming and testing alternative questions with your client as clarity at the start will help to prevent a host of problems later on.

Most good social science projects now adopt multiple research methods (quantitative and qualitative) as no real world problem is likely to be resolved from only one perspective. Multiple methods also help to build in checking mechanisms to test the reliability of your findings, such that if one method fails or yields contradictions you have another chance to test your ideas.

Notwithstanding confidentiality agreements, try to ensure you are adopt transparent working methods. My major projects were always guided by a booklet – a kind of bible or working manual – that described every element of the work from its background rationale, to all protocols, to staff contact details and incident forms. Something like this not only helps your co-researchers to understand the tasks but also educates your sport organisation clients about research planning and implementation.

Once a project is underway, it is all too easy to get buried in data collection or conducting interviews and to forget overall management responsibility. Constant communication is vital, both for reasons of transparency but also to anticipate problems. Some project managers like to schedule in weekly telephone or Skype updates with their client rep just to make sure that everyone is on the same page as the work progresses.

Staff training and reliability is important to the success of any project. It does not matter if your researchers have different skills as they can learn from each other but everyone needs to be trained in the basics and to have the confidence to deliver their portion of the project. Repeat business will disappear if you lose the confidence of your client organisation: hitting *their* deadlines and ‘translating’ the research findings into *their* language can help to keep your relationship positive and increase the chances of securing future contracts.

### Some warnings and advice

Whether client or researcher, you usually get what you pay for: for example, cutting corners on labour by using undergraduates to collect data can lead to poor quality as students often lack experience and reliability. On the other hand, there is little point using expensive (professorial) labour to conduct menial research tasks. A balance must therefore be struck to achieve value for money. When sub-contracting work to using outside consultants check that they are fully prepared and have been trained in all the issues that full-time staff cover, such as Data Protection, conflicts of interest, confidentiality and ethics and that they are properly insured.

Crucially, do not be tripped into accepting a handshake as the basis for a piece of work. Make sure that you get a signed, legal contract. This will be required in any case if you are working within a university but is also strongly advisable for private researchers as it gives both you and the client some legal protection in case of problems. The contract itself may be fairly standard (definitions, dates, expectations, deadlines and so on) but should also include:

- the exact brief (often in an appendix)
- invoicing arrangements, VAT (tax), insurance and liability details
- intellectual property and copyright issues
- termination periods

- mediation/conflict resolution arrangements
- ethics, media and confidentiality protocols

Also, you should always ask to have a named liaison person within the client organisation so you can start to build and nurture your business relationship with them. They may prove a good barometer of the way an organisation is reacting to your interim findings and a source of early warnings: if your relationship works well you should avoid any nasty surprises at the end of the contract. Do not offer to negotiate about details (timescales, expenses etc.) after the start date. Equally, the client should not promise funds they do not have or are not authorised to commit.

It's a good idea to agree a publications strategy and any embargo on the work. Getting your client to sign off abstracts of any conference papers, posters or journal articles will not only help to strengthen their understanding of the world of research but also increase their sense of ownership of the results.

### **During the project**

Set up a Steering Group (one that really does steer!) and keep written notes of its meetings and other communications. This gives you a useful record of the decision-making process and can also help if you need to challenge anything later in the process. Agree a final time plan and stick to it: allow a little contingency within this as human nature always leads to some slippage. As project manager, however, it is your responsibility to keep everyone on track and to chase your co-researchers to remind them of impending deadlines. Just like a musician, you need to read the music several bars ahead to anticipate what is coming and prepare well in advance. Keep in touch with your client rep and try to pre-empt difficulties by advance negotiation; this is far easier and less expensive than having to post hoc your data after it is collected.

### **After the project**

After the project is finished, ask for some honest, written feedback within 4-6 weeks; any longer and your client will have moved on to a new priority and may have forgotten your work. Remember to submit an end-of-grant report to the client (often they have their own pro forma for this, including financial reports). Monitor the publication of findings and make sure that you give the client copies, especially of those appearing in web articles, magazines or industry publications. This is more than just a courtesy: it demonstrates that you live outside the ivory tower and that your research findings have a genuine impact in the real world. Finally, check whether and how the sport organisations that commission research from you USE the findings of your work. This helps you to tailor future projects to the needs of industry and also helps to demonstrate that your work has relevance beyond the academy. My take home messages are:

1. Give the client what they want ... but manage up!
2. The most important part of the research project happens before you begin.

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## Chapter 4: A framework for understanding humanisation and dehumanisation in sport

Emma J Kavanagh and Dr. Abbe Brady

### Abstract

*Though limited in volume, increasing evidence from literature and qualitative research highlights that the pursuit of excellence is associated with particular discourses and cultural practices, some of which have been explicitly challenged for their inappropriateness and dehumanizing nature (Beamish and Borowy, 2006; Brackenridge and Rhind, 2010; David, 2004; Hoberman, 1992; UNICEF, 2010). A crucial task for researchers in athlete welfare is to inform practitioners and policy makers about the complex processes in sport associated with particular un/desirable outcomes. Thus, suitably sensitive lenses are needed with which to review and scrutinize the diverse and complex range and subtleties of both desirable and undesirable practices within sport. The purpose of the present paper is to introduce one such lens associated with understanding humanisation and dehumanisation in sport. The present paper explores the values framework proposed by Todres, Galvin and Holloway (2009) who applied the model in a healthcare setting. Through activities we invite attendees to consider the potential contribution the framework may have for examining the features of both humanizing and dehumanizing aspects of sport. Attendees are also invited to explore with us how the key concepts of the framework may be useful for informing research and practice in a range of athlete-welfare related domains.*

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Critical enquiry into the cultural practices of, and people's experiences in high performance (HP) sport remains underrepresented in sport-related research. Particularly troubling is the continuing applicability of Wrisberg's (1996) observation that high performance sport has such hypnotic power it discourages deeper investigation into its effects on participants. As Hoberman (1992) has implied, HP sport is widely viewed consciously or unconsciously as an experimental arena and its subjects' sufferings are a natural part of the drama of sport. In this sense HP sport practices remain elusive and largely beyond scrutiny. In order to examine the diverse and complex range of athletes' experiences within this context we need suitably sensitive lenses. The purpose of this chapter is to introduce one such lens to enhance understanding athletes' experiences of humanisation and dehumanisation in HP sport. This paper draws on the work of Todres, Galvin and Holloway (2009) who have presented a framework of humanisation and dehumanisation. Though developed for application in a healthcare setting, there are several parallels that serve to support the use of the framework in a HP sport setting.

As noted in healthcare (Galvin and Todres, 2013; Todres, Galvin and Dahlberg, 2007), considerable advances have occurred in performance sport associated with increasing specialisation, the use of technology and the dominance of particular research strategies. Increasing knowledge specialisation and reliance on technology has resulted in a neglect of the human dimensions of participant's experiences in HP sport. The value framework proposed by Todres *et al.* (2009) therefore has relevance particularly when it is used as a tool to examine athlete experiences within HP sport. The following sub-sections offer an overview of the framework and suggest how it can be understood in the context of HP sport.

### Introducing the humanisation framework

In developing the humanising framework within the health care setting, Todres *et al.* (2009) were influenced by the existential-phenomenological tradition and sociological perspectives that allowed the examination of what it essentially means to be 'human'. To be concerned with humanisation is to uphold a particular view or value of what it means to be human and ways to act in relation to this value

base. Articulating this value base allows us to consider the dimensions of humanisation and dehumanisation and utilise these as a standard with which we can examine practices within HP sport. The conceptual framework thus enables us to examine how this set of values can help elucidate athletes' experience within HP sport. The eight philosophically informed dimensions of the framework are presented in Table 4.1. Each dimension is heuristically expressed as a continuum, stretching from the term that characterises humanisation in a positive sense through to the term that characterises the barrier to such a possibility. The humanising dimensions are: insiderness, agency, uniqueness, togetherness, sense-making, sense of personal journey, sense of place and embodiment. Eight corresponding dimensions of dehumanisation are also named. These are objectification, passivity, homogenisation, isolation, loss of meaning, loss of personal journey, sense of dislocation and a reductionist view of the body. The polar positions are not proposing an either / or dualism or that one is either "in a humanizing or dehumanizing moment" but, rather, represent a spectrum of possibility along which experiences and practices may be understood in context (Todres *et al.*, 2009: 69). Moreover, in recognition of the fine line and sometimes blurred nature of defining a particular practice, the continua may be useful for inviting consideration about when a particular experience or practice becomes more or less humanising.

**Table 4.1 Dimensions of humanisation and dehumanisation (Todres *et al.*, 2009)**

<b>Forms of Humanisation:</b>	<b>Forms of Dehumanisation:</b>
Insiderness	Objectification
Agency	Passivity
Uniqueness	Homogenisation
Togetherness	Isolation
Sense-making	Loss of Meaning
Personal Journey	Loss of Personal Journey
Sense of place	Dislocation
Embodiment	Reductionist body

Descriptions of the eight dimensions are outlined below within sub-sections. It is acknowledged that this simply introduces each dimension rather than critically exploring their application to the HP environment. However, this provides an important starting point for analysis of how to achieve humanisation in and through participation in sport.

**Insiderness/objectification:** What makes a person intimately human is that s/he experiences living life from the inside. That is, being human involves making sense of one's personal world based upon subjective interpretation of experience coloured through the lenses of thoughts, feelings and emotions at the time. Thus, only individuals can be the authorities of how their life is from the inside and this subjectivity is central to a human being's sense of themselves. Insiderness reflects the importance of recognising people's subjectivity and respecting that as a natural part of being human. In contrast, objectification occurs when a person's subjectivity and individuality (insiderness) are not considered and people are viewed as objects or parts of a system, statistical model or a strategy to be labelled, classified and processed accordingly. Understanding a person's insiderness has the potential to enhance an individual's sense of connection with the environment and those around them. Sport, and sport science in particular, often seeks to objectify the individual and label them statistically. Although this may be seen as an essential aspect of structured and rigorous training, labelling is one form of objectification that could potentially dehumanise the athlete. The ways in which individuals work with an athlete to make sense of such labels, or explore how they fit within the system, may help take account of their insiderness rather than simply neglect it.



**Agency/Passivity:** Being human means making choices and being accountable for our actions. Agency means that we do not experience ourselves as passive or predetermined; instead we have potential and the possibility of freedom, which allows us to be and act within our own limits. Agency is therefore closely linked with our sense of dignity and personal self and to remove agency and freewill can result in a sense of diminished personhood. Conversely, passivity refers to an overriding emphasis on the environment as a controlling factor. It can result in feelings of disempowerment and a perceived lack of control over our personal destiny. Humanisation in sport could occur through actively promoting or facilitating athlete participation in the development of their training and competition schedules or career planning. Ownership of the experience is significant within the athlete-centered philosophy and can promote a sense of agency. Although excessive passivity can be potentially damaging for an individual, there may be times where an athlete would benefit from taking a more passive role so that they can focus on training or competition. It is the understanding of the benefit of passivity in this case that is important and this in fact could lead to feelings of greater control and/or empowerment. Agency is therefore possible within the sporting context when people are able to act and respond to their own decisions and maintain a sense of control over their actions.

**Uniqueness/homogenization:** To be human is about actualising one's sense of uniqueness. Human uniqueness can never be captured by or reduced to a list of characteristics or attributes because we are always more than the sum of our various parts. Whilst recognising that we are part of broader influences and contexts in which we may be like many others, and in some ways like just a few others, there is always something unique in space and time about the person at a particular moment that contributes to their individuality. Homogenisation de-emphasises individuality and the person's uniqueness as this process focuses on the ways in which people fit into groups to be characterised or labelled collectively. Homogenisation is practised via the use of descriptors which serve to categorise through cultural or sub-cultural value-based characteristics. Allowing athletes to maintain a sense of identity and acknowledging the person as a unique individual could be integral to enhancing wellbeing. The challenge lies in the promotion of uniqueness in an environment that thrives on conformity, grouping and labelling that can lead to de-personalisation and standardisation of practice. Thus, maintaining the self and retaining personal identity could be one such way of realising one's humanness in this context.

**Togetherness/isolation:** Being human involves the desire for a sense of community: our uniqueness exists in relation to others. We constantly examine the things we have in common yet bring sense to them in a personal and unique way. A sense of togetherness allows us to experience both privacy and intimacy, which are central to the experience of human connectedness. In isolation we can feel a reduced sense of belonging which impacts upon our everyday social connections, which in turn may lead to feelings of loneliness. The satisfaction of togetherness or the sense of belonging that can result from participation in sport has the potential to allow us to feel securely connected to and understood by others. It can be directly aligned to our personal wellbeing and satisfaction within the sporting domain. Being part of a team can provoke feelings of togetherness that may not be understood by anyone bar those within that social unit. Being de-selected can result in the removal of commonality that togetherness brings and can make people feel alienated, separate from the social world. Clearly, sport can promote or create feelings of togetherness between people yet it can as easily lead to athletes feeling isolated, rejected or cut off from others.

**Sense-making/loss of meaning:** To be human involves a desire to make sense of the meaning of things, events and experiences for personal life. Being able to make links, find significance and interpret events and experiences are all important for both adaptation and awareness of personal development during the lifecycle. The search for significant personal meaning of events is proposed by Todres *et al.* (2009) to be experienced as more salient than the search for objective truth. In sport, personal meaning is captured when we seek to engage with people's subjective accounts of events rather than relying on objective

information and this is especially pertinent when considering competition outcomes. Thus, narrative truth is often more significant or felt to be more meaningful than statistical fact. When personal meaning-making is denied or limited, it can cause a sense of dislocation and meaninglessness. When experiencing a loss of meaning people may feel as though they are an insignificant part of the machinery and their contributions remain unnoticed or unimportant. Sense-making is perhaps a useful strategy for engaging in personal reflection during an athlete's career. It allows the individual an opportunity to make sense of their journey through sport and to make informed decisions about their progression and development.

**Personal journey/loss of personal journey:** To be human is to be on a journey, to move through time in a meaningful way and be connected to a sense of continuity. The future faces us as an unknown and provides an endless possibility of new experiences, novelty and opportunity for change. This allows us to have a connection, which incorporates the familiarity of the past with the possibility of moving into the unfamiliarity of the future. Loss of personal journey can be experienced when a person's situation or life becomes static i.e. they experience an unchanging circumstance. In this instance the past can seem to be repeating itself and life fails to provide the platform for new experience. Alternatively, individuals can experience this loss of journey through being wrenched away from the familiar or through change, which causes feelings of dislocation from their normal functioning. Being an athlete engaging in HP sport, there can be an over-emphasis on the present rather than the journey of getting to that place or the sense of possibility that comes from the arrival to it. Conversely, there can be an over-emphasis on the future; targets to be met, competitions to enter, outcomes to be achieved and this can prevent individuals from enjoying the moment-to-moment and daily progression of their personal journey. When personal journey is realised and valued, sport has the capacity to enhance a person's sense of self and can have a fundamental impact on an individual's quality of life.

**Sense of place/dislocation:** To be human is to come from a particular place; such a place is not simply defined by a physical environment measured in quantitative terms but is equally a place where a feeling of at-homeness becomes meaningful (Todres *et al.*, 2009). The social-connectedness and habitat that we create offers us security, familiarity, comfort and continuity and a place where we can feel at ease. In dislocation, this sense of place can either become lost or obscured and this can lead to feelings of strangeness and isolation. Being removed or wrenched away from familiarity or comfort can lead to a sense of disorientation, which can bring with it discomfort and anxiety. It becomes difficult in this situation to find a sense of place as the new environment or cultural norms and routines can feel alien. Sense of place or dislocation is not necessarily just about physical environment or geographic locations; it can also come from the perceived quality and familiarity of surroundings, relationships and processes experienced. Todres *et al.* (2009) propose that wellbeing cannot be considered separate from the atmosphere and rhythms created by the environment in which we function. Thus, the importance of acknowledging sense of place is critical for a more humanizing experience in sport at all levels because it has the potential to significantly impact upon an individual's self-worth and wellbeing.

**Embodiment/reductionist body:** To be human also means to live within the possibilities and limitations of our embodiment. Via insiderness we experience physical, mental and spiritual phenomena such as excitement, fatigue, awe, pain, hunger, injury and vitality: our body is also the means by which we move about the world, engaging with people, places and tasks in life. Our body therefore has both a personal and social function and significance. By contrast, a reductionist view of the body emphasises the separateness of the body by neglecting its other relational contexts and disaggregates the study of human experience to often-objective enquiry via separate disciplines. In HP sport this is particularly evident where sport science can serve to deconstruct the athlete in search of positive performance gains. Theberge (2008) found that HP athletes frequently conveyed a disembodied notion of their body as an object to be managed and they subordinated health as a capacity to engage in competitive careers. The danger of such depersonalisation is that it invites athletes (and others) to treat an aspect of the self (and most often the

physical self) as detached from the rest of the self. A reductionist view of the body can be dehumanising because it neglects the wholeness of people. Valuing and further exploring embodiment could lead to a more open and holistic approach to delivery, placing importance on the whole person.

## Summary

HP sport is a setting in which people's practices and experiences are often justified in the pursuit of excellence – and it is precisely in such settings that humanisation may be most threatened and most possible. Exploring both humanisation and dehumanisation provides a meaningful heuristic through which to critically examine practices and experiences in HP sport. The philosophically informed dimensions offered within this framework may provide positive examples or directions by which we can meet the needs of people in this setting. Galvin and Todres (2013) believe that this will “lead to practice which is centrally informed from a value base that does justice to the depths and breadths of being human” (p. 22). In this sense humanisation of practice should not be viewed as a ‘luxury’ or a ‘nice to achieve’ but a critical component of the process of working with people. It is suggested here that only when the athlete is considered as a whole person and their humanness recognised that s/he is most likely to thrive and flourish within and beyond sport.

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## Chapter 5: *The TOCT model: How it helps elucidate sport culture*

Elaine Cook and Prof. Kim Dorsch

### Abstract

*Research indicates that the culture of sport tends to promote an idealised or mythologised perception of the benefits of participation for youth (Giulianotti, 2004; Houlihan, Bloyce and Smith, 2011). The belief that sport is a moral oasis (Brackenridge, 2006) has had a negative impact on our understanding of the harm caused by abuse in youth sports. Specifically, there is a lack of data, monitoring, and evaluation, of abusive coaching behaviours (UNICEF, 2010; Kerr, 2010) despite general acknowledgement that coaches wield considerable power that extends beyond the playing field (Bailey, 2010). Therefore, this study classified observations of unacceptable coaching behaviours to affirm the usefulness of the Typology of Coaching Transgressions (TOCT) model as a tool to identify cultural norms in negative coaching behaviours. Comments (164) from 3 different sports (hockey, baseball, basketball) were deductively analysed and categorised into the Typology of Coaching Transgressions (TOCT) model (Raakman, Dorsch and Rhind, 2010) by three different raters. Across all sports, 77% of all harmful coaching behaviours are indirect in nature. Additionally, across all sports, the psychological (38%) and modelling categories (27%) contain the most harmful behaviours. The results suggest that monitoring is an essential element of child protection and sport policy development.*

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There is an ever growing body of evidence that suggests violence (Anderson, 2013; Cook and Dorsch, 2014), abuse (Gervis and Dunn, 2004), and maltreatment (Kerr and Stirling, in press) are normalized in youth sport. In particular, harmful coach behaviours, even those behaviours now thought of as abusive, are persistent due to the cultural narratives (Anderson, 2012) of sport. As a result, it is the aim of this paper to discuss the culture of coaching, as a cultural system within the larger youth sport culture. Using Whitehead's (2002) cultural systems paradigm (CSP) we propose that harmful coaching behaviors are both a *result of* the culture of sport, and *contribute to* the culture of sport. To conclude we propose that a monitoring and surveillance system is critical to informing sport organisations and sport governing bodies of the effectiveness and outcomes associated with interventions implemented to address behavioural concerns and improve the culture of sport coaching and sport generally.

It has been said that in its most simple articulation *culture* can be defined as 'how things are done around here' (Drennan, 1992, cited in Manely, Sanders, Cardiff and Webster, 2011). Sadly, this definition might most accurately describe the culture of sport, as much has been written about the resistance of sport culture to change (Anderson, 2012; Coakley, 2011; Coalter, 2007). However, Whitehead (2002) defines culture as the interrelation between shared ideational systems, preferred behaviours, and structural relationships. As such, the cultural systems paradigm allows us to study the following components of a cultural system as interrelated systems: 1) individual and normative behaviour patterns (what these behaviours are, how these behaviours are carried out, where they are carried out, participation, when these behaviours occur, and whether or not they are routinised); 2) individual and shared knowledge, beliefs, values, and attitudes (are behaviours institutionalised by the group?); 3) significant social systems (for sport these would be the stakeholder groups - parents, coaches, players, sport organisation, sport governing bodies, etc.); 4) the physical and social environments; 5) shared historical events and processes by which the group are influenced. Although this is a simplistic expression of the CSP, the most salient feature is the interrelatedness of the parts.

For the sake of this discussion we use results from a 2014 study by Cook and Dorsch of their Typology of Coaching Transgressions (TOCT) model (2010) to identify individual and shared behavioural patterns of coaches, the first component of Whitehead's cultural systems paradigm. While research submits that approximately 40% of youth sport games contain harmful coaching behaviours (Raakman, Dorsch and Rhind, 2010a), the TOCT model has allowed those behaviours to be categorised more specifically across hockey, baseball, football, and basketball. The distribution of harmful coaching behaviours within the identified category is as follows: physical (2% of behaviours), psychological (43% of behaviours), neglect (10% of behaviours), and modeling (44% of behaviours) (Cook and Dorsch, 2014). Importantly, however, these behaviours were further classified as direct or indirect. Direct coaching transgressions were behaviours directed at the athlete/child by the coach, while indirect coaching transgressions were behaviours exchanged between adults but witnessed by the athlete/child on a persistent basis (Raakman, Dorsch and Rhind, 2010b). The results suggest that approximately 77% of all negative coaching behaviours are indirect in nature.

**Table 5.1 Typology of Coaching Transgressions: Higher and lower order themes**

Type of Coaching Transgression	Examples
Direct physical harm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• justification of player's behaviour</li> <li>• reinforcing injurious behaviour</li> <li>• encouraging fighting or physical behaviour</li> </ul>
Direct psychological harm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• yelling/swearing at players</li> <li>• demoralisation</li> <li>• running up the score</li> <li>• justifying racial slurs</li> <li>• taunting fans</li> <li>• threatening own player</li> </ul>
Direct neglect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• lack of discipline/control</li> <li>• lack of care</li> </ul>
Direct modelling behaviours	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• deliberate breaking of rules using players</li> </ul>
Indirect physical harm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• involvement in physical behaviours</li> <li>• throwing objects at officials</li> <li>• threatening behaviour</li> </ul>
Indirect psychological harm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• harassment of officials</li> <li>• yelling at others</li> <li>• challenging calls</li> <li>• abusive behaviour</li> <li>• foul language/emotional displays</li> <li>• removal from game</li> <li>• intimidation</li> </ul>
Indirect neglect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• insinuating a player is not injured</li> </ul>
Indirect modelling behaviours	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• penalization of coach</li> <li>• disrespect of officials, game, and opponents</li> <li>• general negative behaviour/poor sportsmanship</li> <li>• lack of rule knowledge</li> </ul>

As such, it is possible to critically examine the harmful behaviours of coaches with respect to the first component of Whitehead's (2002) paradigm. Beginning with what these behaviours are, we know specifically the types of behaviours representing each category (see Tab. 5.1). We know how these behaviours are carried out because they are reported by contextual experts (the officials); we also know where these behaviours occur because that information is logistical; we know who the participant groups

are with regard to each behaviour situation; and, given the similar prevalence across sports, it would appear that these behaviours are routinised.

Regarding the second cultural component, the institutionalisation of the groups' behaviours, representing their values, attitudes, and beliefs, a plethora of research suggests that these harmful coaching behaviours are normalised with the youth sport culture (Bolter, 2010; Gervis, 2010; Stirling and Kerr, 2007). Evidence suggests that for the most part it is the indirect transgressions that have been routinised and normalised and as a result are not recognised as harmful by participant groups. These behaviours include, but are not limited to: insinuating a player is not hurt/injured (neglect), yelling screaming at others (psychological), intimidation (psychological), throwing objects at officials (physical), threatening behaviours toward other adults (physical), disrespecting opponents, or being ejected from the game (modelling).

The third component affecting youth culture, according to Whitehead's (2005) paradigm, is the significant social systems. He describes these as the stakeholder groups: within the sport context these would include the players, parents, coaches, officials, the sport organisation itself, and even the sport governing bodies. This component is particularly important because, according to the model, the social systems are the 'engines' of cultural production (Whitehead, 2005, p. 4). These systems provide feedback about whether the behaviours are acceptable or not, thus determining whether the behaviours become behavioural patterns. Again, evidence reveals that harmful coaching behaviours are endorsed by stakeholders within the youth sport environment (Anderson, 2012; Coakley, 2011).

Finally, components four and five, the physical and social environments, as well as the shared history of the cultural system, will be addressed together. Whitehead (2005) suggests that these elements help to provide socio-cultural meaning to individuals and stakeholders. Anderson (2012) posits that the following historical, physical and social contexts frame the negative outcomes that, in our case, contribute to a culture that normalises harmful coaching behaviour: sport is patriarchic, team sports promote classism through meritocratic belief systems, youth are taught to view the opponent as the enemy (othering), masculine hierarchies, overadherence to authority, and finally, accepting and inflicting violence and injury.

It is evident, then, that the cultural systems paradigm supports the notion that the culture of sport *results* in harmful coaching behaviours due to the socio-cultural and historical contexts in which sport has arisen. Additionally, it can be said that abusive coaching behaviours in turn *contribute* to the culture of sport as the prevalence of these behaviours adduce the shared behaviour patterns, the implicit feedback of participant groups, and resulting institutionalisation of said behaviours. It is truly an interrelation between shared ideational systems, preferred behaviours, and structural relationships that help to foster our current sport culture.

That being said, it is never enough to point out the problem. By what means can the culture of coaching be positively influenced? As research and evidence accrues regarding the impact and outcomes associated with abusive and harmful coaching behaviours so has the development, implementation and camps dedicated to various solutions. Some examples include: coach education programmes (Cushion, Armour and Jones, 2003; NAYS; NCCP; Nelson and Cushion, 2006; Respect in Sport; Roberts, 2010; Smith and Smoll, 1997); policy development (Brackenridge, 2007; David, 2005; Duffy, 2010; ICCE, 2010); a human rights approach (David, 2005; Kidd and Donnelly, 2000; Mazzucco, 2012; Rhind, Cook and Dorsch, 2013); the professionalisation of coaches (Kerr and Stirling, in press; Nash and Sproule, 2009), as well as many others. However, a component often missing from these initiatives is monitoring and surveillance.

Despite the fact that researchers acknowledge a lack of data regarding violence and abuse in youth sport (Brackenridge, 2007; David, 2005; Brackenridge *et al.*, 2010), very little has been done to address these concerns. Some suggest that this is a direct result of the anonymity that sport enjoys with regard to

normative legal and social standards (Cook and Dorsch, 2014; Brackenridge, 2006; Forster, 2006; Giulianotti, 2004). Yet, without means to evaluate policy and interventions - monitoring provides the means for evaluation (Dunn, 2008; Stone, Maxwell and Keating, 2001) - it is near impossible to establish the effectiveness of these efforts and the costs associated with them (Pintér, Swanson and Barr, 2004). Whilst surveillance implies a 'watching over' (Lyon, 2007, p. 444), monitoring implies the measurement of progress, trends or results (Cook and Dorsch, 2014). Importantly, monitoring helps to establish indicators of policy or intervention effectiveness (Pintér *et al.*, 2004).

It our position, then, that monitoring and surveillance are necessary elements of the youth sport context. Support demonstrating the usefulness of a monitoring and surveillance tool known as the Justplay Behaviour Management Program (JBMP) has been clearly documented (Cook and Dorsch, 2014; Raakman, 2006; Raakman, Dorsch and Rhind, 2010). Such a tool allows administrators to "*make data-driven staffing and policy decisions regarding any action or inaction that may be necessary to anticipate, respond to, or avoid problematic behaviour from coaches, players, or spectators*" (Raakman *et al.*, 2010, p. 506). In particular the JBMP is a tool that surveilles the game environment using a contextual expert, the official (Cook and Dorsch, 2014). The official provides feedback on a game-by-game basis regarding the conduct of players, spectators and coaches. A web-based tool, the information is entered directly by the official into the database, where the information is used to generate a library of dynamic graphs and reports for administrators. This monitoring aspect of the JBMP allows administrators to identify short and long-term trends in behaviour, as well as providing the information necessary to evaluate any strategy implemented to address concerns (Raakman *et al.*, 2010).

## Conclusion

The power and influence of the coach within the youth sport context is uncontested (Gervis, 2012; McCallister, Binde and Weiss, 2000; Steelman 1995; Telfer, 2012). As a result, it should be of vital concern to those us involved with coaching research, as well as those charged with the administration of youth sport organisations, to have a comprehensive understanding of both youth sport culture and the culture of youth sport coaching.

This paper has attempted to provide a cultural explanation of youth sport coaching using aspects of Whitehead's cultural systems paradigm (2002). Unfortunately, the picture painted is one that sustains a culture of harmful coaching behaviours that are, in turn, supported by the culture of sport through the interaction of ideational systems, preferred behaviours, and structural relationships.

We suggest that monitoring and surveillance of the youth sport environment are both warranted and necessary to develop and further enhance our understanding of coaching behaviours, as well as to evaluate the effectiveness of strategies designed to improve the environment.

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## Chapter 6: *Virtual maltreatment in sport*

Emma J. Kavanagh and Dr. Ian Jones

### Abstract

*Various forms of social media have had a “profound effect” on sport in recent years (Pegoraro, 2010, p. 501), with platforms such as Twitter allowing a direct and instantaneous ability for fans and athletes to communicate, bypassing previously powerful gatekeepers such as officials and journalists (Hutchins, 2011) to allow unprecedented access to athletes (Kassing and Sanderson, 2010). As a consequence, “Twitter has brought fans closer to their sport heroes” (Pegoraro, 2010, p. 501), giving them “a real, unmediated look into the lives of their sport heroes and, in the process, [the possibility to] develop a greater appreciation for the talent, dedication to their sport, and day-to-day lives of these athletes” (Ibid. p. 504). Despite the increasing social significance of social media, however, “the literature is sparse, inside and outside of sport, that deals with Twitter” (Clavio and Kian, 2010, p. 486), and to date much of the research has focused on the tweeting behaviour of the athlete (e.g. Clavio and Kian, 2010; Hambrick, et al., 2010; Pegoraro, 2010) or social media use by sport managers and organisers (Hambrick, 2012). An area that has yet to be systematically explored, however, is fan use of Twitter. Twitter allows followers to also communicate either directly with, or about high profile athletes, communication which can be instantaneous, uncontrolled, and often anonymous, perceived as, according to Price, Farrington and Hall (2013, p. 452) bridging “the ever-increasing gap between our players and supporters – [who] can correspond directly with their heroes, effectively”. As such, the relationship between athlete and fan has become much more direct and immediate and the issue of abuse from fans towards players has been cited as important (Price, Farrington and Hall, 2013). Perhaps the clearest illustration of this can be seen in Twitter reactions to the 2013 Wimbledon tournament. The men’s winner, Andy Murray, received overwhelmingly supportive and congratulatory tweets (Twitter, 2013), yet the women’s champion, Marion Bartoli was the subject of a barrage of abusive messages, demonstrating arguably the clearest example of maltreatment through social media in sport to date. The purpose of the study reported here was to outline a conceptual framework of online maltreatment within sport. To do this, the study was informed by Stirling’s (2009) conceptual framework of athlete maltreatment within non virtual relationships. The concept of maltreatment is first introduced then the relevant constituents of each form of maltreatment – harassment and bullying – are presented and illustrated with reference to actual instances of each type; this provides a typology for understanding virtual maltreatment in sport. Finally, recommendations for further research into virtual maltreatment in sport are presented.*

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Recent years have seen a considerable shift in the ways in which athletes and fans communicate (Pegoraro, 2010), with social media allowing direct and immediate communication between fans and athletes, permitting gatekeepers such as officials and journalists to be bypassed (Hutchins, 2011). As a consequence, fans now have unprecedented access to athletes (Kassing and Sanderson, 2010), bringing them closer to their heroes (Pegoraro, 2010). One such platform used extensively by both fans and athletes is that of Twitter. Twitter allows followers to communicate directly with or about high profile athletes. Communication can be instantaneous, uncontrolled, and often anonymous, perceived to be bridging “the ever-increasing gap between our players and supporters – they can correspond directly with their heroes, effectively” (Price, Farrington and Hall, 2013, p. 452).

Most existing research to date on the use of social media and sport has focused on the beneficial outcomes of social media use. Thus, studies have explored aspects such as tweeting behaviour of athletes (e.g. Clavio and Kian, 2010; Hambrick, Simmons, Greenhalgh and Greenwell, 2010) or social media used by managers

and organisers to promote events (Hambrick, 2012). An area that has yet to be systematically explored, however, is the use of platforms such as Twitter for more destructive interaction between follower and athlete. The online environment results in a weakening of many of the inhibitions that would normally control such interaction. As Suler (2004, p. 321) notes, “people say and do things in cyberspace that they wouldn’t normally say and do in face-to-face interaction”, explaining that much of this behaviour, which he describes as “toxic disinhibition”, may be exacerbated by a number of factors. These include the ideas of *Dissociative Anonymity* (the protection afforded by the relative anonymity of online users), *Invisibility* (the inability to be seen, or to actually see and assess the responses of others), and *Dissociative Imagination* (the idea that online interaction is somehow ‘separate’ from ‘real life’). It is apparent that athletes and other key stakeholders are becoming ever more reliant on social media sources for personal promotion and interaction with fans and spectators. As a consequence, this has created an environment where maltreatment towards athletes is widespread. This chapter introduces a typology for classifying the types of maltreatment an individual may experience when engaging with virtual environments such as Twitter and Facebook. Four broad types of online maltreatment have been identified: physical maltreatment, sexual maltreatment, emotional maltreatment and discriminatory maltreatment. Examples of each type are presented to illustrate how individuals can experience them through online interaction with perpetrators.

### **Maltreatment in sport**

Maltreatment can be seen as an all-encompassing term that typically subsumes an array of abusive acts or behaviours against the individual, and includes acts of physical and/or psychological violence to the person within the context of a power differential. Recent research in sport indicates that athletes are not immune to experiences of physical (Kelly and Waddington, 2006; Lang, 2010; Kerr, 2010), sexual (Brackenridge, 2001; Cense and Brackenridge, 2001; Fasting, Brackenridge and Kjolberg, 2013; Hartill, 2009) and emotional abuse (Gervis and Dunn, 2004; Stirling and Kerr, 2007; Stirling and Kerr, 2008; Stirling and Kerr, 2009; Kerr and Stirling, 2012), along with other forms of maltreatment (Kerr and Stirling, 2008). Whilst some behaviours have seemingly become “normalised” (Rhind, Cook and Dorsch, 2013), it is apparent that maltreatment of various kinds are potentially harmful to the wellbeing of an athlete and therefore pose a significant threat to an individual’s physical and psychological safety.

A number of generic typologies of maltreatment already exist that enable us to classify or categorise the types of maltreatment an athlete may experience. David (2005), for example, proposed a typology that included four main types of abuse of athletes in competitive youth sport: physical, psychological, sexual abuse and neglect (a coach hitting an athlete could be classified as direct physical abuse). Raakman, Dorsch and Rhind (2010) extended this through the introduction of indirect abuse whereby an individual can be indirectly exposed to abusive behaviours (an athlete observing a coach physically abusing a teammate). This led to the conceptualisation of the coaching transgressions model (TOCT), which states that an athlete could experience neglect, physical, psychological, and/or sexual abuse either directly or indirectly. Stirling (2009) proposed a categorisation of maltreatment in sport that provides an additional level of analysis through the introduction of relational and non-relational maltreatment and the distinction between abuse and other forms of maltreatment. Neglect, physical, sexual and emotional abuse are classified as relational maltreatments whilst bullying, harassment, corruption, institutional maltreatment, child labour and assault are non-relational maltreatments. Although it is outside the scope of this chapter to provide a thorough review of existing typologies, those mentioned have helped to inform thinking in the area of virtual maltreatment in sport. What is clear is that athletes may experience some form of maltreatment during their careers and typologies help us to understand the nature of behaviours they could be exposed to. Stirling (2009, p. 1091) believes that “coaches, parents, administrators and athletes all represent both potential victims and perpetrators of maltreatment”. We would go further and suggest

that fans and followers of sport should be added to this list, and that their role as potential perpetrators through the use of online environments should not be understated.

## **Virtual maltreatment**

Research into the nature and prevalence of virtual maltreatment, commonly referred to as 'cyberbullying', is relatively recent (Kowalski and Limber, 2013), and focuses almost entirely upon abuse by and against children. There is, however, a growing body of literature that explores the nature of online abuse against adults. The literature is somewhat clouded by the variety of terms used to describe such acts. Herring (2002) refers to negative online interactions simply as 'cyber violence', defining such activity as "online behavior that constitutes or leads to assault against the wellbeing (physical, psychological, emotional) of an individual or group" (p. 1). Jane (2012) notes that researchers have used descriptions such as 'hateplay', 'rapeglisch', 'signviolence', 'flaming', and 'trolling' to explore the phenomenon. Willard (2007) has attempted to provide more clarity to the area through the development of a typology for understanding negative online behaviour that includes seven types of behaviours a person could experience:

1. Flaming: sending angry, rude, or vulgar messages directed at a person or to an online group
2. Harassment: repeatedly sending a person offensive messages
3. Denigration: posting rumours, harmful or untrue information about a person
4. Cyber stalking: harassment that includes threats of harm
5. Impersonation or pretending to be another person
6. Outing or trickery: tricking a person into sending information such as secrets or embarrassing information that can be used to send to others
7. Exclusion: excluding someone purposefully from an online group.

Athletes and other key stakeholders are becoming ever more reliant on virtual environments in order to communicate directly about their lives and their sport. It is clear that virtual environments provide an optimal climate for abuse and therefore that athletes engaging with social media could experience virtual-maltreatment at some point during their careers. To understand maltreatment within this context, we would suggest that an understanding of both the nature and types of such maltreatment is an appropriate starting point.

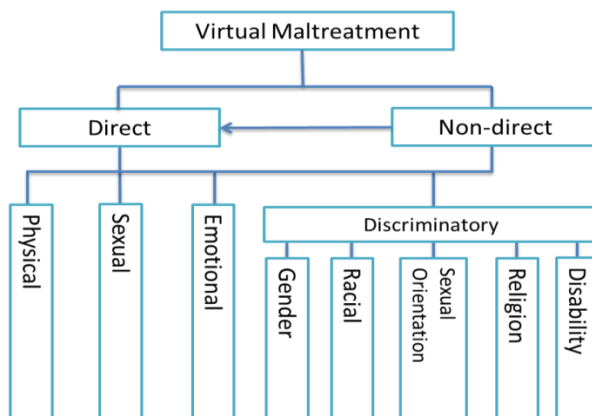
## **Introducing a typology of virtual maltreatment in sport**

Virtual relationships are those established within on-line environments and could include the follower-to-athlete (coach or official) or athlete-to-athlete relationship. The nature of virtual maltreatment indicates that, instead of relational/non-relational maltreatment, a more useful distinction could be made between direct and non-direct maltreatment. Direct maltreatment refers to those incidents where a message is directly sent to a recipient. Non-direct maltreatment refers to cases whereby a message is not sent to the actual subject of it but the content would make reference to them. However, non-direct maltreatment could become direct maltreatment through the process of retweeting or through media uptake or coverage of such abuse. In this instance, the subject of the abuse could become a direct recipient of it. Therefore, we 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.

The proposed typology is presented in Fig. 6.1. There are four types of maltreatment that can be experienced directly or non-directly in virtual environments. These are physical, sexual, emotional and discriminatory, of which the final type can be further categorised into discrimination based upon gender,

race, sexual orientation, religion and disability. Examples of each type of maltreatment are presented below using data collected from the micro-blogging site Twitter. In order to maintain the authenticity of the 'tweets' the language has not been changed and the posts have been included in full. It should be noted that some of the excerpts include shocking or offensive language.



**Figure 6.1 A typology of virtual maltreatment in sport**

### Virtual physical maltreatment

This can be viewed as a continuum between negative comments focusing upon an athlete’s physical attributes to threats of physical violence. Examples of direct physical maltreatment can be seen in the messages to the Premiership footballer Wayne Rooney and Olympic swimmer Rebecca Adlington:



Indirect physical maltreatment is demonstrated by tweets about Marion Bartoli. These range from those simply focusing on physical attributes:



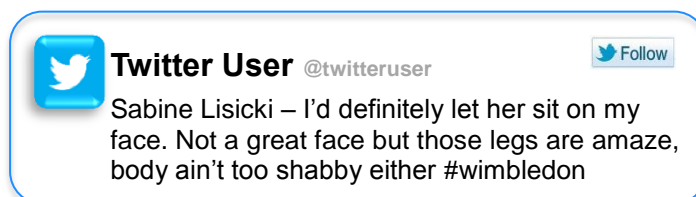
To more threatening behaviour:



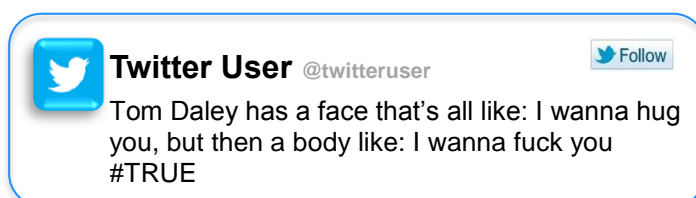
Even though there is no real physical threat, it is the psychological distress created by the tweet that means that it should be seen as physical maltreatment.

### Virtual sexual maltreatment

Virtual sexual maltreatment can include threats of rape and sexual assault or sexual acts to which the adult would not consent. In addition it can refer to comments made regarding the sexual behaviour of an individual or the sexual desires of the perpetrator in reference to the victim. Contrasting tweets regarding the two 2013 Wimbledon women finalists Marion Bartoli and Sabine Lisicki can be used to illustrate this aspect of maltreatment.



The use of a hashtag here demonstrates how non-direct maltreatment could become a direct form of maltreatment through connections or tagging. The use of the athlete's name and #wimbledon could provide a direct link to the athlete and it also makes the subject of the tweet easily identifiable. Although men are disproportionately the perpetrators and women disproportionately the victims of on-line sexual hostility (Herring, 2002), sexual maltreatment is also apparent against male athletes, as evidenced by a tweet about the diver Tom Daley:



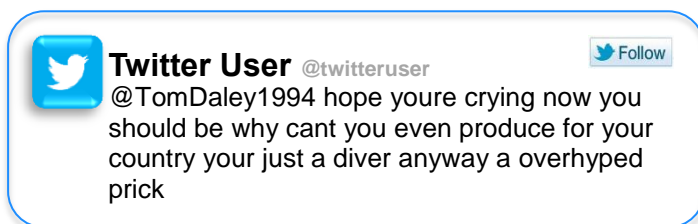
### Virtual emotional maltreatment

This type of maltreatment includes comments designed to elicit a negative emotional and or psychological reaction and can include rumour spreading, ridiculing, terrorising, humiliating, isolating, belittling and

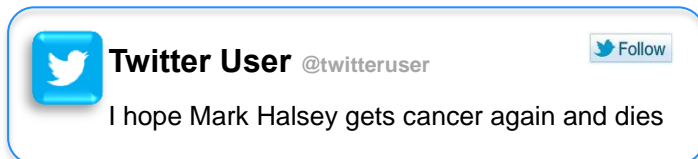
scapegoating. At a basic level, tweets may simply be designed to humiliate and belittle athletes, for example:



Or they may be designed to elicit emotional distress, such as the tweet sent to Tom Daley after a disappointing Olympic performance:



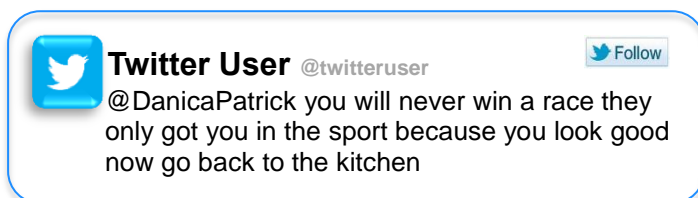
Or the message regarding football referee Mark Halsey, who had previously suffered from cancer:



This was an example of a non-direct tweet being received by the recipient, leading to Halsey actually making a complaint to the police about the tweet (James, 2012), showing that tweets about, rather than to, an individual still have the potential to cause harm, fear or distress, and should thus be seen as maltreatment.

### Virtual discriminatory maltreatment

This can include comments that negatively refer to an individual's membership of a particular social group based on gender, race, religion, nationality, disability and/or sexual orientation, as illustrated by a direct tweet to the female American racing driver Dana Patrick:

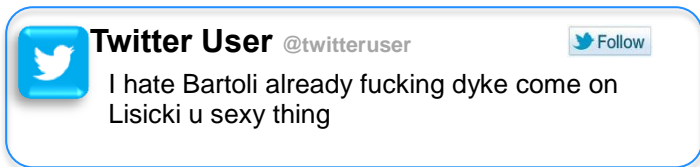




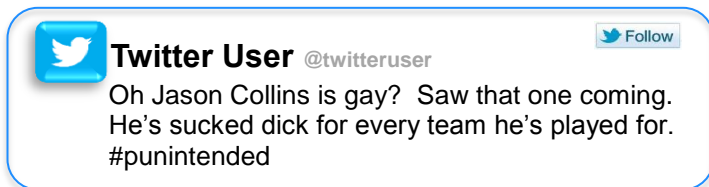
Two highly publicised tweets, reported widely in the press that demonstrated blatant racial discrimination towards an athlete were those directed at Louis Saha and Anton Ferdinand. Both of these are examples of direct discriminatory maltreatment on the basis of a person's race:



Discrimination based on sexual orientation is evident in terms of both male and female sexuality. Marion Bartoli received a number of high profile tweets about her sexuality that were reported in the national press, such as:



When US basketball player Jason Collins came out as gay, the first active male athlete in a major American professional team sport to do so, he was subjected to a variety of homophobic tweets:



It is evident that discriminatory maltreatment is complex and could include a variety of behaviours that may or may not be limited to those identified above.

## Conclusion

It is clear that virtual maltreatment is a potentially serious issue within sport. Given that we are becoming ever more dependent on virtual environments and technology, further research in this area should be a priority. From the evidence provided, individuals can be exposed to a range of behaviours that could impact negatively upon them. Although the four types of virtual maltreatment have been presented separately, it is important to remember that, in some cases, there will be overlap, and that single messages may contain different types of maltreatment, for example emotional and discriminatory. The typology does allow, however, a starting point by which instances of virtual maltreatment can be identified and classified. This will allow further research to be undertaken into aspects such as the impacts upon athletes, and motivations of perpetrators.

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## Chapter 7: *Is creating mentally tough players a masquerade for emotional abuse?*

Frank Owusu-Sekyere and Dr. Misia Gervis

### Abstract

*This study sought to explore elite youth football coaches' knowledge of mental toughness and give insight into the methods used to develop mentally tough players. A total of 12 elite football coaches took part in semi-structured interviews which were analysed using content analysis. Participants unanimously identified mental toughness as a key ingredient to a successful sporting career and discussed actively trying to develop it in their young athletes. All participants discussed using or witnessing the use of emotionally abusive behaviours as a perceived means of developing mental toughness. The most frequently discussed behaviours were bullying and shouting. Participants argued that some coaches use mental toughness development as a concealment for emotional abuse, while others believe emotionally abusive behaviours are legitimate methods of developing mental toughness. These findings provide evidence for the normalisation of emotionally abusive behaviours in the pursuit of developing mentally tough players.*

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Mental toughness has emerged as one of the most popular concepts in sport. Consistent correlations with key influencers of performance like endurance (Crust and Clough, 2005), consistency (Middleton, Marsh, Martin *et al.*, 2004) and brain development (Clough, Newton, Bruen *et al.*, 2010) have meant that athletes, coaches and sports psychologists have subscribed to previous suggestions that it is the most important psychological quality in sport (Gould, Hodge, Peterson and Petlichkoff, 1987). The widespread support for this view has garnered a strong desire from coaches to develop mental toughness in their athletes. To date, these methods have not triggered any concerns from a safeguarding perspective. When explored in further detail, questions can be asked over what coaches perceive to be acceptable methods of developing mental toughness, and whether those methods can endanger the physical or emotional wellbeing of children.

Despite the failure to explore the means by which mental toughness is developed, an abundance of research on mental toughness exists. This research has focussed on defining and categorising the concept. Despite there being an accumulating literature on mental toughness, inconsistencies in findings have meant that mental toughness remains a nebulous concept (Crust and Azadi, 2010). Consequently, its definition is disputed, in spite of both depictions offered by researchers (e.g. Goldberg, 1998; Williams, 1988; Alderman, 1974; Bull, Albinson and Shamrock, 1996; Loehr, 1995; Gucciardi, Gordon and Dimmock, 2008; Clough and Earle, 2002; Thelwell, Weston and Greenlees, 2005) and more recent assertions that mental toughness is 'the natural or developed psychological edge that enables you to generally, cope better than your opponents with the many demands that sport places on a performer' (Jones, Hanton and Connaughton, 2002, p. 209). This lack of agreement has had implications for coaches' perceptions of its development. This can be evidenced by the scarcity of empirically backed methods of developing mental toughness (Crust and Azadi, 2010). Therefore, while perceptions of its grave significance have engendered a strong desire to develop it, its theoretical ambiguity has caused confusion over precisely how to do so (Weinberg, Butt and Culp, 2011).

Possibly the only consistency in research on developing mental toughness is that mentally tough athletes are resistant to emotionally and physically challenging situations (Gucciardi and Mallet, 2010; Jones, Hanton and Connaughton, 2002; 2007), and coaches must subject athletes to such intense environments to help develop this (Weinberg, Butt and Culp, 2011). To date, no research has taken a safeguarding perspective to explore how coaches create these environments, or considered when these 'intense'

training environments become physically or emotionally abusive. This is particularly worrying in elite sports where the high stakes can often encourage coaches to push the boundaries of ethical coaching practice in the pursuit of sporting success (Gervis and Dunn, 2004; Brackenridge and Rhind, 2010). This worry is further escalated considering the parallels between discourses of developing mental toughness and abused elite athletes' reflections of 'intense' and insensitive coaches (in Gervis and Dunn, 2004; Stirling and Kerr, 2008), not to mention previous findings that, in elite sports, athletes are most likely to experience abuse (Gervis, 2010), yet coaches are least likely to be challenged on their methods (Gervis and Dunn, 2004). This is contributed to by a general lack of knowledge on the most prevalent form of abuse - emotional abuse (Gervis, 2004; Gervis, 2010).

Based on Garbarino, Guttman and Seeley's (1986) categorisation of emotional abuse, and emotionally abusive behaviours (belittling, humiliating, shouting, scapegoating, rejecting, isolating, threatening and ignoring), the aim of this study was to explore elite youth coaches' understandings of mental toughness and the methods used by them to develop mental toughness. The study explored whether congruence exists between the methods used by elite coaches to develop mental toughness and emotionally abusive behaviors.

### **Outline of methods**

Semi structured interviews were conducted with 12 elite youth football coaches (M age = 31, SD = 7.67). Coaches were male (n=10) and female (n=2) with a mean of 11 years coaching experience (SD=6.23). Interviews comprised of two sections; the first explored understandings of mental toughness with questions like 'How would you define mental toughness?' and scenario based questions. The second section examined the methods used by elite youth football coaches to develop mental toughness with questions like 'What can a coach do to develop a young athlete's mental toughness?' This section also included scenario based questions. Throughout the interviews, participants gave accounts of the methods they have used or witnessed from fellow elite coaches. Disclosures involving other elite level coaches were valued equally with personal testimonies to limit the potential effect of impression management on the study.

Following data collection, interviews were transcribed, reviewed for accuracy and analysed using content analysis. This elicited two general dimensions: elite level youth football coaches' understandings of mental toughness and the methods employed by elite youth football coaches to develop mental toughness. For each general dimension, emergent themes were identified, along with a meaning unit (MU) which represented the number of participants who expressed a similar view.

### **Key research findings and issues**

The results suggest that elite youth football coaches believe mental toughness is a crucial aspect of sporting success. Participants unanimously described mental toughness as a key ingredient for success, stating that 'to be successful you have to be mentally tough'. They also discussed mental toughness as a wide ranging trait that typifies a player's personality type, attitude towards adversity, attitude/behaviour within adversity and attitudes/behaviours following adversity. Mental toughness was also discussed as a catalyst to outstanding performance by eight participants. One in particular argued that '*it affects 80% of an athlete's final performance*'. Coaches also argued that the significance of mental toughness is such that it is perceived as something that gives credence to coaches, providing them with even more reason to actively try to develop it.

In lauding the significance of mental toughness, the coaches' comments were consistent with those in previous research conducted with elite coaches (e.g. Crust and Azadi, 2010). Coaches were also consistent

with previous research in relation to their definitions of mental toughness. Elite coaches discussed personal qualities (e.g. resilience, self-motivation and confidence), identical to those discussed in previous studies (e.g. Clough, Earle and Sewell, 2002; Fourie and Potgieter, 2001; Middleton *et al.*, 2004; Thelwell, Weston and Greenlees, 2005; Bull, Shamrock, James and Brooks, 2005). This provides evidence to suggest that elite youth football coaches can identify the characteristics of mentally tough athletes and believe these characteristics to be vitally important. However, coaches consistently failed to describe the process of being mentally tough in any detail. They failed to mention psychological strategies like self-talk (Crust, 2008), maintaining task specific attention (Middleton *et al.*, 2004) and utilising emotional management techniques (Crust, 2007). In light of this failure to recognize the skills used by mentally tough athletes, questions can be raised over elite youth football coaches' ability to use informed methods to develop their athlete's mental toughness.

When the methods used by coaches to develop mental toughness were explored, offering varied playing experiences and developing a broad skill set emerged as a general dimension. The main general dimension that emerged, however, was the use of emotionally abusive behaviours as a means to develop mental toughness. Coaches unanimously referenced using or witnessing the use of such methods in what was perceived to be a means to develop mental toughness. These behaviours were categorised in relation to Garbarino's model of emotional abuse, similar to previous research on emotional abuse in sport (Gervis, 2010), and discussed under the heading of exposing young athletes to emotionally and physically challenging situations.

The most frequently discussed category of emotionally abusive behaviours was bullying, which ten participants discussed using or witnessing as a means to develop mental toughness. This was stated with the general perception that if the coach singles out particular players, and is consistently harsh on them, they will develop mental toughness. This can be exemplified by the following quote from one participant: *'... if she's on her all the time, she will get used to it'*. A total of eight participants also discussed witnessing aggressive methods of developing mental toughness, of which shouting was the most frequent. One participant disclosed *'I have seen horrific examples ... they think they are working on mental toughness by screaming and shouting and wanting to see a response'*.

Based on these findings it can be said that this study found evidence of the use of emotionally abusive practices as a method of developing mental toughness in elite level youth football. Although participants were divided in their explanations, some were adamant that coaches believed they were working on mental toughness by using such methods, while others believed that *'... it's seen as being a get out clause for coaches to use on players'*. As such, evidence has been found of the use emotionally abusive behaviours under the genuine impression that these methods develop mental toughness, and of the use of mental toughness development as a pretense for emotionally abusive coaching practices. This evidence suggests that a re-evaluation of accepted coaching ideologies must be conducted through the lens of emotional abuse, and that research should give more ethical and moral consideration to the process of developing mental toughness.

### **Limitations and implications for future research**

This study has some limitations. First, although merging the methods used by participants and colleagues reduced the potential effect of impression management, there was a reliance on participants' judgments of the motives of their colleagues. Also, although all participants were elite coaches, experiences varied and the views of those with vast experiences were equally valued with those with brief elite coaching career. However, the study can offer directions for future research. Future research may explore further evidence of the use of emotionally abusive practices as a means of developing mental toughness. It might also question whether there is a genuine belief that such behaviours will develop mental toughness, or

whether mental toughness is used as a justification for such behaviours. It would also be advantageous to explore this in a wider variety of sports.

## Conclusions

- All coaches agreed that mental toughness was a critical factor in determining the future success of players.
- All key elements of emotional abuse behaviours were identified by coaches as being normal/acceptable strategies for developing mental toughness.
- Coaches stated that mental toughness is enhanced through exposing players to emotionally challenging and physically harsh training environments.
- Coaches reported the frequent use of emotionally abusive behaviours as a means of developing mental toughness.

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## **PART 3: ENHANCING ATHLETE WELFARE**

## **Chapter 8: Law's Intervention and influence within youth sport**

Prof. Steve Greenfield

### **Abstract**

*This chapter concerns the relationship between the law and those coaching youth sport. However, it is not primarily focused on the extension of legal liability through cases such as Mountford v Newlands School 2007, although this is still a cause for concern. Rather, it considers the extent to which the law may impact upon coaches and coaching practices because of the individual and indeed collective 'worry' or 'concern' about legal intervention even in the absence of actual cases of such intervention. The idea of 'Concerns About Litigation' has been developed from the previous concepts of 'Litigaphobia' and the rather better known 'Fear of Litigation' (Brodsky and Cramer, 2008). The idea was originally identified within the medical and allied professions and has since been extended into other areas (Katz et al., 2005; Lambert et al., 2002). A 'Concerns About Litigation Scale' has been adopted both generically (CALs I) and specifically for particular groups (CALs II) and both are robust survey instruments (Brodsky and Cramer, 2008). The author has developed a refined CALs II, specifically for coaches and educators involved in youth sport. The chapter explores the application of the concept of Concerns About Litigation to a youth sport coaching environment and identifies how such concerns may be both articulated and countered.*

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An operational relationship between sport and the law can be seen across a number of different issues within both professional and amateur sport. At the commercial high end, disputes may arise over the contracts for the sale of valuable rights and infringements of them. For example the case of pub landlady Karen Murphy, that ended up in the European Court (Aston, 2012), concerned the use of a foreign decoder to show restricted broadcasts, in this case live Premier League football. This type of highly publicized case indicates the commercial value of sport but has little relevance to the operation of sport and other leisure activities at adult amateur and junior level. It does, however, seem likely that, in the light of 'expanding commercial interests', law will have an increasingly prominent role in some areas (Carlsson, 2013, p. 3). Law does though still have a potentially strong influence, even in the absence of cases and legislation that are generally viewed as the primary vehicles of law. The relationship is, though, often confused and contradictory (Greenfield and Osborn, 2010). Law, combined with other factors, does have the potential to indirectly alter a wide range of behaviours and even the rules under which games are played. It is a mistake to assume that law's influence is confined to the outcome of decided cases or specific legislation. Understanding how law can influence and change behaviour within youth sport requires a more detailed analysis of the relationship. This chapter firstly outlines some of the examples of where law is at its most obvious and interventionist before considering the less apparent ways that law can control both on- and off-the-field activities connected to youth sport. It sketches out some of the significant issues and highlights areas of concern and where further research is required.

### **Materialisation**

Law appears in a variety of decided cases that generally involve a compensation claim for an injury that has occurred during participation. There is a range of cases governing sport and other leisure activities. Faced with an injured party who may have suffered serious injuries (see Nolan or Barnes for example), there is inevitably judicial sympathy for the unfortunate claimant. As Centner (2005, p. 5) notes:

Our legal jurisprudence shows a reluctance to assign responsibilities to parents when other options are available. In choices involving the assignment of responsibilities between parents and sport

providers, courts generally assume that the providers should have taken further action to safeguard children from accidents.

Governing bodies for any organisation or individual covered by insurance are clearly attractive targets for the law and the claim of a badly injured child may be difficult to resist. Aside from determining whether or not the defendant has been careless, and that the carelessness led to the injury, there is also the question of the social utility of the activity in question. Following the publication of the Better Regulation Task Force Report 'Better Routes to Redress' the Government enacted the Compensation Act 2006 within which s1 specifically requires a court determining a negligence claim to consider the deterrent effect of potential liability:

### **1. Deterrent effect of potential liability**

A court considering a claim in negligence or breach of statutory duty may, in determining whether the defendant should have taken particular steps to meet a standard of care (whether by taking precautions against a risk or otherwise), have regard to whether a requirement to take those steps might—

- (a) prevent a desirable activity from being undertaken at all, to a particular extent or in a particular way, or
- (b) discourage persons from undertaking functions in connection with a desirable activity

The incident that led to the *Scout Association* case occurred prior to the enactment of the Compensation Act but Jackson LJ, commenting on the by-then enacted section 1, observed; '*the principle has always been part of the common law*'. Indeed, in its post legislative assessment of the act, the Ministry of Justice confirmed that sections 1 and 2 '*reflected and did not change the law, and on that basis we would not expect them to have led to any significant change in the way in which the courts have dealt with these cases*' (Ministry of Justice, 2012, p. 20). The point of enacting this provision was '*to improve awareness of this aspect of the law and ensure that normal activities were not prevented because of the fear of litigation and excessively risk-averse behaviour*'.

The common law approach was further outlined by Jackson LJ: '*Many physical recreations involve a degree of risk. Rugby, cricket or skiing are just three examples. The foreseeable risks are accepted, because recreations of this nature have a recognised social value.*' (*Scout Association v Barnes* 2010, EWCA, Para 29). This approach was followed in *Blair-Ford v CRSD Adventures Ltd* (2012) where Globe, J noted '*Tort law should not stamp out socially desirable activities just because they carried some risk*' (p. 2). The question, of course, is 'What is the acceptable level of risk and the extent of the social value?' This is even more pertinent where activities are inherently 'dangerous'. Courts clearly have a difficult balancing act especially if there is sympathy for the claimant and insurance company involvement.

There is always the fear that a decided case involving a new situation will have an effect past the immediate case and threaten the status quo well beyond providing compensation to the individual. In *Smoldon*, liability was imposed upon a referee for the serious injuries suffered by one of the players. Concern was expressed that imposing liability could lead to numerous claims against referees from injured players. The Court of Appeal made it clear that this would not be the case:

The judge was at pains to emphasise that his judgment in favour of the plaintiff was reached on the very special facts of this case, having regard in particular to the rules designed to afford protection to players aged under 19 and to the evidence that the number of collapsed scrums which was permitted to occur in the course of this match was well in excess of what any informed observer considered to be acceptable.. He did not intend to open the door to a plethora of claims by players against referees, and it would be deplorable if that were the result. (*Smoldon*, 1996, p. 15)

By setting the threshold for negligence at a high level the court noted 'it will not be easily crossed'. This was reiterated in the further case involving a referee, this time in an adult match. Again, concern was expressed as to the deterrent effect of imposing liability and, again, the Court was at pains to point out that this would be unlikely and that legal action was even less likely than a serious injury.

Serious injuries are happily rare, but they are an inherent risk of the game. That risk is one which those who play rugby believe is worth taking, having regard to the satisfaction that they get from the game. We would not expect the much more remote risk of facing a claim in negligence to discourage those who take their pleasure in the game by acting as referees. (Evans, 2003, p. 14)

Both these cases clearly outline an unwillingness of the courts to impose liability unless there is clear evidence of falling below a high threshold of competence. This ought to be reassuring for participants who freely volunteer their time and are concerned about potential liability. As the court in *Smoldon* noted, a preferable route to litigation would be some form of player insurance to cover serious injury.

As noted above, the Compensation Act 2006 was enacted, at least partially, to allay fears about litigation. A more comprehensive and directed piece of legislation, the Safeguarding Vulnerable Groups Act 2006, was introduced following the report of the Bichard Inquiry that had been set up to explore the systemic failures that contributed to the tragic child murders of at Soham. The whole system of Vetting and Barring that the Act introduced was extremely controversial given the all-encompassing coverage. Widespread criticism led to a commitment by the incoming coalition Government to scale back the scheme and amend the activities covered. Many sports governing bodies had already introduced measures to increase the protection of children following the revelations of serious sexual abuse and the UK was in the forefront of such policies (Brackenridge, 2004). Introducing protective policies is one element: going beyond a 'tick box' approach and measuring their effectiveness is, however, a different matter. As Brackenridge *et al.* note 'By 2000, many other governing bodies in the UK had set up policies and procedures for CP but, at that time, few had successfully implemented these or collected evidence of their impact or effectiveness.' (2005, p. 241). The extent to which child protection policies are embraced and internalized is clearly important so that clubs move beyond the 'laminated policy notice board' scenario. There is also the danger that child protection becomes compartmentalised and the role of parents downgraded. With respect to rugby league, Harthill and Prescott (2007) noted:

... we would argue that the low response rate, coupled with some of the qualitative data presented here, indicates that, within the rugby league community, despite some evidence of crucial changes such as the adoption of policy and the appointment of CPOs, there remains considerable work to be done in winning over 'hearts and minds' to the principles and messages of child protection policy and discourse. (p. 249)

There is also the danger that, as time passes, the immediate importance of child protection is lost and an assumption emerges that the environment is now 'safe'. Aside from the theoretical debates over how the law can best be used to protect young participants, there are also practical concerns about that a highly bureaucratized policy-driven system will deter volunteers who remain essential to core delivery within sports clubs.

## **Juridification**

One aspect of law's role in relation to sport that has attracted academic attention has been the extent to which a process of juridification has taken place (Foster, 2006; Carlsson, 2009; Greenfield *et al.*, 2011). The overlap between the terms 'judicialisation' and 'legalisation' is not always apparent (Blichner and

Molander, 2008). As a definition of law Carlsson uses 'the legal system and a legal rationality (2009, p. 477). Arguably, the definition will need to be expanded if a broader view of juridification is applied. This is much more than a mere increase in the size of the legal field, for example by adding new areas of liability. It is concerned with the incorporation of legal norms and attitudes into existing structures and methods of regulation and governance. As Foster (2006) notes:

... the internal regulatory regime may already have many elements of 'law' in a legal pluralist sense. A regulating sports body will have a constitutive document, the rulebook, a disciplinary regime to enforce the rules, and often a private system of dispute resolution that is legalistic, in that it is procedurally protective of the 'defendant' and administered by a lawyer. (p. 158)

Blichner and Molander delineate 'five dimensions of juridification' (2008, p. 38). Carlsson (2009, p. 477) argues that there are two different processes at work. The first is an *external normative force* and the second an *internal normative development*. The external dimension is the most obvious but the two are inextricably linked: arguably there is also a third dimension that does not have formal recognition though is 'represented' within the internal regulation. This third dimension is a set of attitudes and behaviours that have become subject to a different element of juridification, a fear of the consequences of the growth of the external dimension coupled with the pressure of the internal regulation.

This third dimension remains relatively unexplored in the context of sport but work has been carried out in other fields through the identification and analysis of 'concerns about litigation'. This work originated in studies of attitudes and behaviour within the medical profession and sought to measure the potential effect that a background of litigation might have (Breslin *et al.*, 1986). The original term was 'litigaphobia' which gave way to the most recognisable 'fear of litigation' to be replaced by a less judgemental 'concerns about litigation' (CAL) (Brodsky and Cramer, 2008). The CALS scale drew upon 3 specific components: Affect, Behaviour and Cognition:

The affective component includes anger, discouragement, anxiety, and frustration towards patients and malpractice suits. Cognitions encompass thoughts and actions such as planning ahead, anticipation of potential problems, reading, attending continuing education seminars, and consulting with colleagues on strategies to prevent malpractice suits. The behavioural component incorporates proactive steps such as screening of patients from databases, ordering extra tests and denying errors when they occur. (Brodsky and Cramer, 2008, p. 529)

Whilst amateur volunteer administrators and coaches are not in a directly equivalent position to medical professionals, some parallels can be drawn, both in relation to litigation (which is very unlikely) and also to the framework within which youth sport operates. There are snippets of evidence from work on sports and similar professions, such as teaching, that indicate this to be a significant issue (Greenfield, 2014). Furthermore, if 'patients' is replaced with 'parents' the potential to observe at least the affective component becomes more obvious. As coaching becomes more professionalised different pressures and responsibilities are emerging (Taylor and Garratt, 2010). These may well feed more directly into the cognition and behaviour components. If identified, the key is to devise a preventative strategy that permits such concerns to be nullified.

## Conclusion

The extent of law's influence is concurrently both clear and uncertain. The element of law that is apparent and obvious indicates a restrictive and limited role for law's involvement in youth sport. Some new cases may emerge such as *Smoldon* but the consequential lack of similar cases suggests no great expansion of liability. It could of course be the case that the problems identified in the cases are rectified through better

governance and regulation so standards improve to meet the legal challenge. This is an idealistic view of the operation of law and suggests law has widespread influence that is listened to and acted upon. This is also an international issue: those countries that have yet to establish a framework that encompasses both rights and liabilities in this field can draw upon the UK experience (Greenfield, 2013). This is set against a backdrop of an emerging rights agenda for youth sport at both international and European level that will add a new dimension to already strained relationships.

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## **Chapter 9: Enhancing the protective factors for sport interventions through a conflict-sensitive approach for children and youth in armed conflict settings**

Prof. Dean Ravizza

### **Abstract**

*A considerable number of organisations have sought to utilize sport to provide support and bring the benefits of participation to children and youth in armed conflict settings. The nature of these interventions range in objectives from peace-building and encouraging reconciliation to teaching conflict resolution strategies with a broader aim of contributing to positive social change (Kidd, 2007). Because children and youth in armed conflict settings experience varied levels of trauma (Wessels, 2006; Betancourt, 2008), safeguarding their wellbeing is critical to maximizing the positive impacts on the (conflict) context and the intervention. By drawing on fieldwork and mixed-methods research in Northern Uganda, this chapter is aimed at exploring the intersection of sport, conflict, child protection, and trauma sensitivity to further discuss the concept of conflict-sensitive sport interventions. Furthermore, the chapter seeks to identify the structural prerequisites for applying conflict sensitivity to sport interventions and how to operationalise the lessons learned to contribute to the body of knowledge in order to provide positive sport experience for young survivors of war.*

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Conflicts deeply disrupt the lives of children around the world. Worldwide, children are forcibly recruited or abducted by armed groups and take on both violent and non-violent roles in conflict compromising their psychological and social development (CSUCS, 2009). According to Child Soldiers International (2012), children have been used in armed conflicts by 20 states since 2010, and that children are at risk of military use in many more. Although there are no exact figures, and numbers continually change, tens of thousands of children under the age of 18 continue to serve in government forces or armed opposition groups (CSI, 2012). Furthermore, the United Nations Office of the Secretary for Children in Armed Conflict (2013) reports that armed conflicts put children at risk for maiming, sexual violence, attacks on their schools, and a denial of humanitarian access. Given the prevalence of risk to exposure to violence, effective interventions that address child protection are essential.

### **Conflict in Northern Uganda**

The conflict in Northern Uganda is a harsh example of the devastating effects of armed conflict on children and youth. Since 1986, the people of northern Uganda were victims to the conflict between the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) rebel group and the government forces of Uganda. Throughout the conflict, LRA leader Joseph Kony bolstered his army primarily through the forcible abduction of children. International agencies estimated that nearly 30,000 children were abducted by the LRA. However, field-based research placed that number at more than 65,000 children and youth abducted for periods ranging from a few days to many years (SWAY, 2007). Systematically, abducted children take on various roles within an armed group other than combatants including serving as porters, spies, messengers, and servants (Machal, 2001). Sexual violence remains widespread in many conflict situations, producing devastating consequences to girls and young women. Sexual violence and the forced marriage of girls to members of armed groups proved to be a pervasive threat to their safety and security (McKay and Mazaruna, 2004). Widespread insecurity throughout the region forced hundreds of thousands of local residents into camps for internally displaced people (IDPs) characterized by overcrowding, disease, and abject poverty, leaving children vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. The lack of civilian protection throughout the region created the phenomenon of 'night commuters', when tens of thousands of children walked for miles to sleep in town

centres for greater protection from abduction. International peace talks produced a cessation of hostilities beginning in late 2006, bringing a measure of stability to Northern Uganda that remains intact to date despite an implementation of any peace agreement. Following the departure of the LRA from Northern Uganda to the Democratic Republic of Congo, large numbers of the internally displaced people left the IDP camps for the uncertainty of rebuilding their lives. In its current state, the region is now in the third phase of the Government's Peace and Recovery Development Plan (PDRP) which has put into place a set of objectives aimed at the re-establishing a stable economy and basic infrastructure to meet the challenges inherent of a post-conflict environment (Government of Uganda, 2011). Despite concentrated efforts to rebuild communities, renew livelihood activities and tackle the root causes of conflict, low-intensity disputes (e.g. land, domestic, community stigma) still remain potent at the community level (Pham and Vinck, 2010) creating a need to build local capacity to address issues that pose threats to human security that leave children vulnerable to further abuses (Government of Uganda, 2011).

### **Child protection protocols**

Policy efforts on the part of children and youth in armed conflict have witnessed the passage of UN Security Council Resolution 1612 (2005), which established: a monitoring and reporting mechanism for violations of children's rights; the adoption of new international rights and standards such as the Optional Protocol of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict (2000); and the Paris Principles and Guidelines on Children Associated with Armed Forces or Armed Groups (2007) to prevent the unlawful recruitment of children into armed groups. The topics of child protection and sport intersect within the Convention on the Rights of the Child by focusing on the responsibility to protect all children from all forms of harm, abuse, neglect and exploitation (Article 19) and respecting the right for all children to engage in play and recreational activities (Article 31). Each of these protocols has established a solid legal framework for protecting children, yet gaps still remain in the implementation of services and protections on the ground.

The international community has addressed the need to protect children from exploitation and abuse within a sport setting (Brackenridge, 2010a; Brackenridge, Kay and Rhind, 2012; Brackenridge *et al.*, 2010b). Brackenridge *et al.* (2010), through UNICEF, established policies and initiatives to protect children and youth from violence and abuse during participation within an activity meant to enhance their physical, social, and emotional wellbeing. In 2012, the International Safeguarding Children in Sport Working Group drafted programmatic guidelines in the form of eleven standards for safeguarding the wellbeing of children and youth from physical and emotional harm within the sport setting. These standards provide a framework by which international organisations in cooperation with community-based organisations and grassroots actors can use to guide them in creating safe sporting environments for their young participants.

While issues of child protection for children and youth are factored into training programmes aimed at preventing occurrences of abuse, violence, and exploitation within sport interventions (see Right to Play, 2012), a noticeable gap is present in child protection and sport literature and programming that fails to outline important protective factors specifically targeted for children and youth formerly associated with armed groups. A cross-sectoral approach to planning and implementation of social interventions using sport serves as a starting point to building a framework to speak to key issues of human [in]security, and to transfer established and tested guidelines to address trauma, violence, and abuse that affect large numbers of children and youth in armed conflict settings including those formerly associated with armed groups.

## **A conflict-sensitive approach**

The case of Northern Uganda, like other conflicts, highlights the need for organisations and individuals working in areas of armed conflict or immediate post-conflict regions to utilize a conflict-sensitive approach to planning and implementing a sport and social intervention as part of peacebuilding efforts. A minimum obligation for any intervention within a conflict setting is that it does no harm (Wessells, 2008). By understanding the context in which the intervention exists and the interaction between the intervention and the context, organisations can avoid or mitigate negative impacts while attempting to create positive impacts on the conflict dynamics (Barbolet *et al.*, 2005). These negative impacts may include worsening divisions between conflicting groups, reinforcing direct or structural violence, and increasing danger for participants within an intervention (Lange and Quinn, 2003).

Inter-agency approaches to establishing do no harm policies for children and youth in emergency settings, such as areas of armed conflict, provide a focus on the organisation and establishment of programmatic interventions (Inter-Agency Standing Committee, 2007). These include: actors participating in coordination groups to learn from other response groups, minimize duplication, and gaps in responses; maximizing the participation of local effective populations in planning and programming by building on local capacities and available resources; and considering attempts at holistic programming approaches whenever possible (Inter-Agency Standing Committee, 2007). These guidelines can provide an important framework for integrating do no harm policies into programme development and implementation addressing the unique psychosocial needs of children and youth in armed conflict settings, including children formerly associated with armed groups.

## **Sport interventions for children in armed conflict settings**

A growing number of organisations have sought to utilize sport interventions in situations of political and military conflict in recent years, to contribute to the cessation of hostilities, to encourage reconciliation between the conflicting sides, and to bring support and the benefits of sport and physical activity to victims of conflict (Kidd, 2007). Programmes have been put in place that work towards addressing each of these issues in both active and post-conflict settings. Some organisations seek to utilize sport as a means to building peace by aiming to reduce key drivers of violent conflict and to contribute to peace at a broader societal level. However, organisations must be cautioned not to assume establishing a mandate to build peace [through sport activities] will lead to creating peaceful environments. Nor will they automatically provide a safe, protective environment for the participants. While sport may unite people and generate socially-beneficial outcomes, it may also be a force for division, exclusion, or violence (Donnelly, 2009; Sugden, 2006).

Our long-term research project based in Northern Uganda sought to narrow the knowledge gap to provide a critical reflection of the applications of international protocols while researching and constructing a social intervention through sport aimed at addressing conflicts of low-intensity within the former conflict region. Our research team employed participatory research strategies to enhance a more conflict-sensitive approach to developing and implementing culturally-contextual, locally-owned sport interventions for children and youth to complement the government's current peace and development recovery plan (Government of Uganda, 2011). Our team utilized participatory research methods (see Agar, Stark and Potts, 2010) to establish locally-defined levels of conflict in sport and strategies for resolution (Ravizza, 2012, 2013). Free listing exercises (see Betancourt *et al.*, 2009), followed by participant interviews completed with school-based sport teachers and community-based coaches, yielded four levels of conflict that children and youth engage in while participating in sport (Ravizza, 2013; Ravizza *et al.*, 2012). In one case, the participatory research yielded a level of conflict called *Gin Marac* translated to mean a harmful level of conflict in sport similar to that of taking revenge upon someone. For example, a player may have

perpetrated violence against another player on an opposing team or members of their family during the conflict. The player may want to seek out retaliation on that player for the previous acts of violence committed against them or their family. Through a commitment to a conflict-sensitive approach, including inclusionary research strategies, our team would have overlooked this critical aspect of conflict in sport and thus failed to develop strategies with the participants to address this level of conflict to further increase the rate of participant safety and security within the sporting context in order to further promote sport as a safe alternative to violence.

### **A conflict-sensitive approach for sport interventions**

Conflict-sensitive approaches to planning and implementing a social intervention through sport should take into account the trauma experienced by the participants to promote a sense of security and emotional wellbeing within the sport setting. Children formerly associated with an armed group face community stigma that often brands them as overly aggressive and threaten unconditional peace (Singer, 2005; Wessells, 2006). Therefore, those who implement sport as part of a holistic peacebuilding or psychosocial programme for children formerly associated with an armed group should teach participants the importance of clearly communicating their feelings to avoid negative stigma. For instance, a child formerly associated within an armed group who approaches a programme coach or facilitator with the comment "*I am angry ...*" will more likely be dismissed based on the stigma of their perceived violence. By using words such as "*I am frustrated*" that may better describe their current state may truly reflect their feelings and receive the proper attention of the coach or facilitator.

Other factors may take into effect the physical or sexual abuse endured by the child as a result of their active involvement in the conflict. For many survivors of conflict, physically touching or assisting a player during instruction or game play can be a clinical issue that requires care and attention. By opting for verbal assists instead of physically handling a player, the coach or facilitator demonstrates to the participants an understanding of the unique physical and psychological needs of the individuals and a respect for personal space (Emerson *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, by providing an invitational approach for activity options and levels of participation, young participants can internalise a sense of choice while working towards the expected outcomes of a social intervention through sport within a highly protective setting.

Because children and youth in armed conflict settings experience a multitude of issues that leave them in a vulnerable state, we must also view sport as a means to protect children as well; or, the notion of child protection *through* sport. During active armed conflict children and youth are at risk for recruitment or re-recruitment into an armed group, forced marriage, and trafficking. Push and pull factors such as poverty, discrimination, and revenge can be important motivating factors for children and youth to [re]join armed groups (Machel, 2001). Social interventions through sport can be utilized as a social mobilising agent for children and youth to engage in physical activity within a safe space and capitalise on the opportunity to educate them on the dangers of involvement in armed groups as well as addressing the factors that drive them towards recruitment or conscription.

### **Conclusions**

Despite the many uses of sport as a means of psychosocial support for children and youth in armed conflict settings, gaps still remain. The current fieldwork and research seeks to advocate for a more conflict-sensitive approach in programme planning and implementation to more effectively address the protective needs of programme beneficiaries. It is intended to better define priorities for organisations implementing sport interventions in order to build local capacity for safely delivering programmes that aim to address critical issues of child protection for young survivors of war.

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## **Chapter 10: Sport respects your rights: Empowering young Europeans in sport for a culture of respect and integrity and against sexualised violence and gender harassment**

Agnes Kainz and Dr. Mike Hartill

### **Abstract**

*Building on the exchange of good practice, which was initiated through the EU-project “Better, Safer, Stronger – Prevention of sexual and gender harassment and abuse in sports”, a further transnational project application was successfully coordinated within this priority area. The project is being co-funded by the DAPHNE-III-Programme 2011/2012 of the European Union and was submitted in the priority area “Empowerment work at grass-roots level”. This two-year project will support 16-22 year old Europeans to develop self-confident behaviour against sexual abuse and harassment in sports. The young people will become powerful multipliers and active agents of social change in their settings, affecting peers and raising awareness in the sport environment through youth-led campaigns, which they themselves have created. Parallel to the educational work, multi-sector networks in the national settings of the project partners shall be developed in order to find synergies to support the sport sector after EU-funding has ceased. The initiative is steered by a network of 10 European sport- and socio-cultural organisations and Universities. A final conference in January 2015 will present the results and achievements to the wider public.*

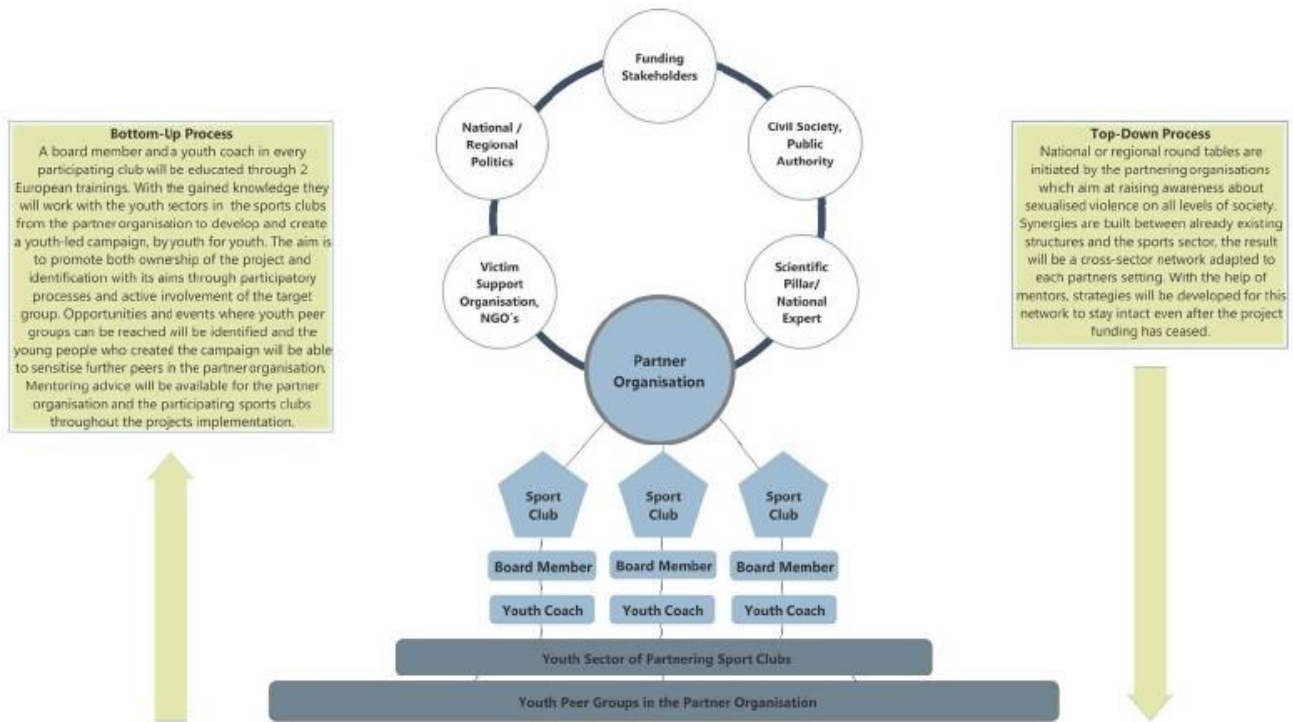
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Building on the network and exchange of good practice which was initiated through the EU-project “Better, Safer, Stronger – Prevention of sexual and gender harassment and abuse in sports” (project lead: German Sports Youth), this transnational project was developed to fight abuse and gender-based violence in the youth sport sector. The project, running for 24 months until March 2015, is funded in the priority area “Empowerment work at grass-roots level” as the only sports project in the DAPHNE-III-Programme 2011/2012 of the European Union.

“Sport respects your rights” supports 16-22 year old Europeans in developing self-confident behaviour against sexualized violence and harassment in sports. Throughout this project the young sportswomen and men are given the platform to develop their own youth-led campaigns. Through these they raise awareness amongst peers, in their sport environment and beyond. This participatory process allows the young people to become powerful multipliers and active agents of social change in their settings. Parallel to the education and participation aspects with young people, each project partner develops a multi-sector network in order to create long-lasting synergies to fight violence and harassment in sport.

### **“Sport respects your rights” is based on two pillars**

Eight organisations based in six European countries (Austria, Germany, Italy, UK, Poland and the Netherlands) with diverse channels of access to the youth sport sector (through the sport-for-all-, fitness and amateur-, University-, special and professional sports sector, through socio-cultural communities and through an NGO working with youth sport clubs and informal youth groups) will be implementing “Sport respects your rights” within their settings. The implementation within each partner organisation is based on two main processes (see Fig. 10.1).



**Figure 10.1 Structure of “Sport respects your rights” in the setting of the implementing partner organisations**

**1 – Bottom-up process: the education of multipliers and the creation of youth-led campaigns**

A project coordinator from each implementing organisation and two multipliers from each participating sport club (e.g. a board member and a youth coach) are educated through two European trainings to work with the youth sectors in their respective sport settings. Through youth workshops each organisation (or sport club) creates youth-led campaigns - developed by youth for youth.

This participatory process promotes both ownership of the project and identification with its aims through the active involvement of the target group<sup>1</sup>. Focus is laid on raising awareness, installing and developing self-esteem, communicational skills, reflective and assertive behaviour and a general culture of respect in sport settings. “Sport respects your rights” develops the capacity of multipliers and youth at grass roots sports level (in sport club and informal sport group settings) to reflect, act and protect themselves against sexual abuse, violence and gender harassment.

With the help of the youth-led campaigns, the young people who created the campaign will sensitise further peers and intermediaries in their settings at opportunities and events where these can be reached.

**2 – Top-down process: building cross-sector networks to support the sport sector**

Simultaneously, the implementing partner organisations will initiate national/ regional multidisciplinary networks (“round tables”) involving diverse and relevant stakeholders from society. The aim is to find synergies and build supportive structures for the sport sector regarding the topic, addressing national/ regional strategies to move the agenda forward in each partner’s specific setting, to give the youth-led campaigns a platform and to investigate possibilities to keep the new network alive even after the European funding has ceased.

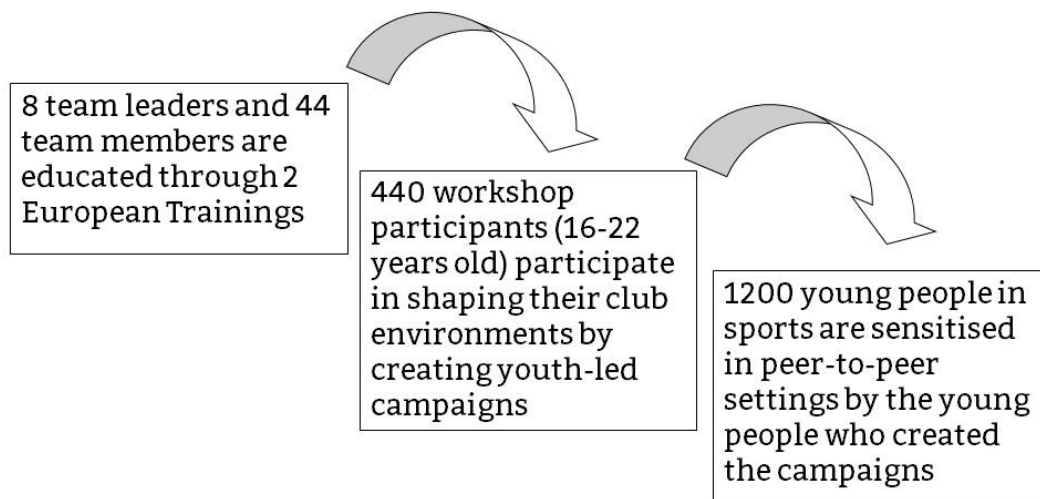
<sup>1</sup>This methodology of educational work with young people is based on results from on-going research, conducted since 1997, in North-Rhine-Westfalia (Germany) which focuses on participatory processes in the youth sport sector for the prevention of sexualised violence and harassment in sports.



Mentoring advice is provided for the partner organisation and the participating sports clubs during the implementation of the project.

### Reach of the project

Direct education and sensitization of the target group and intermediaries in the participating organisations is achieved through a 3-step process. The aim is to encourage a self-perpetuating, multiplying effect in the sport sector through empowering the target group, 16-22 year old Europeans (see Fig. 10.2).



**Figure 10.2** The reach of “Sport respects your rights” within the European network

The project network encompasses 10 European sport- and socio-cultural organisations and Universities with a wide geographic scope and with varying structural, national or organisational set-ups. Testing the project in diverse European settings will give a first indication about the acceptance and results of this model’s strategy and structure and will enable valuable feedback about the possible applicability and adaptability in further EU communities and beyond.

A final conference in February 2015 will present the results of this transnational cooperation to the wider public.

### The network of “Sport respects your rights”

#### Steering Group:

SPORTUNION Österreich (lead partner)

German Sports University of Cologne, Institute for Sport Sociology, Gender Studies (in charge of training and monitoring)

ENGSO Youth (coordinated this transnational cooperation)

#### Partner organisations implementing the project

German Sports Youth (DE)

Sportverband DJK (DE)

Edge Hill University (UK)

Netherlands Olympic Committee and Sport Federation (NL)

Italian Aerobic and Fitness Federation (IT)

Campaign Against Homophobia (PL)

SPORTUNION Österreich (AT)

Austrian Athletics Federation (AT)

Council of Europe in supporting function

ONE in FIVE Campaign to stop sexual violence against children

Enlarged Partial Agreement in Sports

[www.sport-respects-your-rights.eu](http://www.sport-respects-your-rights.eu)

For more information please contact Agnes Kainz:

[a.kainz@sportunion.at](mailto:a.kainz@sportunion.at) / SPORTUNION Österreich, Falkestr. 1, 1010 Vienna, Austria



With financial support from the DAPHNE III  
Programme 2011/2012 of the European Union



Sport  
respects  
**your**  
rights

## **Chapter 11: Developing a policy framework on physical and sexual integrity for and with sport organisations in Flanders**

Tine Vertommen

### **Abstract**

*Whilst other (inter-) national sport governing bodies developed prevention strategies on sexual harassment and abuse in sport in the late 1990s or early 2000s, it was only recently that the Flemish authorities took such action. In February 2012, the Flemish ministers responsible for Sport, Youth, Education and Welfare signed a declaration of commitment on protecting children's physical and sexual integrity. Since then, prevention initiatives are being implemented in Flemish sport organisations. The flag system, an educational tool for sport coaches, developed in a collaboration of academics, experts in child abuse and sport stakeholders, was introduced in 2013. The flag system was created to assist sport coaches in the assessment of sexual behaviour involving children. The flag system is based on six assessment criteria: consent, equality, free will, age appropriateness, context appropriateness and self-respect. Other than judging right or wrong, it gives a score for the six criteria and a global score (coloured flag from green, over yellow and red, to black) to assess situations whereby children's sexual integrity might be violated. Each flag colour and the corresponding degree of seriousness require an appropriate reaction towards the victim, the perpetrator and potential bystanders. This tool presents 30 sport specific situations in which sexual behaviour between of with minor athletes are depicted, assessed and commented on. It aims at raising awareness about sexual harassment and abuse, encouraging stakeholders to reflect on young athletes' sexual integrity and empowering athletes to speak up about their experiences with unwanted behaviour. A critical evaluation of the development and distribution of this tool, as well as its position within the broader prevention policy are described here.*

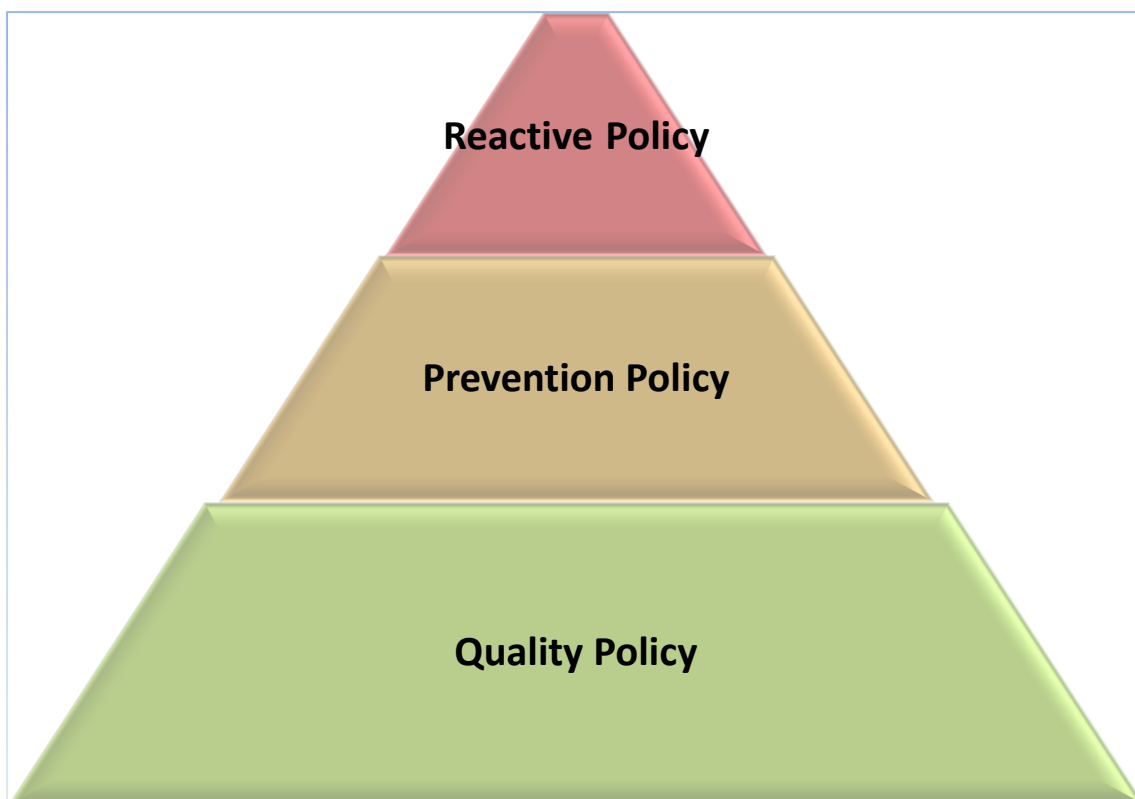
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### **Political context**

When widespread child sexual abuse in the Belgian Catholic Church came to light in 2010, the public debate on the lack of child protection in extrafamilial settings reopened. Immediate political action was taken by establishing a special parliamentary committee on 'the management of sexual abuse and acts of paedophilia in an authority relationship, in particular within the church' (Belgische Kamer van Volksvertegenwoordigers, 2011). A year later, the committee's report addressed 69 specific recommendations to various aspects of child protection such as improvements to criminal protection legislation, police investigation, national data storage of perpetrator characteristics, expansion of victim support services, installation of an abuse reporting code and the need for a comprehensive prevention policy. As the report clearly states that child sexual abuse occurs in various sectors of society, a joint approach of all responsible policy domains was logically the next step.

Belgium is a federal state comprising three regions. Because sport is organised separately within each community, policies differ across communities. This chapter focuses on the largest, Dutch-Speaking region in the north of the country, Flanders. The Flemish ministers of Welfare, Youth, Education and Sport drafted an Action Plan to 'address violence towards children, in particular child abuse' (Vlaamse Regering, 2011). In February 2012, this action plan was endorsed by the official signing of a joint Declaration of Commitment 'on the protection of the sexual integrity of minors', which was the starting point for further policy work (Vlaamse Overheid, 2012a).

Sensoa and Child Focus, two NOGs specialising in sexual education and the prevention of sexually transgressive behaviour, were appointed to take the lead. They drafted the so-called Framework for Sexuality and Policy. This policy document aims at redressing the current lack of formal policies on protection children's sexual integrity in organisations (Frans and De Bruycker, 2012a). Whilst the immediate cause for this initiative was the disclosure of severe cases of child sexual abuse, all strategies proposed in the framework emanate from the positive philosophy that the sexual development of children deserves a place in every social organisation. Therefore, the framework takes a broader approach than sexual abuse, by introducing policy interventions aiming at improving the quality of children's wellbeing in school, day care facilities, leisure organisations etc. The document introduces model visions at three policy levels (i.e. quality, prevention and reaction, see Fig. 11.1), as well as a toolbox of policy instruments (see next section). An interactive PDF document of this Framework was made available to all Flemish organisations working with children.



**Figure 11.2 A policy regarding physical and sexual integrity on three levels**

### **Flemish sport sector's first actions**

When the Belgian sport sector was subject to the special parliamentary committee's investigations, those responsible had to admit that they had never received a complaint about harassment or abuse, simply because there was no central reporting point (De Wit, 2011). This omission proved to be the necessary wake-up call for the sport governing bodies. In the same year, the Flemish Sports Council (the advisory body of the Flemish Minister of Sport) as well as the Belgian Interfederal Olympic Committee (BOIC) organised two symposia on the issue. Both institutions formulated recommendations to the Ministry of Sport, asking for immediate actions (BOIC, 2011; Vlaamse Sportraad, 2011). In their recommendations, both advocated: the creation of a general violence and sexual abuse reporting point (in and outside sport); the appointment of local welfare officers in sport federations and clubs; investment in coach education with special attention to handling incidences of violence and abuse; and, the launch of a major information

and awareness campaign aimed at all parties involved in sports. The Flemish Sports Council also advised that funds should be made available for scientific research and that a knowledge/resource centre should be established dedicated to this topic (Vlaamse Sportraad, 2011). A mandatory criminal record check for all professionals and volunteers working with children in sport was seen as too burdensome for the authorities and too much of a deterrent for volunteering sports leaders (BOIC, 2011; Vertommen *et al.*, in press).

A few months later, the Flemish sport authorities' first course of action was to formulate a sport-specific version of the Framework for Sexuality and Policy as this was originally designed to apply to various social areas (family, education, childcare). The Flemish government department for Sport appointed Sensoa and Child Focus to lead the process, in close collaboration with sport stakeholders. First, all relevant available sport policy documents, such as the decree on ethically responsible sports and the Panathlon Declaration, were collected and analysed. Then, sport academics and representatives of all Flemish (umbrella) sport federations were invited to take part in a series of working meetings during which the general framework was translated into a version applicable to sport organisations (Vertommen *et al.*, submitted). Special attention was paid to using examples and terminology from sport, to maximize comprehensibility and ownership of the document. The resulting framework 'Physical and Sexual Integrity and Policy in Sport' (Frans and De Bruycker, 2012b) offers a comprehensive toolbox with 11 different instruments, a model vision on three policy levels (see Fig. 1) and additional background information. The toolbox offers an integrated approach to safeguard the physical and sexual integrity of youth athletes, emphasising the need for a protective environment that allows for the normal, positive aspects of the young athlete's sexual development.

The toolbox includes:

1. a *guideline* offering a range of suggestions on how to draft and implement a comprehensive policy on the issue;
2. main *starting points* to formulate a policy vision and a *topic list* to evaluate the current situation;
3. the *flag system* to help assess and react to 'real life' incidences of unwanted physical and sexual behaviour in a sport setting;
4. a detailed *policy matrix* with suggestions of possible interventions, working methods and actions to implement a policy (in terms of care, education, house rules, screening and communication interventions);
5. a *competency checklist* for sports leaders to help identify the need for (further) staff training;
6. a *profile outline* for an Integrity Contact Person delineating his/her competencies, role and responsibilities;
7. a *house rule checklist* providing suggestions on how to handle violations of athlete's physical and/or sexual integrity at sports club level;
8. a *code of conduct* to help formulate staff expectations with regard to the physical and sexual integrity of minor athletes;
9. a *list of risk factors* and a *signal list* to detect signs sexual harassment and abuse;
10. an *action protocol* providing a uniform, stepwise approach to deal with a suspicion, a disclosure or a report of child sexual abuse, as the basis for the reactive policy;
11. a *signpost* to helplines, support and care services with (contact) information.

As this policy framework is a 'heavy' document of 120 pages, intended for professional staff of formal sport organisations, ICES (the Flemish Centre for Ethics in Sport) and the Flemish Sports Confederation (VSF) created a 'light version' aimed at semi-professionals and volunteers active in both regional and local sport clubs (Vandevivere *et al.*, 2013a). The target of this manual is to support local sport clubs in establishing and implementing their individual vision of the prevention policy of sexuality and physical integrity of children. A sample of six prevention policy instruments was translated specifically for sport clubs. Not all

instruments are suitable for each sports organisation, so sport clubs are encouraged to decide upon which instruments to adopt. The desired outcome is the development of an individually designed prevention policy, implemented at the individual speed of every organisation. To increase its ease of use, an online and hard copy version have been made freely available, both with attractive layouts.

### **Introducing the prevention policy by use of the Flag System**

Because of the sensitivity of the issue, Flemish sport authorities carefully chose an implementation strategy. The Flag System, an educational tool that assists adults working with children in their assessment of sexual behaviour involving children, served as an icebreaker for the broader policy. Based on an earlier, more general version (Frans and Franck, 2010), the flag system was adapted to the specific context of sport (Vandevivere *et al.*, 2013b). The flag system tries to help (volunteer) sport leaders identify and respond to unwanted sexual behaviour among age peers and between adults and young (under-age) athletes. Sexual behaviour among children and young adults encompasses both healthy and acceptable experimental behaviour and incidents involving force or violence committed by age peers or adults (Frans and Franck, 2010). Supporting adult staff, such as coaches/trainers, should be able to make a distinction between acceptable and unacceptable sexual behaviour, restricting or preventing the latter. Furthermore, from an educational perspective, the sexual behaviour of young athletes may require correction by educating them to express and experience their developing sexuality in a healthy, morally acceptable manner.

To assess the (in)appropriateness of sexual behaviour, the system relies on three criteria as suggested by Ryan and Lane (1997): consent, equality and free will. When each is fulfilled the behaviour can be classified as healthy. Although the three criteria help set the essential conditions for positive sexual interactions, they do not suffice. Frans and Frank (2010) therefore introduced three additional criteria to guarantee appropriate and non-damaging sexual behaviour: age or rather developmental appropriateness, context appropriateness and self-respect. Other than judging behaviour as 'OK' or 'not OK', the flag system proposes a gradual rating system, ranging from a green flag (entirely appropriate/acceptable), over a yellow (slightly inappropriate/undesirable), a red (inappropriate/unacceptable) to a black flag (entirely inappropriate/unlawful). Based on the assessment of each criterion and the sum total and severity of the transgressions, an overall rating, i.e. flag, is assigned. The flag method thus enables stakeholders to assess nuances of sexual behaviour more adequately. In addition, educators can formulate a more uniform response.

In total, 30 sport related scenarios were depicted, assessed and commented. The tool was made freely available to all Flemish sport organisations and sport clubs and distributed by ICES. To guarantee maximal implementation of the tool, regional workshops and a 'training of trainers' session were organised. In the year 2013, circa 1000 copies of Flag System were distributed and 282 participants followed a Flag System workshop, with positive feedback (Vertommen *et al.*, in review).

## **Discussion**

### ***Will the Flag System pave the way?***

Relying on the enthusiastic reception and the field's feedback, the flag system can be an adequate icebreaker to introduce the issue with sometimes sceptical sport leaders (Vertommen *et al.*, in review). Its successful way of provoking discussion between sport stakeholders can be a starting point for a more substantial prevention policy, as suggested by the other instruments in the Framework. Instead of invoking parents' and sport leaders' fear of abuse, this positive approach encourage those responsible to take preventive measures and place the topic on the sport organisation's agenda. It remains to be seen, however, whether the tool actually has a protective influence at grassroots level. One year after its

implementation, the Flag System is in need of a revision and an evaluative study. While the current tool targets adult sport leaders, it might be useful to develop an athlete-centred version (e.g. an interactive game) in order to stimulate children's empowerment to speak up about unwanted sexual experiences.

Furthermore, it is now crucial to install complementary preventive and reactive instruments. At this moment, the sports sector is not equipped to handle complaints and reports of severe cases of sexual harassment and abuse. If the complementary tools in the Framework, such as the code of conduct and action protocol to deal with suspicions, disclosures or reports, are not put in place the Flag System will be found an empty vessel. It is therefore important to stimulate sport federations to pay continuing attention to the topic of sexual harassment and abuse, besides the many other ethical challenges they face today, and progressively implement all necessary tools to protect athletes from unwanted sexual experiences in sport.

### ***What about the local sports club?***

Flemish sport authorities targeted the sport (umbrella) federations when introducing the policy framework. They are held primarily responsible to take the initiative and install a prevention policy. It is, however, the local level organisations, i.e. sport club, municipality and so on, that present most risk for sexual harassment and abuse. Therefore, the actual impact should be visible at local level. Sport policy studies show that this volunteer-intensive nature of local sport needs to be accommodated in the policy to enhance the likelihood of community level acceptance and implementation (Donaldson *et al.*, 2012). Skille (2008, p. 181) notes that centrally developed policy is being interpreted by local stakeholders, 'through the filters of the local context, organisational characteristics and their personal experiences'. It remains to be seen if local sports stakeholders will read and adopt the pre-digested documents. The feasibility, accessibility and effectiveness of it have yet to be demonstrated in practice. The mainly voluntary sport club personnel already sacrifice a significant amount of time and effort for the sake of the club. The chances are they could argue that it is too much to ask. Another issue raised by several stakeholders is whether 'sexual education' is a task for sports organisations. When Parent (2010) studied the Canadian initiatives to prevent sexual abuse in sport, she also noted that 'the way sport stakeholders view prevention can greatly contribute to limiting the effort made in this regard'.

### ***A new decree on healthy and ethical sports practice – a missed opportunity?***

In the beginning of 2014, the Flemish sport authorities introduced a new decree on healthy and ethical sports, replacing the 2008 decree on ethically justified sport (Vlaamse Overheid, 2014). The Flemish government will be able to install standards of quality for every organisation and create learning networks, concerning medical or ethical themes, to stimulate the exchange of good practice within sport partners. Furthermore, the decree creates the opportunity to subsidise an expertise centre in sport ethics that will continue to educate the Flemish sports world on ethics and safeguarding in sport in the longer term. The decree will not impose obligations on sport federations but will stimulate substantive debate and create preconditions for healthy and ethical sport. The question remains if this noncommittal unbinding approach will sufficiently motivate sport organisations to take up seriously the issue of SHA prevention.

### **Conclusion**

Flanders is certainly not pioneering in policy work to prevent sexual harassment and abuse in sport. Nonetheless, the positive approach of children's right used towards sexually experimental behaviour in a friendly environment can be seen as an example for other countries where a more repressive approach has been chosen. Whilst Flanders certainly can be congratulated for taking the first steps towards a

comprehensive prevention policy, it should be noted that the road from policy making at national level to the implementation at grassroots level is 'long and uneasy' (Skille, 2008: p. 181).

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## **Chapter 12: The grey area of child protection in sport: How can abuse be avoided?**

Prof. Sandra Kirby

### **Abstract**

*This chapter reviews some recent advancement in child protection in sport in North America and highlights the latest work of organisations devoted either to child protection (CP) or to sport, but not both. In the USA, the Sandusky case (at Pennsylvania State University) served as a catalyst for the National Centre for Missing and Exploited Children Summit (NCMEC). A wide array of youth-serving organisations and CP units was assembled to create a coordinated, common approach to CP that includes sport. Reports on the energetic USA Swimming Conference on safe sport and the subsequent consultation with the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) focused on sport organisations integrating CP agendas. Work by the Canadian Centre for Child Protection (CCCP) sought to integrate sport into their existing programmes by combining resources – those of sport and non-sport researchers on child sexual abuse from across North America and the resources of the NCMEC - CCCP network. The chapter concludes with a focus on the CCCP's 'Commit2Kids' campaign and encouragement for those in sport to work in 'the grey area' of abuse prevention.*

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In 2013, there was a dramatic change of direction for child protection in sport in North America, particularly with reference to how various organisations were looking for cooperative ways of working together. The National Centre for Missing and Exploited Children Summit (NCMEC) in Virginia shone a light on sport by bringing together a selection of youth-serving organisations for a consultation about the inclusion of sport in their child sexual abuse prevention work. The USA Swimming Leadership Conference and USOC meeting following were, for the purpose of 'tapping leaders on the shoulder', to take charge of the safe sport agenda. As the leading national sport organisation in child protection (CP) in the USA, USA Swimming sought to build community support for its CP programmes. In Canada, as the Canadian Centre for Child Protection (CCCP) expanded its programmes and analyses to include sport, they consulted broadly. They did not find the large body of work of researchers connected by BIRNAW or the International Olympic Committee (<http://www.olympic.org/documents/reports>) or UNICEF (Brackenridge, Kay and Rhind, 2012; Brackenridge, Fasting, Kirby and Leahy, 2010). However, they did find programme work in Australia and experts in child sexual abuse in the USA. Only latterly did they discover that Canada has its own sports experts and that, in fact, the world has a global network of child sexual abuse research in sport (e.g. BIRNAW). With those new connections, they have ramped up their programme materials and CP analyses to include sport and have helped with some advances in CP in 'the grey area' (Fig. 12.1). Although all different, together these accounts provide a picture of the shifting landscape of organisational interest in CP in sport in North America.

### **NCMEC**

The NCMEC Summit of March 28-29, 2013 was attended by a select group of more than 50 youth-serving organisations such as the Coach for America, Boy Scouts of America, the USA Camping Association, Big Brothers Big Sisters of America, the Department of Justice and a handful of national sport organisations such as USA Swimming and USA Gymnastics. They were brought together with some child abuse experts such as Dr. Sharon Cooper (Developmental and Forensic Paediatrics, P.A.) and myself (child sexual abuse in sport expert, University of Winnipeg) and Kate Staley (Child Sexual Abuse Conference, Pennsylvania State University) to work towards the common goal of providing 'safe and healthy environments in which youth may learn, play and grow' (NCMEC [www.safetocompete.org](http://www.safetocompete.org)).



**Figure 12.1 Locating work in the grey zone**

Dr. Sharon Cooper and I were the two keynote speakers. In a consultation prior to the conference, we decided that our common goal was to lay out what is known about child sexual abuse in sport. It is Dr. Cooper's view that unaddressed child sexual abuse is the perfect storm, the shock-less storm that is characterised by normalised sexual harm. Dr. Cooper (2013) underlined in her presentation that the offender is likely known to the child and may or not be a paedophile. She also indicated that a sex offender may be *'fine-tuning his (most are men) rape skills on children since they are easier to offend against'*. Her descriptions of molestation, voyeurism, grooming, sexual contact, and cyber-contact are similar or identical to what we know through sport research by, for example, Brackenridge *et al.* (2010a, 2010b), Kirby (2000), and Parent (2010, 2012). Dr. Cooper agreed with Dr. Anna Salter (2013) that most sexual offenders are non-sadistic, i.e. not using pornography, bondage and discipline requiring a child's total submission. Rather, offenders are more likely to be opportunistic, have poor self-control and groom children through the use of favouritism (boys) and romance (girls) ([www.childluresprevention.com](http://www.childluresprevention.com)). And, while offenders may use fraud, force and/or coercion, Cooper underlined that they do not generally do 'hit and runs', the violent assaults on children. She concluded that when children told their stories, *'the more egregious, the more unbelievable the story, the more likely it is to be true'* (Cooper, 2013).

Instructive for us in sport are three points. First, though much of Cooper's work agrees with the body of work on child sexual abuse in sport, Cooper herself had come to the conclusions through her work as a paediatric physician, military officer and expert on child abuse without reference to the world of sport. Distressingly, most attendees at the conference had little or no knowledge of the wide body of research and literature available about sport and sexual abuse. Second, Cooper said that sport only 'came onto her radar' because when she was involved in cases with multiple victims, sport often appeared as the vehicle through which predators gained access to children. Third, when Cooper was asked about the links between child sexual abuse and the school shootings in the USA, she said there were no direct links. There was no 'smoking gun'! I provided her with links to the case of Thomas Hamilton, the shooter at the Dunblane school massacre (Dunblane Primary School in Scotland on 13 March 1996). As a Scout Leader, Hamilton led a variety of sporting, outdoor activities until complaints were made about his 'moral intentions' and behaviour with boys (The Lord Cullen, 1996). After his Scout Warrant was withdrawn, it was widely reported that he used, amongst other activities, gymnastic practice with vaulting boxes to gain close access to local children - surely a 'smoking gun'.

While my presentation was an overview of the child sexual abuse research in sport, highlighting the work in the UK, Canada, Norway, Holland and Australia, unfortunately I was able to report only the absence of key research in sport in the USA (Kirby, 2013a). The centre of my presentation was the athlete: this athlete

protection stance was new to most of those attending. The unpacking of the nature of sport – from the local to the international level from the experience of the athlete – was revelatory to the audience as shown by the questions afterwards. They were also unaware of the nature and scope of the problems in sport and, perhaps with the exception of the CCCP (Canada) attendees, were unconnected with the tremendous CP efforts being made around the world. As requested, an extensive list of references for their future programmes was included: a list of the preeminent sport researchers; the international efforts (e.g. IOC, UNICEF); the sport research /advocacy centres (e.g. BIRNAW); sport protection units (e.g. Child Protection in Sport Unit, UK); and the involvement of the non-sport CP organisations now showing concern for sport (e.g. CCCP).

After much discussion and rapid-fire presentations by many of the attending organisations, the geography of the CP in sport world became, in my view, muddled by the cross-purposes of the various organisations. The fear of high profile cases was tangible. At the Summit, there was a verbally articulated fear that the Penn State case could happen elsewhere and that case appeared to be the catalyst for many attending the NCMEC summit. [Note: on June 22, 2012, Jerry Sandusky, a coach in the football programme at Penn State, was found guilty on 45 of 48 counts of sexual abuse over a 15 year period and the repercussions of this are still unfolding (<http://www.cnn.com/2012/06/22/justice/pennsylvania-sandusky-trial/>).] While participants all wanted their organisations either to be safe for children or to be part of establishing safe environments for children, it was very early in the network-building summit to expect them to reach consensus on any particular issues or approaches.

Overall, the outcomes were positive. One of the tallest barriers for all appeared to be working across the varying state laws and policies applying to CP and one of the brightest lights was clearly the national child abuse background checks programme. There were opportunities to showcase organisations' contributions to CP and many networking openings as well. Another solid result was that NCMEC created a comprehensive sexual abuse prevention programme called Safe to Compete and has made this material widely available at <http://www.safetocompete.org/SoundPractices>.

### **USA Swimming and USOC Consultation**

The Safe Sport Leadership Conference was held Jan. 27-29 in Colorado Springs, USA. It was the brainchild of Susan Woessner ([swoessner@usaswimming.org](mailto:swoessner@usaswimming.org)). She and her team brought experts in the child abuse research and prevention, Olympic leaders, and some national youth-serving organisations together in an open forum to learn about issues, challenges and programmes. Presenters included Chris Gavagan, filmmaker of *Coached into Silence* about sexual abuse of boys in the world of sport; Anna Slater, clinical psychologist and researcher on sex offenders; and Sandy Wurtele, psychologist and researcher on child sexual abuse prevention. Familiar to BIRNAW are the presenters Anne Tiivas (CPSU – UK) and myself. I presented on what makes athletes vulnerable (2013b) while Anne (2013) focused on providing information about safeguarding children in and through sport. One of the panels included Tiivas, myself and Malia Arrington of the USOC (<http://www.usaswimming.org/DesktopDefault.aspx>).

The conference was strategic. It was not about child sexual abuse. It was about leadership in swimming. It was also one of a series of carefully thought out steps to introduce and coordinate the implementation of USA Swimming Safe Sport programme initiatives. Those 165 attendees, most from swimming associations across the USA, were brought in to take the lead, to be the early adopters, to take action on child sexual abuse. They were to be the frontline people for USA Swimming. The conference was to charge them with that task.

Subsequent to the conference, Tiivas, Woessner and I held an intensive consultation with Malia Arrington at the USOC offices and from that has emerged a broadening of the network within the USA of resourceful

people available to sport. Additionally, and importantly, that USOC meeting led to an introduction of Arrington to the BIRNAW group as an active participant at the third BIRNAW conference in late 2013. Further, Arrington has now joined Celia Brackenridge, Kari Fasting, Sandra Kirby, Margo Mountjoy, Katherine Starr and Anne Tiivas as a member of the core group of the international safe sport working group.

Instructive for CP researchers in sport is that our work can and should act as an important rallying point around which coordinated calls to action can occur. Opportunely, in the USA Swimming case, its call to action was based on a wide and strong base of evidence and a carefully constructed plan for bringing swim practitioners into leadership roles. Secondly, fortuitous meetings within and alongside conferences - such as that with the USOC - can lead to linkages and actions well beyond the scope of original planning.

### **Canadian Centre for Child Protection (CCCP)**

The connection of CCCP to sport is also strategic one. The CCCP was founded as Child Find Manitoba and has morphed over 30 years into the national non-profit organisation to 'reduce child victimization by providing programmes and services to the Canadian Public' (<https://www.protectchildren.ca/app/en/>). It is based in Winnipeg, Canada. CCCP has four very comprehensive programmes: *cybertip!ca* – a hotline for reporting sexual exploitation of children; *missingkids.ca* – Canada's reporting and resource centre; *kidsintheknow* – an interactive education programme for children on personal safety; and *commit2kids* – 'plan to help child-serving organisations reduce the risk of child sexual abuse and create safer environments for the children in their care' ([https://www.protectchildren.ca/app/en/overview\\_commit2kids](https://www.protectchildren.ca/app/en/overview_commit2kids)).

At the Beyond Borders conference in November of 2012 in Winnipeg, Noni Classen, Director of Education for CCCP, was in the audience at a presentation I did on child sexual abuse in sport. Through Classen's connections with Dr. Cooper, the importance of sport had already come onto the CCCP radar and they were looking for people who knew both sport and CP. Classen invited me to present to the Senior Management Team of CCCP on the nature and scope of child sexual abuse in. A series of consultations followed.

My initial contacts were with the *Commit2Kids* programme and whether the material spoke to those in sport, i.e. was the language professional, were the statements effective, were the images and length of video time appropriate and could the material be watched alone? My additional contributions were, for example, to raise the issues of the role of bystander and what that might look like *Commit2Kids*, to ask about the absence of images and voices of children in the CCCP CP programmes (Tiivas, 2013), and to funnel to CCCP additional resources on child sexual abuse in sport from around the world.

Frequently, when sport researchers work with non-sport others, the task is often to impress upon those others the importance of sport in children's lives. With CCCP, the case had already been made. Reciprocally, I learned to expand my repertoire of discussion to include ballet school, music lessons and pre-school care programmes. CCCP has provided a local contact in this often lonely world of CP. We are happy to have found one another and are making plans for ongoing engagement in CP and sport.

### **The grey area of sport**

The 'grey area' is the area between no child sexual abuse (no offence) and child sexual abuse (offence) (Fig. 12.1). The concept of the grey area as a place for action emerged from the discussions with CCCP. They use *Commit2Kids* as a call to small organisations to look at their own behaviours and situations from the perspective of protecting children. Organisations then determine how they can disrupt processes so that

children are not abused. In sport, we ask ourselves 'What constitutes healthy behaviours and positive personal boundaries for athletes?' These are the boundary choices that coaches make and athletes also may make when 'they feel wronged' (Parent, 2011, 2012).

The grey area is where the warning signs about being 'on the boundary' appear. These include:

- marginally disrespectful behaviours;
- making fun of others because of their differences;
- 'over-sharing' disclosures about self and sexual activity;
- 'can you keep a secret' (affection lures);
- conditional support in return for assistance; and,
- tolerance of and participation on discriminatory practices and prejudicial behaviours.

Working in the grey area in sport brings together our thinking about such things as the role of bystanders, concepts of healthy coach-athlete relationships, the coaching profession and shared responsibility across the coaching cadre, and early intervention involvement. As an example, for coaches working in the grey area means working with other coaches and intervening early when another coach engages in 'on the boundary' behaviours. Preventing luring and stopping the escalation of inappropriate behaviours between coaches and athletes, and also between peers, can have the effect of improving the sport environment early and for all. Inadvertent boundary violations may be prevented. For those who engage knowing in grooming and luring behaviours, the grey area raises the bar and asks those around such a person to be vigilant and to act rather than 'turn a blind eye'. The grey area thus, represents a place of discovery and early challenge to abusers. Further, most strategies for protecting athletes in the grey area are 'low-tech' and require little training. This has a lot of appeal because it relies on openness of communication, an 'eyes wide open' approach to what is happening to athletes (vigilance), and a shared trust. These all fit well in the cooperative, professional coaching models.

## Conclusions

- Recent advancements in CP in sport in North America include: national CP organisations such as the National Centre for Missing and Exploited Children (NCMEC - USA) and the Canadian Centre for Child Protection (CCCP) taking a serious interest in sport;
- sport researchers are working more closely with national CP organisations to enhance the work in the sport areas (e.g. Kirby with the CCCP);
- national sport organisations are bridging the sport and non-sport CP fields for their program planning and implementation (e.g. USA Swimming); and,
- CP advocates are forming new networks of influence across sport and non-sport boundaries (e.g. USOC, BIRNAW, CCCP and NCMEC).

Where CP in sport is the core issue, the momentum is gathering. Non-sport organisations are now seeing sport as a useful context to get their messages across. Sport organisations are using the 'heft' of non-sport organisations for the same reason. Whilst some of this is still driven by the fear of having a high profile case, more of it is driven by the overwhelming importance of protecting children, wherever they are. Together, these developments provide an interesting and very positive picture of the shifting landscape of child protection in sport

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## **PART 4: CODA**

## Chapter 13: Future collaboration

Dr Daniel Rhind and Prof. Celia Brackenridge

The welfare and protection of the athlete has assumed growing significance in the past decade, as the scale of international sport has expanded and diversified. Rights have, at last, begun to impinge on sport in ways that were previously unthinkable. Rights advocates, for example, have now found a voice in some of the world's most important sporting organisations, from the International Olympic Committee down. This has happened both as a result of research work *within* sport and pressure from *outside* sport. Organised sport has been traditionally resistant to incursions from equity and rights advocates and has had a tense relationship with groups pressing for a better deal for women, black and minority, LGBTQ and disabled athletes. In some parts of the world it is still dangerous for anyone who challenges the status quo in sport. At the same time, it is important to recognise that significant advances have been made and that models of good practice are available in some countries that can perhaps stimulate positive social change elsewhere. Wherever the agenda leads us, partnership working will be essential.

### Organisational missions and vested interests

Each of the major organisations concerned with welfare or child protection in the context of sport has different interests related to their different missions (see Fig. 13.1). All sit within the wider societal matrix and have greater or lesser positional power depending on their global location.

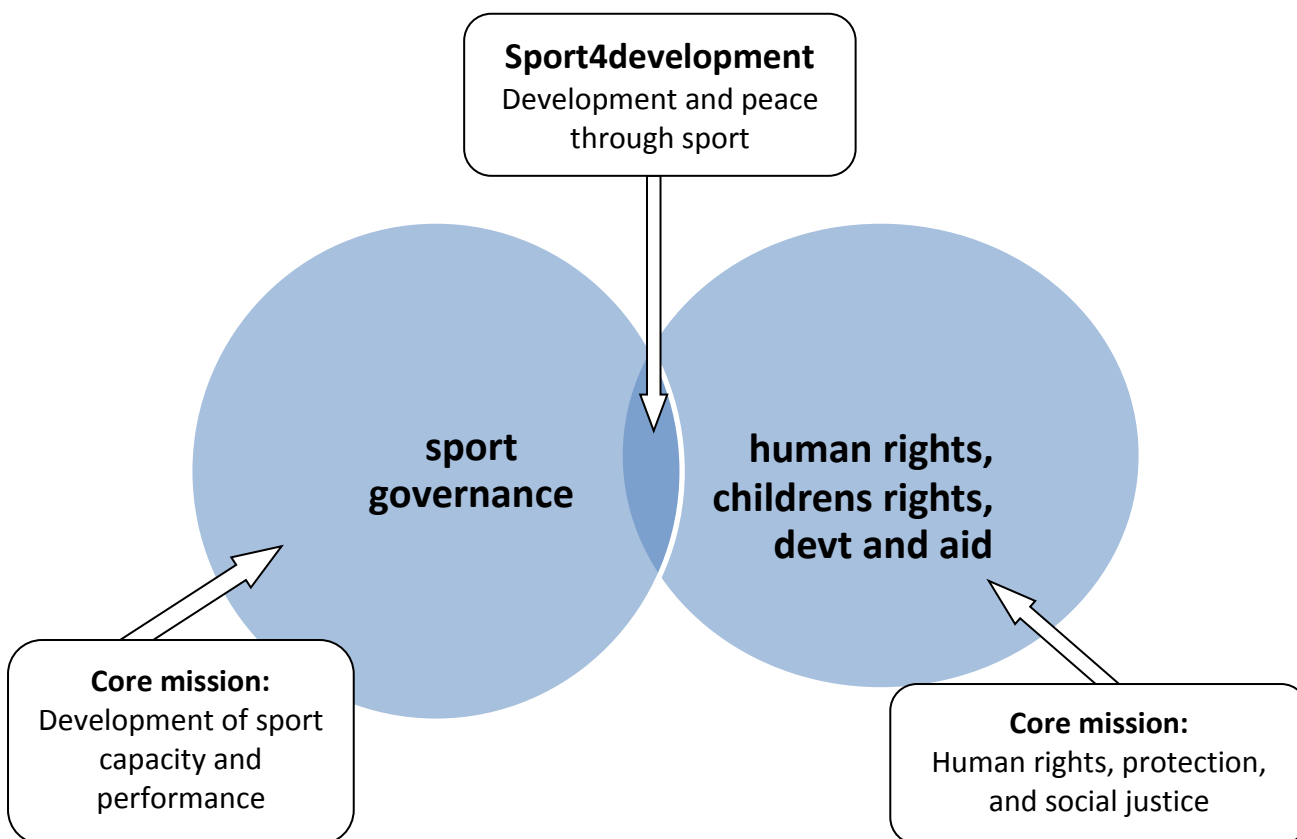


Figure 13.1 Conceptual map of organisational missions linked to athlete welfare

The sport agencies, including the IOC and the International Federations of sport, have a mission based on **performance enhancement and commercial success**, i.e. the development of sport. Their interest in athlete welfare and child protection is thus largely restricted to those participating *in* sport, mainly athletes themselves but also members of their entourages such as coaches, team managers, support staff, sport scientists, match officials and the like. Agencies working here require specific research data about the incidence, prevalence and psycho-social parameters of harms to athletes, the nature and consequences of these and the impact of harm mitigation interventions. Researchers in sport are wise to collaborate with appropriately qualified specialists from medical, clinical and health impact backgrounds and with policy evaluation specialists.

The international development agencies, including government development ministries and the UN, have a mission based on **human rights, protection, and social justice**. They have legitimate organisational concerns for the wider welfare and protection of children's and adults' rights. Development work is done in communities both *around* sport events and *through* sport programmes. Because of their rights-based approach, the humanitarian objectives of sport for development (S4D) programmes trump the sport development ones. Agencies working in these spaces require knowledge of the political and cultural contexts of harm prevention programmes and how sport can contribute to these. Researchers work best here if they have a high degree of cultural sensitivity and functional collaborations with human rights and evaluation specialists.

Each researcher interested in athlete welfare will have different disciplinary, theoretical and methodological preferences. This volume reflects this welcome diversity in the field very well. However, as with all emerging fields of study, there will be advances and reverses. The very eclecticism of our work can attract critique from those wedded to a single-discipline or single agency focus. We simply urge that researchers should always start with the real-world problem and then pull together the best teams and approaches for solving it. Do not necessarily restrict yourself to a research 'comfort zone' but be willing to work with and learn from others for no really valuable work in this field is done in isolation.

## Conclusions

In order for the policy agenda to advance effectively, on the basis of sound evidence, there need to be strong collaborations between these different stakeholder groups and researchers from various fields of study. Thus far, it has been mainly social scientists from sport who have built up empirical data about harms and harm prevention. But, as we indicated in the final chapter of the first BIRNAW book (Brackenridge and Rhind, 2010), research on policy impacts is also vital if those in power at the top of international sport are to be persuaded to engage more actively with harm prevention work.

Sport should not be seen as a special case, excused or exempted from its obligations to human rights. Many sport organisations have begun to embrace athlete welfare policies as a reaction to welfare-related problems, such as sex abuse scandals. But, if we are to ensure sustainable commitment to this work, and to strengthen its place in sport's policy portfolio, it will be necessary to emphasise the roots of athlete welfare in human rights and to form strong research-policy coalitions from across the range of stakeholder organisations identified above. We look forward to BIRNAW doing exactly that as it grows over the next few years.

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