

Sexual harassment and abuse in floorball.
An empirical study of prevention policy in
national floorball associations in Europe and Asia Oceania

Master's thesis
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1 INTRODUCTION

The #MeToo campaign that originated in 2017 changed the conversation culture in the society. The effects of this movement were also felt in sport when athletes disclosed their experiences of sexual harassment and sexual abuse. It was in the aftermath of this movement when one of the biggest sexual abuse scandals in sport was revealed in the US gymnastics. More than 265 athletes accused the team doctor Larry Nassar of sexual abuse and 156 girls and women addressed Nassar in their courtroom statements (Axon & Armour, 2018). This case emphasised the responsibility of stakeholders in sport, especially the sport governing bodies. While several athletes were suffering for years and being molested by Nassar, the organisations failed to act and protect the athletes. In this study I will focus on national floorball associations and their prevention policies against sexual harassment and abuse.

Sexual harassment and sexual abuse are not new topics in sport research. The first sociological studies were done after high-profile harassment and abuse scandals in elite sport that received media coverage. (Brackenridge, 2001). Majority of the studies have focused on the experiences of the victims (e.g., Fasting, Brackenridge, & Sundgot-Borgen, 2003; Alexander, Stafford, & Lewis, 2011) and risk factors (e.g., Brackenridge, 1997; Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). Two of the main themes considering sport in research have been if one sport is riskier than other (e.g., Fasting, Brackenridge, & Sundgot-Borgen, 2004) and if the competition level matters (e.g., Fasting, Brackenridge, & Knorre, 2010).

Research has showed that sexual harassment occurs in every sport and no sport is immune to these issues. (Fasting, et al. 2004). The studies also confirm that the topic of prevention is challenging for sport organisations that are struggling to protect the athletes due to lack of expertise, funding, and resources (e.g., Hartmann-Tews, Bartsch, Wagner, Rulofs, 2020; Rhind, McDermott, Lamber, Koleva, 2014; Parent, 2011). Regardless of sexual harassment and abuse being present in every sport, there is no existing literature of prevention policies in international floorball. Since previous research indicates that these are relevant issues regardless of sport discipline it is essential that floorball associations establish prevention policy on sexual harassment and abuse.

My thesis will investigate to what extent the national floorball associations have implemented preventive strategies against sexual harassment and abuse. In addition, I will present the motives, barriers and facilitators connected to this policy implementation. For data collection I will conduct surveys on the status of prevention policy in the

associations. In addition, I will carry out interviews to gain qualitative understanding of the motives, challenges, and facilitators in relation to prevention policy. Furthermore, the International Floorball Federation (IFF) will utilise the results of this thesis to update its policies against sexual harassment and abuse in floorball.

In my literature review, I will first define the relevant concepts and present the previous research on the topic of sexual harassment and abuse in sport. I will also discuss the factors that foster prevalence of harassment and abuse in the context of sport. In Chapter 3 I will present the theoretical framework considering safeguarding and responsibility of the sport organisations. A model for protecting athletes from sexual abuse will be introduced in detail in this chapter. In Methodology chapter I will present my methodological approach and the data analysis. I will also shortly introduce the sport of floorball and the organisational frame. In chapter 5, I will display the relevant results. In Discussion I will interpret the finding and connect those to previous research. Conclusion will conclude this study and present possible future research implications.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2002), the sexual violence is a worldwide issue. Considering the estimation of sexual violence, the percentage of women who had been sexually assaulted varied from 1.4% to 8.0% depending on the city in Asia or Latin America (WHO, 2002). The phenomenon has been also studied among the European Union. For example, in the EU-wide survey, 42,00 women were interviewed across the 28 Member States and every second woman had experienced sexual harassment since the age of 15, at least once (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights [FRA], 2014).

WHO (2002) also highlights that the sexual violence against men and boys is a significant problem and that it has been widely overseen in research. According to the studies conducted particularly in developed countries, 5-10% of men have been victims to sexual abuse during their childhood (WHO, 2002). Childhood sexual abuse can be especially damaging and lead to victimisation also in adulthood (WHO, 2002). These statistics display that when handling the topic of sexual harassment and abuse, we are talking about a serious and widely spread phenomenon. Harassment and abuse can take place in various social institutions and these topics have also been identified as issues in sport.

Sexual abuse and harassment received more publicity in the context of sport since the launch of the #MeToo movement. This movement has encouraged athletes to disclose their experiences and to hold perpetrators and organisations accountable. The original movement started in 2006 by Tarana Burke to recognise the sexual harassment and

assault experiences by women, especially by women of colour in the context of low-income communities (Murphy, 2019). The aim of the movement is to encourage women to speak up about their experiences and provide support for the survivors. The movement also aims to hold perpetrators accountable for their actions (Murphy, 2019). This movement started receiving more attention in 2017 when the Hollywood mogul Harvey Weinstein was accused of sexually harassing and abusing several actresses during his career (Murphy, 2019). This movement also opened the discussion of harassment and abuse in sport. In the aftermath of #MeToo, one of the biggest sexual harassment and abuse scandals unveiled in the US gymnastics when the team doctor Larry Nassar was found guilty of abusing hundreds of athletes over the years. This case emphasised the responsibility of the stakeholders in sport, especially the organisations. In the wake of the scandal, the entire board of directors of the USA Gymnastics resigned after Nassar was sentenced to up to 175 years in prison (Axon & Armour, 2018). This case highlighted the severity of abuse happening in sport and the consequences it can have especially for the athletes but also for the organisations.

In this literature review, I will focus on the research of sexual harassment and abuse in the sport setting. First, I will define the concepts of sexual harassment and sexual abuse. The major research trends and limitations are also presented. The literature review also discusses the aspects that are specific for sport and could further foster sexual harassment and abuse taking place in sport.

2.1 Definitions of sexual harassment and abuse

To understand the problem of sexual abuse and sexual harassment, it is important to define these two concepts. These definitions are sometimes used as interchangeable, and it is important to demonstrate the differences of these terms. There are also other definitions that are used in research considering the topic of sexual harassment and abuse that are for example the concept of grooming. Also, these and other possible definitions will be discussed in this part.

Brackenridge (1997, p. 116) defines sexual harassment and sexual abuse through stages along a continuum of sexual violence (Figure 1). This continuum highlights the differences between the two definitions and shows that the concepts of sexual harassment and sexual abuse are not interchangeable nor synonyms.

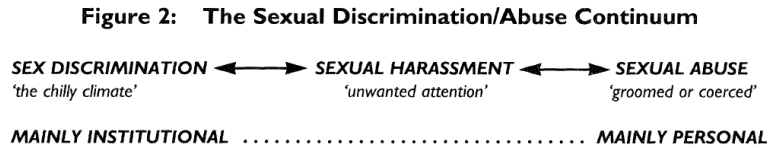


Figure 1: The Sexual Discrimination/Abuse Continuum. Adapted from Brackenridge, 1997.

Brackenridge (1997) further defines sexual harassment and sexual abuse in regards what these may include. Forms of sexual harassment are verbal and written abuse, sexual comments and jokes, kissing, intimidating remarks, or propositions to sex. According to Mountjoy et al. (2016 p. 3) sexual harassment is defined as “any unwanted and unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature, whether verbal, non-verbal or physical”. Verbal sexual harassment can include unwanted intimate questions relating to clothes, body or one’s private life, sexual jokes and proposal or demands for sexual relationships and sexual services (Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports, [NIF], 2010). Also unwanted telephone calls, messages or letters with sexual innuendo can take a form of sexual harassment. Examples of non-verbal sexual harassment are instance staring, showing of objects or pictures of sexual implications. Physical sexual harassment may be unwanted or unnecessary physical contact of sexual kind for example “pinching” or attempting to kiss or caress someone. (NIF, 2010). The common thing for all forms of sexual harassment is that those are felt as offensive for individual’s integrity. Sexual harassment should not be mixed with flirting. Flirting is perceived as positive for both individuals, done in a shared understanding. In contrast, sexual harassment is unwelcome and unwanted sexual attention, which does not include shared consent.

How does sexual abuse then differ from sexual harassment? According to Mountjoy et al. (2016 p. 3) sexual abuse is defined as “any conduct of a sexual nature, whether non-contact, contact or penetrative, where consent is coerced/manipulated or is not or cannot be given”. According to the NIF (2010) sexual abuse means coercing or tricking someone into a sexual act this person does not want or is not adequately mature to consent to. It varies from the mildest forms of showing pornography or improper exposure to forms of penetration and rape. According to Brackenridge (1997, p. 117) sexual abuse involves rape, sexual assault, forced sexual activity, physical/sexual violence, incest, groping, incident exposure, anal or vaginal penetration by penis, fingers or objects and exchange of reward or privilege for sexual favours. More simply defined, sexual abuse always includes sexual acts, and it can take several forms from milder to more severe.

Grooming

What further differentiates the concepts of sexual harassment and abuse is that sexual abuse is often resulting from grooming. Grooming has been used to separate sexual harassment and sexual abuse in a continuum of sexually exploitative behaviours (Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005). It means the process of gaining someone's trust prior breaking down social barriers and committing sexual abuse. In the grooming process, the perpetrator isolates the victim to prepare him or her for sexual abuse (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 34). It is a conscious and systemic strategy that guarantees the perpetrator security (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 34; Brackenridge 1997). It also makes the sexual abuse look like consensual from the victim's side. (Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005, Brackenridge, 2001, p. 36). The grooming process may continue for years, until the target of abuse becomes aware of it. Meanwhile, the shifts in behaviour to abusive acts have gone unnoticed by the victim. Although being involved in the grooming process increases risks of becoming sexually abused it does not always result in abuse (Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005; Nielsen, 2001). It is important to notice that severe incidents of sexual abuse are not always dependent on grooming process but can also result as sudden act of violence. When it comes to definitions of sexual harassment and sexual abuse and the concept of consent, the sexual harassment is always unwanted while sexual abuse might seem wanted, when the victim has been subject to grooming prior abuse (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 36).

Grooming is an important part when studying sexual abuse in sport. Foremost, because it can occur in a relationship between a coach and a young athlete, when the relationship is extremely close and can be compared to a child/parent relationship (NIF, 2010; Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005; Brackenridge, 2001, p. 36). Coach-athlete relationship is a critical relationship and athlete might seek similar feelings of affection and security from the coach as in a relationship with a caretaker or a parent (Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005, Brackenridge, 2001, p. 36). The coach-athlete relationship offers a possibility to abuse the power afforded to the coach. It is opportune for grooming process since the athlete is dependent on coach for receiving knowledge and gaining success. This way the power of the coach and the authority position acts as a camouflage for grooming and sexual abuse (Brackenridge, 2001, p.36). Both in sexual harassment and in sexual abuse, behaviours that would have been considered inappropriate before, might go unquestioned due to position that is afforded to the coach or other authority figures. I will discuss the power relations and the athlete-coach relationship later in this thesis.

Consequences of sexual harassment and sexual abuse

Experiencing sexual abuse and harassment can have many consequences for the individual. As Brackenridge (2001, p. 66) noted, the consequences for the victims of sexual exploitation suffered outside sport are expected to arise also in the sport context. In that sense, the sexual harassment and sexual abuse experienced in sport setting, does not differ from harassment and abuse in other social settings and outside sport. There is also research on consequences in the sport context. Cense and Brackenridge (2001) studied athletes who had survived sexual abuse in sport. In their study, the short-term consequences of experiencing sexual abuse were leaving the sport, repressing memories, and not trusting men. In the sport context, the sexual abuse can last for years, if the abuse goes unnoticed and the athlete does not report it. The long-term effects can be even more damaging as was noted also by Cense and Brackenridge (2001). The long-term effects included psychological and emotional effects like harming self-confidence, serious confusion of sexual perception, returning fear, anger and sadness and distrusting others. Similar consequences were also found by Brackenridge (1997) and more recently Hentunen, Laakso, and Ikonen (2018). These included emotional confusion, psychological scars, social embarrassment, and loss of self-esteem (Brackenridge, 1997). When investigating sexual and gender-based harassment in Finnish football and ice hockey national teams, Hentunen et al. (2018) also reported the anxiety and feeling of vulnerability as consequences of harassment. The experienced abuse also had negative impacts on the family and friends of the athlete as well as on their sport (Brackenridge, 1997). Also Fasting, Brackenridge, and Walseth (2002) found similar psychological consequences when studying sexual harassment experienced by female athletes. Heightened anxiety and reflecting on the events were one of the mentioned consequences for the victims.

It has been studied that among psychological and other consequences to the victims of sexual abuse, the performance of the athletes decreases (e.g., Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005; Fasting et al. 2002; Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). A sudden decrease in performance and reluctance to go to the training or continuing with sport without obvious reason should be alarming for the parents and other significant people close to the athlete. Dropping out and leaving the sport was the case for some athletes in the study by Cense and Brackenridge (2001). In the study by Fasting et al. 2002, the experienced sexual harassment influenced the behaviour towards other athletes and coaches and negatively influenced the performance of the female athletes, some of them dropping out of sport.

The further consequence is the non-reporting of these incidences. Victims are often suffering from shame and guilt and might not feel comfortable revealing their experiences (e.g., Solstad, 2019). For example, in the study by Hentunen et al. (2018) majority of respondents did not feel that their experiences constituted as serious harassment and did not report it. This secures the continuation of abuse and harassment and prevents the sport organisations to manage the cases and sanction the perpetrators.

Although the consequences for athletes are detrimental and should be highlighted before the general impact of sport, the impacts that sexual harassment or sexual abuse can have for sport in general might be motivating factors for sports organisations. According to Mountjoy et al. (2016), athletes dropping out of sport because of harassment or abuse, represent a cost of potential success and medal for the organisations but also the weakening of the talent pool. In the case of sexual harassment or abuse, the public image of sport suffers, especially if there has been no action by the organisation in the case. This might further affect sponsorship or other contracts related to possible cooperation and funding negatively. These incidences also damage the trust that athletes, parents, and other stakeholders place in the organisation and in sport administrators (Mountjoy et al. 2016).

2.1 Are sexual harassment and abuse relevant issues in sport?

The studies of sexual harassment and sexual abuse have started from different environments. The first studies of sexual harassment began from workplace setting and workplace sexual harassment was recognised as a socio-legal phenomenon in the 1970s (McDonald, 2012). Whereas sexual harassment became identified first in workplaces, sexual abuse was first defined in family setting. The sexual abuse of children has been a research topic for four decades since it began around 1960-70s (Collin-Vézina, Daigneault, & Hébert, 2013). In the 1980s the child sexual abuse started to gain public focus outside the family setting. (Brackenridge, 2001, p 15). In the 1990s, the sexual abuse scandals reached sport and other social institutions like social care and the church (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 15). During that time, the sport world had to face these problems and admit that as sexual harassment and abuse have been present in other social institutions, these could happen also in sport.

First sociological studies in elite sport were done after high-profile sexual harassment and sexual abuse scandals that received media coverage (Fasting, 2015; Kerr & Stirling, 2019). One of these cases considered swimming in Britain in 1993, when Paul Hickson, the former Olympic swimming coach was accused sexually assaulting the teenage swimmers during his career (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 15). Hickson was convicted in 1995

for sexually assaulting his teenage swimmers in a period of 20 years. His 17-year prison sentence was the longest sentence for rape imposed in English court and it drew attention to the importance of child protection in sport. (Brackenridge, 2004). According to Brackenridge (2001, p. 17), the Hickson case “was a defining moment in the history of sexual exploitation in sport”. It was the starting point for preventive policies, at least in the United Kingdom. Following the Hickson case and other sexual abuse cases in sport, Sport England established the new Child Protection Unit in 2001 in conjunction with the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (Mackay, 2001). United Kingdom was also among the first countries to establish safeguarding policies to protect athletes in 1990s, together with Australia and Canada (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). The need for safeguarding policies were recognised internationally later and this theme will be discussed later in this thesis.

During the 1990s and early 2000, the studies of sexual harassment and abuse in sport were prevalence studies (e.g., Fasting, et al. 2003; Fasting et al. 2004; Brackenridge, Bishopp, Moussali, & Tapp, 2008; Chroni & Fasting, 2009) and qualitative studies about victims’ experiences and consequences of harassment (e.g., Brackenridge, 1997; Lenskyj 1992). Methods have varied depending on the research question and the aim. Interviews have been used for small sample sizes and for qualitative information (e.g., Lenskyj, 1992; Brackenridge, 1997). When the sample sizes increase, more quantitative methods are utilised. For example, Nielsen (2001) used survey questionnaire when studying intimacy, misconduct, and sexual relations in coach-athlete relationships in Denmark. The sample consisted of 253 student athletes and 275 coaches. Of course, the research on sexual harassment and abuse in sport has not only focused on surveys and interviews, although those are the most common methods used. Brackenridge et al. (2008) analysed 159 sexual abuse cases that were reported in the print media over a 15-year period. The aim was to identify the characteristic of sexual abuse in sport.

The research on sexual harassment and abuse has many challenges to be solved. One of those are the different concepts. Regardless of many prevalence studies done about the topic, the prevalence rates for sexual harassment and sexual abuse vary from study to study. The results depend on the used method, definitions, validity, sampling and underreporting or non-reporting (Fasting, 2005). Studying prevalence has still been in the centre of interest when studying these issues. I will next introduce the most important results from the sexual harassment and abuse research in sport, according to central themes.

As defined by Brackenridge (1997), sexual harassment and sexual abuse can take various forms. Forms of sexual harassment are verbal and written abuse, sexual comments and jokes, kissing, intimidating remarks, or propositions to sex. Forced sexual activity, rewarding for sexual activity and rape, are examples of sexual abuse. (Brackenridge, 1997). The diverse forms of sexual harassment and abuse have been found also when studying the experiences of athletes.

When presenting the most important results and themes found in research, it is important to be aware of the framework of risk factors that have been presented from early on. The risk factors for sexual abuse in the context of sport have been defined by Brackenridge (1997). These risk factors were derived from the interviews with female athletes who had been sexually abused in the sport environment (Figure 2). These risk factors have directed the sport specific research on sexual harassment and sexual abuse.

Table 1 Risk Factors for Sexual Abuse in Sport

Coach variables	Athlete variables	Sport variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sex (<i>male</i>) • age (<i>older</i>) • size/physique (<i>larger/stronger</i>) • accredited qualifications (<i>good</i>) • rank/reputation (<i>high</i>) • previous record of sexual abuse (<i>unknown/ignored</i>) • trust of parents (<i>strong</i>) • standing in the sport/club/community (<i>high</i>) • chances to be alone with athletes in training, at home, at competitions and away on trips (<i>frequent</i>) • commitment to sport/national/sport-specific codes of ethics and conduct (<i>weak</i>) • use of car to transport athletes (<i>frequent</i>) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sex (<i>female</i>) • age(<i>younger</i>) • size/physique (<i>smaller/weaker</i>) • rank/status (<i>potentially high</i>) • history of sexual abuse (<i>unknown/none</i>) • level of awareness of sexual abuse (<i>low</i>) • self-esteem (<i>low</i>) • medical problems especially disordered eating (<i>medium/high</i>) • relationship with parents (<i>weak</i>) • education and training on sexual abuse and abuse (<i>none</i>) • devotion to the coach (<i>complete</i>) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • amount of physical handling required for coaching • individual/team sport • location of training and comps • opportunity for trips away • dress requirements • employment/recruitment controls (<i>weak/none</i>) • regular evaluation, including athlete screening and cross referencing to medical data • use of national and sport-specific codes of ethics • existence of athlete and parent contracts (<i>none</i>) • climate for debating sexual abuse (<i>poor/non-existent</i>) • coaches association codes of ethics/conduct (<i>weak/none</i>)

Note: Comments in brackets indicate emerging trends from interview data; where no bracketed comment is made, further research is required.

Figure 2: Risk Factors for Sexual Abuse in Sport. Adapted from Brackenridge, 1997.

Although over 20 years has passed, these themes are still relevant in research. This overview highlights on the other hand the research trends and themes, but also the questions that have needed further clarification and research (e.g., sport type and dress

requirements). Many studies have complemented this list after 1997 but still today, some questions are left without answers.

Who are the perpetrators of sexual harassment or sexual abuse?

Many studies have focused on characterising the perpetrators of sexual harassment and sexual abuse in sport. In most of the studies, the perpetrators are male (e.g., Fasting et al. 2003; Alexander et al. 2011; Fasting, Brackenridge, & Walseth, 2007; Chroni & Fasting, 2009; Fasting et al. 2010; Ohlert, Seidler, Rau, Rulofs, & Allroggen, 2017; Lahti, Kyllönen, Pusa, & Tolvanen, 2020). There is much less research on female perpetrators in sport (e.g., Lahti et al. 2020; Fasting et al. 2010). For example, when studying prevalence of sexual harassment in Finnish competitive sport, Lahti et al. (2020) found that from a sample including 9,018 athletes aged 16 and older, 55% of female athletes and 67% of male athletes had experienced sexual harassment from men. When studying the gender of perpetrator, Lahti et al. (2020) also found that 11,9% of female athletes experienced harassment from other women. The same number for male athletes was 4,7%. According to these results, both male and female athletes experienced sexual harassment more often from men. This finding was also confirmed in the study by Ohlert et al. (2017) when the perpetrators of sexual violence in German organised sport were predominantly male (91%) and adults (81%). On the other hand, as the study by Lahti et al. (2020) shows, also females can take the position of a perpetrator.

In some studies, the assumption of male perpetrators has been present from the start (e.g., Alexander et al. 2011; Chroni & Fasting, 2009). In the study by Chroni and Fasting (2009), 42.0% of Greek female sport participants experienced sexual harassment from men inside sport (N=308). This assumption of the gender of the perpetrator fails to notice that women can also be perpetrators of sexual harassment and abuse as noted by Hartill (2005). He highlighted that we should not be blind to the abuse of male children and possibility of female perpetration. Hartill (2005) further concludes that until now, the study of sexual abuse has only focused on one part of the issue. The findings of Sand, Fasting, Chroni, & Knorre (2011) confirm this notion. When studying implication of authoritarian coaching style to the sexual harassment experienced by female athletes, they found that the authoritarian behaviours were a heavier predictor for sexual harassment experiences than the gender of the coach. Female and male coaches were included in the study (Sand et al. 2011). This further indicates that while previous studies have confirmed that majority of perpetrators have been male, the gender of the perpetrator does not need to be assumed before conducting the actual study.

In many studies the perpetrator of sexual harassment and sexual abuse has been mainly the coach (e.g., Hentunen, Ikonen, & Laakso, 2019; Parent, Lavoie, Thibodeau, Hébert, & Blais 2016; Fasting et al. 2002; Brackenridge, 1997). In the study by Fasting et al. (2002), athletes had experienced sexual harassment most often from authority figures in sport (N=59). The sexual harassment was most often perpetrated by the coach. In the study by Parent et al. (2016) the focus was particularly on sexual violence perpetrated by the coach. The study was conducted among 6,450 adolescents aged between 14 to 17 years. From the total sample, 0.5% had experienced sexual abuse by a coach. The prevalence rate was 0.8% for athletes. When analysing the sexual abuse experienced during lifetime (10.2%), 5.3% of adolescents had been victims of abuse perpetrated by a coach. (Parent et al. 2016). This study was special because the focus was on youth and the experiences were questioned directly from them via questionnaire. The gender of the coach was not studied. In the study by Alexander et al. (2011) found that the prevalence of sexual harm perpetrated by a coach was 8% in the main sport, and 9% in the second sport. In the second sport, the prevalence of other adult perpetrators from the club was higher, 11%. Considering sexual harassment perpetrated by the coach, the numbers were 21% for the ones who had experienced harassment in their main sport and 24% who had been harassed in their second sport. 20% of athletes had experienced harassment from others, for example spectators in their main sport. When analysing sexual abuse cases in sport that had been reported in the print media during 1992 and 2006, Brackenridge et al. (2008) found that 98% of the perpetrators were coaches, teachers, or instructors. In the study by Hentunen et al. (2019), the perpetrators of sexual harassment in tennis were mainly men working in sport and most often coaches although also other authority figures, peers and strangers had been perpetrators.

Many studies have also focused on coach-athlete relationship and the abuse happening in that relationship (e.g., Johansson & Lundqvist, 2017; Stirling & Kerr, 2009; Nielsen, 2001), which sets the focus on the coach as perpetrator and leaves out other perpetrators. On the other hand, having the focus on this special relationship between athlete and coach, which is a special aspect in sport, gives great amount of information about the steps of harassment, grooming and abuse perpetrated by the coach. In the study by Johansson and Lundqvist (2017) the prevalence rate for sexual harassment and abuse by the coach was 5.5% in Swedish sports. The participants reported most often experiencing inappropriate, offensive, or unpleasant physical contact but also more severe forms of harassment and abuse. The coach-athlete relationship can also include intimate relationships between coach and the athlete, in which recognising the border of abuse and actual consensual relationship is challenging. This is challenging for the sport

organisations when they must implement codes of conduct or other rules on behaviour management. For example, Nielsen (2001) found that coaches held neglectful attitudes towards being intimate with athletes and ignored the legal regulations governing their position of trust. Serious neglect of legal regulations was displayed in the results where 3% of coaches (N=3) had been intimately with athletes under 18 years old. Still, majority of the coaches, 92.9% found these relationships unacceptable (Nielsen, 2001).

Although studies have focused mainly on the role of the coach as the harasser or abuser, the perpetrators can have various roles in the sport setting like a member of a club or team staff (e.g., Hentunen et al. 2019; Ohlert et al. 2017), teammate or peer (e.g., Alexander et al. 2011; Hentunen et al. 2019) or another authority figure like sport manager or masseur (e.g., Fasting et al. 2007) or physiotherapist (e.g., Ohlert et al. 2017). According to Alexander et al. (2011), the reported perpetrators of sexually offensive behaviours were most often peer athletes or teammates. When analysing the perpetrators of sexual harm, 88% of perpetrators were teammates in the main sport and 86% in the second sport. The study further suggested that the peer involvement in these behaviours was especially high in male sports such as in rugby. (Alexander et al. 2011). Also, spectators can be perpetrators of sexual harassment. According to Rintaugu, Kamau, Amusa, & Toriola (2014), out of 339 university female athletes in Kenya, 32.2% reported having experienced sexual harassment from spectators, which was the most often mentioned group of perpetrators. 28.2% of perpetrators were "others" and 23.6% teammates. In 8.3% cases, the perpetrator was a coach. (Rintaugu et al. 2014).

Considering the age of the perpetrator, it can most often be linked to the position the person holds. Peer athletes are most likely close to the victim's age who they are harassing, especially when harassment and abuse takes place in team in certain age category. When the perpetrator is a coach, staff member or authority figure, the expectations are that they are older than their victims. When studying sexual abuse cases in the print media, Brackenridge et al. (2008) found that perpetrator ages varied from 16 to 63, mean age being 34.2 years old. The age of the perpetrators is not even mentioned in many studies. I would then argue that the age of the perpetrator is not relevant when looking at the risk factors, since age is often connected to the position that the perpetrator holds and age alone, is not the only source of power that the perpetrator might hold over his or her victim.

The previous studies show that the perpetrator can be anyone who is afforded the position of power and the possibility to abuse this power. What the previous studies have not yet focused so much on is the sexual harassment and abuse outside of physical

environment. According to Lahti et al. (2020) social media followers can also act as committers of sexual harassment. Similar result was found by Hentunen et al. (2018) when investigating sexual and gender-based harassment in Finnish football and ice hockey national teams. This broadens the possibilities of harassment and abuse that are not connected to certain time or space and offers a chance for a more spectators and “outsiders” to harass and abuse athletes online. Also, other perpetrators can utilise social media for harassing and abusive behaviours. As noted by Sanderson and Weathers (2018), coach perpetrators could utilise Snapchat for sexually abusing purposes. Social media can also be utilised for grooming purposes and when testing if athletes are willing to keep the relationship as a secret. This way social media can offer chances for testing the boundaries of the athletes before possible meeting in the physical environment as it was done via Snapchat (Sanderson & Weather, 2018).

I will next focus on the factors that offer coaches or other persons in sport environment the chance to sexually harass or abuse athletes. These are factors that have been found in previous research and have offered the coaches and authority persons possibilities to harass, groom and abuse athletes. These factors have also been identified by Brackenridge (1997) as risk factor for sexual abuse in sport and as “coach variables”.

Coaches hold power over the athlete and even over other staff due to skills and knowledge (Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). The power of the coach is based on his or her expertise and previous success. Stirling and Kerr (2009) found that power of the coach was intrinsic constructing on expertise and previous success, authority, ability to control the athlete and closeness of the coach-athlete relationship (Stirling & Kerr, 2009). According to Brackenridge (1997) high status and good reputation of the coach can be risk factors for sexual abuse in sport. This notion can be generalised to other positions in sports as well. Of course, coach and other personnel must have the needed qualifications to perform their tasks and to guarantee successful performance of the athlete. The risk lies in the fact that good reputation and high position can guarantee the perpetrator a safe place, where their actions are not questioned. This was confirmed in the study by Jacobs, Smits, and Knoppers (2017) when they studied emotional abuse in youth elite sport in the Netherlands. In their study, the sport directors normalised the abusive behaviour of coaches. The expertise and knowledge of coaches further formed a “regime of truth”, where directors had only a little or no control over coaches’ actions (Jacobs et al. 2017, p. 133). Further, the directors were willing to hire coaches who had been fired by other elite clubs, which showed that the expertise of the coach played an enormous role (Jacobs et al. 2017). This shows that previous record of abusive behaviour can be ignored, also the cases including sexual abuse. On the other hand, if

the abuse by the coach has not been reported or there has not been any consequences for the coach, then these cases most probably stay unknown. The organisation might be unwilling to admit that this kind of behaviour has been happening in their organisation as the “not in my backyard” idea shows.

The good reputation of the coach is not only appreciated by the club who hires the coach, but also by parents. Already Brackenridge (1998) stated that parents had a limited knowledge of their daughters’ coaches and coaching context. When studying the parents of young elite female athletes, less than 50% of the parents, knew the coach’s qualifications and over 80% did not know if the coach had to sign a code of conduct for the coaching position. Brackenridge (1998) further concluded that parents had a low level of awareness of expected behaviour from the coaches. This finding is quite disturbing, considering the possibilities that parents have in recognising harassment or abuse taking place in sports. According, Kerr and Stirling (2012) parents often express concern towards coaching practices when first introduced to elite sport context. Later these concerns are forgot since abusive coaching practices are necessary for athlete development. As noted previously with the club directors, athletes and parents accept previously questioned coaching practices and socialize into the sport context, where the emphasis is on high performance and success (Kerr & Stirling, 2019). This socialisation further enables harassment and abuse to take place in sport environment. Further, it is important that the parents are aware about the coach and other staff that are responsible for their children’s sport participation.

Sexual harassment and sexual abuse can take place in various context inside sport. When studying the risk factors for sexual harassment and sexual abuse in sport, Cense and Brackenridge (2001) found that the perpetrators found possibilities to abuse athletes and identified the following four situational risks: when massaging the athlete, at the home of the coach, when the coach was taken the athlete home by his car and during national and international tournaments. This confirms the previous findings of Brackenridge (1997), where chances to be alone with the athlete frequently for example in trainings, at competitions or away trips consist as risk factors for sexual abuse in sport. Also, Brackenridge et al. (2008) found similarities in their study, when looking at the characteristics of sexual abuse in sport from the sexual abuse cases in print media. One of the distinctions were situations and locations which facilitated sexual abuse and where athletes were sexually abused. In the sample, the sexual abuse often took place at perpetrator’s home (41%) in a social context and social event. But sexual abuse occurred frequently also in a vehicle (23%) when driving the athlete home. The chance to transport athletes has been recognised as a risk factor for sexual abuse by Brackenridge (1997).

This offers a coach or a perpetrator chance to take the athlete away from the sport setting and offers the time to groom the athlete and lift the barriers in the athlete-coach relationship. According to Brackenridge et al. (2008), the specific situations where sexual abuse occurred were training sessions, non-sport social events and away competitions. For example, 21% cases took place in away competitions.

As the previous studies indicate, coaches and other persons with authority are sometimes offered full control of their work because of their former experiences. The clubs are not always even requiring commitment to codes of conduct from the coaches or other staff. Not even when it has been studied that abuse can take place in coach-athlete relationship (e.g., Johansson & Lundqvist). When studying interpersonal relations between athletes and coaches, Nielsen (2001) found that coaches had neglectful attitudes towards being intimate with athletes and ignored the legal regulations governing their position of trust. Serious neglect of legal regulations is showed in the results where 3% of coaches (N=3) had been intimately with athletes under 18 years old. 92.9% of coaches found these relationships unacceptable. (Nielsen, 2001). Although the overall findings show that most coaches act in a responsible manner, sexual abuse in sport is facilitated by loose attitudes of coaches and other persons in authority positions. According to Fasting and Brackenridge (2009), the coach education programmes are often missing the sexual harassment prevention. The weak commitment to the prevention policies and lack of education might result from the very few policies that even exist in the sport organisations not to mention how binding those are for employees. As Parent (2011) studied the revelation of sexual abuse in sport organisations, she found that the organisations had no or only a few policies in place. In addition, stakeholders like coaches, parents, or athletes, were not aware of the policies of the organisation or how they could file a complaint if they were sexually abused (Parent, 2011). These challenges and the responsibility of sport organisations are later discussed in this thesis.

Who experience sexual harassment or sexual abuse?

If the traditional studies on sexual harassment and abuse perpetrators in sport have focused on especially male coaches, the experiences of victims have focused mostly on female athletes (e.g, Brackenridge, 1997; Fasting et al. 2003; Fasting et al. 2010; Fasting et al. 2007; Chroni & Fasting, 2009). Female sex has even been identified as the risk factor for sexual abuse and sexual harassment in some studies (e.g., Lahti et al. 2020; Brackenridge, 1997). There are still many studies investigating the harassment and abuse experienced by both female and male athletes (e.g., Leahy, Pretty, & Tenenbaum, 2002; Alexander et al. 2011; Parent et al. 2016; Ohlert et al. 2017).

According to the previous studies the victims of sexual harassment or abuse are most often women and female athletes experience more sexual harassment and sexual abuse than do their fellow male athletes. For example, the study Ohlert et al. (2017) concluded that female athletes experienced significantly more of severe sexual violence situations than male athletes. Also, athletes with sexual orientation other than heterosexual disclosed a higher prevalence of sexual violence than heterosexual participants (Ohlert et al. 2017). When looking at the sexual abuse cases in media reports, Brackenridge et al. (2008) found that in 108 cases the victim was female and in 45 cases a male. Focusing on prevalence of sexual abuse in Australian competitive sport, Leahy, Pretty and Tenenbaum (2002) found that 21% of male athletes reported experienced sexual abuse at some time in their lives and of these, 29% had experienced it in the sports setting. These numbers were higher for female athletes (31% and 41%). When studying children's experiences in organised sport in the UK, Alexander et al. (2011) found that 34% of young women and 17% of young men had experienced sexual harassment. Contrarily, for example, Johansson and Lundqvist (2017) did not find any differences between genders when studying sexual harassment and abuse perpetrated by a coach in Swedish sports. The focus on the experiences of female athletes in sports has also caused criticism towards the research focus. Although previous research indicates that women experience more sexual harassment and abuse in sport, the higher proportion does not mean that the male athletes could not be victims nor that their experiences can be ignored. The overrepresentation of female athletes in research has resulted in underestimation of male athletes' experiences. As Hartill (2005) criticised that until now, the study of sexual abuse has only focused on one part of the issue. Also, Parent and Bannon (2012) highlighted the underestimation of the sexual abuse of male athletes. They for example stated that the research on risk factors and context of sexual abuse in sport has almost entirely focused on female athletes. This discussion is important since, as previous studies suggest, male athletes do experience sexual harassment and sexual abuse in sport (e.g., Johansson & Lundqvist, 2017; Parent et al. 2016; Alexander et al. 2011; Brackenridge et al. 2009). For example, Parent et al. (2016) found a significant difference between genders regarding sexual harassment perpetrated by a coach. According to this study, adolescent boys in the total sample experienced more sexual harassment by a coach. On the other hand, there were no gender differences found for the sub-sample meaning the adolescents involved in organised sport. It should also be highlighted that both men and women are most often harassed and abused by male perpetrators (e.g., Ohlert et al. 2017). When it comes to men and boys, the masculine values and socialisation to these values might prevent victims from reporting their experiences of sexual harassment or sexual abuse. According to Hartill (2005) the male

victims can be socialised by the culture of sport and by the patriarchal values and further be silenced by these values. Although sexual harassment and abuse is often not reported, the reasons for not reporting might be different depending on gender when considering this socialisation.

Some studies have found that the forms of harassment and abuse are different depending on the sex of the victim. According to Brackenridge et al. (2008), female athletes were likely to experience less aggressive and more intimate behaviours like kissing and unlawful sex whereas males were more likely to experience more intrusive grooming strategies like being shown pornography. Similarly, Alexander et al. (2011) found that young men reported more sexual harassment with physical element for example being touched or massaged in a way that made them feel uncomfortable and sexual harm e.g., forced to kiss or forced to have penetrative sex than young women. On the contrary, Ohlert et al. (2017) found the female athletes experienced significantly more severe sexual violence situations than male athletes. Regardless of the severity of the abuse or harassment, all forms should be prevented equally.

As stated by Lahti et al. (2020), the risk factors of sexual harassment were female gender, young age and competing in a high level. Similar risk factors have been identified by Brackenridge (1997), who named female sex, young age and potentially high ranking as risk factors for sexual abuse in sport as the athlete variables. The elite level as risk factor is discussed chapter 2.3. Age and competition level are factors that have interested researchers and been connected in a concept called stage of imminent achievement (SIA). This concept has been created by Brackenridge and Kirby (1997) who stated that the chronological age has proved to be somewhat useless when estimating the risk factors for sexual abuse. They stated that young athletes are way too often treated as adults and athletes first, and children as second. Therefore, the chronological age does not explain the risk of becoming sexually abused as much as does their positioning in their sporting career. According to Brackenridge and Kirby (1997), the athlete is most vulnerable, when they have the most to lose. This is the stage in their sporting career, where they have not yet reached the elite level and they depend highly on their coach. At this period, the athlete is most vulnerable, since dropping out of sport would be costly and they are not willing to risk their possible elite career by reporting sexual abuse (Brackenridge & Kirby, 1997). SIA makes young athletes vulnerable for grooming process and put them at risk of experiencing sexual abuse.

This concept has been utilised in research as well. In their study about abused athletes' perceptions of the coach-athlete relationship, Stirling and Kerr (2009) applied the

knowledge of SIA when choosing the sport, they were focusing on. These two sports were swimming and gymnastics. In swimming, the stage of imminent achievement for females is 13-16 years and for gymnastics 12-15 years. Stirling and Kerr (2009) also hypothesised the athletes of young age would be more vulnerable to the consequences of coach's power. According to the findings, the previously abused elite athletes described their relationship with their coaches extremely close and the controlling power of the coach. The athletes reacted to abusive behaviour with fear and normalising the inappropriate practices. (Stirling & Kerr, 2009). The concept of SIA is to some extent also supported by the results found from Lahti et al. (2020), since the probability for sexual harassment was highest among 16-year-old female athletes who competed in the adult national team level. The young age explains the probability to become sexually harassed but also the competition level and possible the stage of imminent achievement. Also, Brackenridge, Lindsay, & Telfer (2009) tested the hypothesis of SIA being a risk factor for athlete sexual abuse. In their study, they investigated 83 child-sexual abuse cases within sport that had been published on the print media. The stage of imminent achievement was examined in relation to sex, performance level and early- and late-specialisation sport disciplines. According to the findings, most child abuse cases occurred below the SIA for both female and male athletes. Sexually abused male athletes were three times more likely to be aged below SIA when sexual abuse occurred. For male athletes, the age below SIA was a stronger predictor anticipating sexual abuse. (Brackenridge et al. 2009).

Although SIA as a concept gives more space to compare the occurrence of sexual abuse in different sports and makes it possible to prevent abuse from happening in certain stages, the chronological age should still not be left out. This is because the youngest athletes do not necessarily understand that what they are experiencing is abusive and wrong and they might not be in position to put their experiences into words. As noted by Cense and Brackenridge (2001), the limited knowledge of children means that they might fail to recognise sexual abuse and lack the language and concepts to report their experiences. The youngest athletes are not in place to put an end to the abusive relationship, and they might be more easily controlled by their coach or other persons with authority. They might also lack a model of normal parent-child relationship and so normalise the experienced abuse (Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). As noted by Cense and Brackenridge (2001), more empirical research is needed if this concept is valid and could predict the risk of sexual abuse in sport. Meanwhile it is important to focus on assuring the safety and well-being of all athletes and not just the ones who are approaching the elite level.

A low self-esteem can put the athlete in risk for experiencing sexual abuse (Brackenridge, 1997). According to Fasting and Brackenridge (2009), the coach's power lies in the capacity to either diminish or enhance the self-esteem of the athletes. The grooming process that was explained earlier is a part of sexual abuse in sports and is the process, by which the perpetrator prepares and isolates the intended victim (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 35). The low self-esteem can be one factor when the perpetrator is targeting potential victims and observes an athlete who is vulnerable (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 36). Further, Cense and Brackenridge (2001) stated that young athlete suffering from low self-esteem might be involved in the grooming process when preparing for elite sport and already confronting social and or emotional isolation from normal peer groups. The athletes are socialised in the norms of elite sport and these also include some extent of isolation and commitment to their respective sport. The low self-esteem can also make it challenging for the victim to persist grooming and possible sexual abuse, since the perpetrator has the power for controlling self-esteem.

As building trust and friendship with the victim is one part of the grooming process, weak relationship with the parent or carer can facilitate sexual abuse in sport (Brackenridge, 1997). Athletes might seek for parent-like relationships in sport and this way be more vulnerable for sexual harassment or abuse from an authority figure. According to Cense and Brackenridge (2001), the weak relationship with a parent is substituted by a trusting relationship with the perpetrator. The strength of this bond is demonstrated by looking up their coaches as role models and father figures and being devoted to the coach (Brackenridge, 1997). The athlete builds trust on the coach or other authority figure, who provides rewards from good performance and a parent-like relationship characterised with affection and discipline (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 36). The coach-athlete relationship is special bond and has been seen as one form of critical relationship similarly as the relationship between parent and child (Kerr & Stirling, 2019). This highlights further the power that is given to the coach in sport and shows the problematic when it comes to power imbalance between the athlete and his or her coach. When studying coach-athlete relationships, also abused athletes compared the relationships as to that of a parent and a child (Stirling & Kerr, 2009). This manifests the closeness experienced in that relationship.

According to Brackenridge (2001, p. 213), the involvement of parents both emotionally (e.g., support) and materially (e.g., helping with events) is a defence against athlete isolation that often leads up to grooming and sexual abuse. Since the athletes may have limited knowledge of sexual abuse, due to their age and/or lack of training and education,

they might also lack knowledge of what constitutes as a healthy relationship between a coach and athlete (Cense & Brackenridge, 2001).

On the other hand, Johansson and Lundqvist (2017) found that feelings of closeness and athlete attraction to coach were negatively related to the prevalence of sexual harassment and abuse. This finding is also different from the study by Stirling and Kerr (2009) who studied the perception of abused athletes and found that closeness of the coach-athlete relationship was source of the power that coaches held over athletes (Stirling and Kerr, 2009). Johansson and Lundqvist (2017) further highlighted that the negative correlation could be explained by normalisation of sexual harassment and abuse by groomed athletes. This was similar to the results by Stirling and Kerr (2009). Grooming can mask the harassment and abuse and enable such behaviours to be perceived as desired. This has been confirmed by previous research (e.g., Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005, Brackenridge, 2001, p. 36). Grooming might make the athletes blind to inappropriate behaviour when it is hard to recognise the abuse that is happening. The normalisation of sexual harassment and abuse considers the sport environment generally and is linked to other factors in the culture like the performance focus or dominance of masculine values. These factors will be covered in chapter 2.3.

Final risk factor for sexual abuse according to Brackenridge (1997) is the complete devotion to the coach. As noted, the power of the coach is based on knowledge and expertise (e.g., Jacobs et al. 2017; Stirling & Kerr, 2009). This creates the power imbalance between an athlete and coach and strengthens the dependency that athlete has for the coach to become successful in his or her sport. The power relations and in this case, the power of the coach is a contributing risk factor in abusive relationships and in sexual abuse in sport (e.g., Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). This power does not only consider sport performance but can reach to other areas of individual personal life like to social relationships (Tomlinson & Yorganci, 1997). Stirling and Kerr (2009) also found that athletes normalised abusive behaviours in the coach-athlete relationship due to admiration, respect, and fear. Here the athletes' devotion to the coach, makes the abusive behaviour go unquestioned. Devotion is an important factor enabling sexual abuse since the perpetrator tests the athlete's loyalty in the grooming process (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 36). Devoted and loyal athletes are less likely to question abusive behaviours and to report those as the results from Stirling and Kerr (2009) show. Regardless of the previous research focused solely on the coach-athlete relationship, it must be added that athletes can have close relationships with other persons in sport as well. Similarly, the power over the athlete is often hold by many other persons in sport than just the coach. The power relations in sport will be later discussed in this thesis.

Does sport really matter?

The issues of sexual harassment and abuse have been covered both in individual and team sports and the studies often cover more than just one sport type. For example, Fasting et al. (2003) studied the prevalence of sexual harassment among Norwegian female athletes and nonathletes in 58 different sports. Vertommen, Schipper-van Veldhoven, Hartill, & Van Den Eede (2015) studied sexual harassment and abuse in sport setting through telephone helpline that was established by the Netherlands Olympic Committee and the Netherlands Sports Confederation (NOC*NSF). In this study, 46 sports were present within 323 reports including for example football, swimming, and athletics. When studying court reports on sexual abuse in sport, Fasting et al. (2013) concluded that sexual abuse took place in various sports like gymnastics, football, basketball, swimming, shooting, skiing, handball, karate, track & field and trampolining.

One of the most interesting questions has been if the prevalence of sexual harassment and abuse differs between sport disciplines and if for example the amount of clothing can influence the probability of experiencing sexual harassment. The most relevant finding considering is that sexual harassment or sexual abuse occur in all types of sport (e.g., Fasting et al. 2004; Ohlert et al. 2017). In the study by Fasting et al. (2004) prevalence of sexual harassment was studied among Norwegian female elite athletes in 56 different sports. The data showed that sexual harassment occurred in every sport, regardless of it being a team or individual sport or competing with revealing clothing. Although the study found that sexual harassment was present in every sport and did not differ according to sport type, Fasting et al. (2004) found that the female athletes entering so-called masculine sports tended to report more sexual harassment from peer athletes than female athletes in other sport groups. According to Brackenridge (2001, p. 60) female athletes who participate in seemingly masculine sport, represent a threat to the dominance of that culture and provoke homophobic prejudice. I will discuss the dominance of masculine values and the effect on sexual harassment and abuse in sport later on.

Some studies have also demonstrated differences in prevalence between individual and team sport. Brackenridge (1997) identified risk factors for sexual abuse in sport and did not make difference between team and individual sport. Focusing on specific sport type, Vertommen et al. (2015) differentiated from which sports the helpline received most reports on sexual harassment and abuse. In relation to total youth membership, the most reports were received from cycling, swimming, table tennis and track and field. Regardless of this notion, Vertommen et al. (2015) stated that these sports cannot be

highlighted as presenting greater risk since this cannot be proved by statistical measures. In their research, Fasting, Brackenridge, & Kjølberg (2013) found that athletes in individual sports seem to be in higher risk for sexual abuse in sport. This was explained by the possibility for perpetrator, especially coach to spend more time alone with the athlete. Fasting et al. (2013) also highlighted that their sample size being very limited, this link cannot be proved by statistical measures. Interestingly, Lahti et al. (2020) found that some sports affected the prevalence of sexual harassment and could be thought as riskier than other sports. Ice hockey, football, baseball, and floorball had an increasing influence on the prevalence while orienteering had a decreasing influence on sexual harassment. Other sports did not affect the prevalence in any way. (Lahti et al. 2020). This difference among sports was statistically meaningful but no further analysis followed these findings. One explaining factor could be the culture that normalises sexual harassment and considering team sport, the so-called “locker-room talk”. Masculine hegemony and masculine culture are kept alive by harassing behaviours that are normalised by team members and further normalised by spectators, managers, and others in sport. According to studies, men’s exposure to misogynistic peers who sexually objectify and disrespect women, decreases positive intervention by observers (Leone & Parrot, 2018). Further, team sport could offer more possibilities for abuse and harassment perpetrated by peers and teammates. On the other hand, no differences between individual and team sport could be found when studying sexual harassment and abuse perpetrated by a coach in Sweden (Johansson & Lundqvist, 2017). As these results indicate, sexual harassment and sexual abuse do occur in different sports and the notion of some sports being riskier than others has yet to be proved.

One of the most interesting themes in research has been if the competition level influences the prevalence of sexual harassment and abuse. The hypothesis that elite level would increase the prevalence of abuse and harassment has been covered in many studies and the results have been to some extent in conflict. The hypothesis has been confirmed by for example Fasting et al. (2010) and by Lahti et al. (2020). In the study by Fasting et al. (2010), the focus was on the relationship between performance level and sexual harassment prevalence among female athletes in Czech Republic. They found that the chances of being harassed by someone in sport increased when the performance level increased. This number was 55.2% among elite athlete compared to 29.7% among exercisers. Similarly, Lahti et al. (2020) discovered that the higher competition level was in accordance with the higher sexual harassment prevalence. The athletes who competed in adult level national teams, had the most experiences and observations on sexual harassment (Lahti et al. 2020). Further, Leahy et al. (2002) found

that the difference between elite athletes and lower-level athletes was significant, when analysing the prevalence rate of sexual abuse.

The study by Fasting et al. (2010) gives explanations which could be applied to both studies. The explanation lies on the culture of elite sport which is mainly dominated by men and characterised by unequal power between men and women. Elite level athletes spend more time in this culture dominated by men and masculine values, where harassment is normalised and accepted. (Fasting et al. 2010). When athletes have reached the elite level, they spend more time in their respective sport due to e.g., increased training sessions and training hours as well as due to competitions and sporting events. This can increase the possibilities to harass or abuse the athletes in sport environment. According to Fasting et al. (2010), being an elite level athlete could offer protection from sexual harassment outside sport, due to high self-esteem and physical strength while these attributes do not protect from harassment taking place inside sport.

On the other hand, these kinds of differences were not found by Chroni and Fasting (2009) or Ohlert et al. (2017) or by Johansson and Lundqvist (2017). In the study by Ohlert et al. (2017) level of performance was one of the risk factors, but it did not have significant effect on the experiences of sexual violence. When studying sexual harassment and abuse in coach-athlete relationships in Swedish sports, Johansson and Lundqvist (2017) did not find significant differences across performance levels of the participants. Also, Chroni and Fasting (2009) could not confirm the effect of competition level when investigating the prevalence of sexual harassment among female sport participants in Greece. The participants were divided into three different performance level and there were no significant differences between their experiences on sexual harassment in sport. Instead, the result of exercisers experiencing more sexual harassment from men outside sport was significant. This result supports the justification by Fasting et al. (2010) that higher competition level might offer protection from harassment outside sport. On the other hand, this could also be explained the fact that elite level naturally spends more time in the sport context which means that the probability to face risky situations outside sport could be minimised. These results should not be understood as that harassment and abuse could not take place in lower levels. As presented by Parent et al. (2016) sexual violence is also present in recreational sport. More research is required considering how elite level and sport context can foster sexual harassment and sexual abuse.

Nonetheless, the studies comparing the prevalence rates inside and outside of sport are somewhat hard without knowing the culture and the existing gender order. For example,

in the study by Fasting et al. (2010), women who experienced most sexual harassment were exercisers outside of sport (73%). This result was further discussed in relation to the gender order in Czech Republic. Similarly, Chroni and Fasting (2009) the exercisers experiencing more sexual harassment outside of sport was connected to the gender order in the context of Greece. This indicates the prevalence of sexual harassment and abuse in sport cannot be only understood in the context of sport but should also be analysed in connection to the cultural context.

The level of competition has also been studied in relation to the perpetrator position. According to Fasting et al. (2003), athletes experienced more harassment from men who were in the authority positions than did their controls. This is supported by Alexander et al. (2011). In their study it was found that peer involvement in sexual harassment decreased when the competition level increased. Instead, the role of the coach as perpetrator of sexual harassment increased together with the level of the competition. (Alexander et al. 2011). On the elite level, the role of the coach and other authority persons expand whereas in the recreational level the athletes are not necessarily that much in contact with other persons than their peer group and coach. On the elite level, athletes often have many staff members like physiotherapists, masseurs, and doctors and this might explain the increase of sexual harassment from other authority figures.

Away trips and competitions offer a chance for sexual abuse in sport regardless of the competition level (Brackenridge, 1997; Cense & Brackenridge, 2001; Brackenridge et al. 2008). The situations described previously by Cense and Brackenridge (2001) which could construct a risk for abuse can be adopted to many different sports both on elite and amateur level. For example, Fasting et al. (2013) found that athletes in individual sports would be in higher risk for sexual abuse in sport. This was explained by the possibility for coach to spend more time alone with the athlete. In individual sports, the coach-athlete relationship is more focused on individual athlete or athletes, instead of a team, which could offer the coach more chances for grooming.

The current research has also some limitations. As Brackenridge (2001, p. 48) stated, the research on sexual exploitation is limited and the data of sexual abuse is both challenging to collect and remarkably unreliable. Although more studies have been produced about the topic of sexual harassment and sexual abuse in the sport setting, it has been challenging to compare the results and make strong assumptions about the issues. This is due to different definitions of the concepts and operational measures (Brackenridge, 2001 p. 48). Although the concepts of sexual harassment and sexual abuse are widely used in research and in policy documents, there are many more

concepts that are used in addition to these or instead. For example, Ohlert et al. (2017) studied the prevalence of sexual violence that included behaviours of sexual harassment (e.g., sexist jokes) and sexual abuse (e.g., forced penetration). Also, Parent et al. (2016) studied the prevalence of sexual violence, this concept being an umbrella term for sexual harassment and abuse. The different definitions used in research, covering similar activities, make it difficult to compare studies with each other. Therefore, for example the prevalence rates vary from study to study and general prevalence rates for sexual abuse or sexual harassment are impossible to produce.

While sexual harassment and abuse have been recognised in the society and studied in other settings, the research began in sport only in the early 1990s. The research resulted policy implications and preventive strategies only years later. Sport organisations were rather slow and reluctant to adopt these strategies. The research of sexual harassment and abuse has developed over the years and there is now more information about what constitutes as sexual harassment or sexual abuse, how it occurs and who are the perpetrators.

As the results from previous studies show that no sport is immune to the issues of sexual harassment and sexual abuse. It is also clear that anyone can be a perpetrator sexual harassment or abuse and anyone can be a target of it, regardless of age, gender or competition level. Based on previous research, sexual harassment and abuse occurs in every sport, but more research is required if some specific sport affect the prevalence by either increasing or decreasing it. The results further prove that all sport organisations should establish safeguarding measures to protect the athletes and to prevent harassment and abuse. I will next describe the factors related to sport culture that foster inappropriate behaviours in sports.

2.3 Why is sport an arena for sexual harassment and abuse?

While physical activity and sport have been seen mainly positive, many societal problems have found their way to sport arenas. Doping and match-fixing are issues that are discussed only in the context of sport. These issues are truly against the integrity of sport. Sexual harassment and abuse have touched other social institutions and as several cases have proved, sport is not safe from these issues. Due to sport's status as being separated from the rest of society, the sport community has been slow to notice the problems that surround the sports world. As the IOC Vice President Dr Uğur Erdener (IOC, 2017, p. 6) noted: "Sport is a microcosm of society. As such, wider societal ills occur in sport just as they do outside of sport". One of these "societal ills" was child abuse. Child abuse was first seen as a private matter and researched in family setting

(Collin-Vézina et al. 2013). After abuse scandals in sport, it became clear that this issue touches also the sport world. Still, there were no preventive measures against abuse by the 1980s and in the beginning of 1990s, scientific studies done in the area paved the way for preventive measures. (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014).

The aim of this part is to further examine what features in sport let the issues of sexual harassment and abuse exist and flourish. Since sport is one of the social institutions it shares some of the key aspects with other institution. Similar education setting or religion, sport is viewed as inherently good and positive, a socialisation tool. But sport has many characteristics that separate it from the other social institutions. These are the performance focus and male dominance. Sport also enjoys a degree of autonomy that is not the shared by other institutions. Uneven power relations appear in all these institutions but in sport, the special athlete-coach bond, is a unique feature that cannot be compared to for example a pupil-teacher one. These characteristics and their influence on the occurrence of sexual harassment and abuse in sport will be discussed next.

Sport as a social institution with autonomy and freedom

According to Brackenridge and Rhind (2014, p. 327) "Sport qualifies as a social institution that shares many of the risk and protective features of other social institutions". One characteristic is strongly related to the sport as social institution: autonomy. Sport sector enjoys a degree of autonomy and nonregulation (e.g., Brackenridge, 2004; Kerr, Kidd, & Donnelly, 2020; Hartmann-Tews et al. 2020). As stated by Hartmann-Tews et al. (2020), the autonomy of sport causes sport organisations to fail in meeting the requirement for prevention policies. In their research, the NSFs failed to meet the obligations set in the Munich Declaration. What they further issued is that the DOSB nor the DSJ have the authority to make their member associations implement specific directives (Hartmann-Tews et al. 2020). Similarly, Brackenridge (2004) problematised the traditional autonomy that voluntary sports sector enjoys and that it protects the sector from external investigation and regulations. Kirby and Demers (2013) conclude that the closed sport system constitutes as one of the primary risk factors for sexual exploitation in sport.

Regardless of the publicity that sport and especially elite sport enjoys, the preparation for competitions happens behind closed doors. The sexual exploitation of athletes then takes place in private environment and without athletes speaking out, might stay as a private issue for many years after the exploitation has ended. (Kirby & Demers, 2013). The non-regulatory nature of sport further prevents actions from outside parties and protects the perpetrators, but not the athletes. Autonomy and symbolic separation from

legal and social regulations, create fruitful conditions for sexual exploitation. According to Brackenridge (2004), the networks in sport place athletes, both children and adults in unethical relations to authority figures and increase their sensitivity to exploitation. Similarly, Kerr, Stirling, and MacPherson (2014) conclude that the unregulated nature of sport together with power assigned to coaches and prioritising success and winning at all costs, contribute to a setting which is favourable for athlete maltreatment. Due to the autonomy and segregation of sport from the rest of the society, it has been slow to notice the problems surrounding it. This autonomy guarantees sports organisations and clubs the freedom to decide if they want to implement certain policies or not and how they will implement those.

Appleby and Foster (2013) describe sport as one of the most celebrated institutions that has had many social functions over time from entertainment to spiritual expression. Sport also offers professional opportunities for coaches and athletes and in addition many physical, mental, and social benefits (Appleby & Foster, 2013). Enhanced learning and thinking, health, and anxiety reduction are all key benefits of physical activity (World Health Organization [WHO], 2020). The benefits of being physically active and the risks for being insufficiently active cannot be denied. These documented benefits of physical activity strengthen the institution of sport and the values that sport is only good and pure.

First, the performance-oriented culture in sport, makes athletes and others wanting to win at all costs. This culture of performance enhancement creates an environment where the focus is only on the performance, not on athletes' experiences. Harmful behaviours are either normalised or masked. Athletes do not report, because they do not want to leave their sport. On the other hand, sexual and abuse harassment perpetrators can vary from peers to management. It can be said that individuals indeed are perpetrators and commit sexual harassment and abuse. But the culture of sport does not prevent it but lets it flourish and does not judge it.

Performance focus and winning at all costs

According to Brackenridge and Rhind (2014), performance success is still a dominant discourse in sport. Similarly, Kirby and Demers (2013) argued that successful performance and well-being of athletes are the two ideologies in sport that hold powerful tension in-between. While successful achievement is evident part of sport, it constitutes as an issue when the successful performance comes at the cost of athlete welfare and health. Then sport is not a healthy environment for athletes and different problems are ready to occur. (Kirby & Demers, 2013).

The requirement for successful performance contributes to abusive behaviours in particular ways. The performance is linked to the authority power of the coach, acceptance of abusive behaviours and non-reporting by the victims. Coaches are hired to create success and being a successful coach also means that the person is highly respected for his or her past achievements. The successful coach is also respected by the athletes and his or her practices are widely accepted and rarely questioned (e.g., Jacobs et al. 2017; Kerr & Stirling, 2012). Athletes are afraid to report inappropriate behaviour by their coach or other persons since they do not want to risk their sporting careers (e.g., Kerr & Stirling, 2012; Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). Speaking out can also cause scandal for the sport and exclusion of the victim by the team (Solstad, 2019; Kirby & Demers, 2013). This way the focus on performance masks the inappropriate behaviour and silences the victims.

Like the concept of GSM by Coakley (2015), Kerr and Stirling (2019) also found that people in sport are often socialised to accept harmful sport practices due to prioritised value of performance. The abusive practices, which previously were maybe questioned, are perceived as normal and helpful for athlete's success. Due to socialisation, athletes, parents, and other adults can become blind to these harmful behaviours and accept those. (Kerr & Stirling, 2019; Jacobs et al. 2017). In the study by Jacobs et al. (2017) this was the case with club directors, who were ready to accept harmful behaviours to legitimate success. Same way as believing in GSM, socialisation to performance enhancement without well-being of athletes, makes sportspeople blind towards diverse problems occurring in sport.

Performance enhancement sets diverse requirements for athletes from time management to diet. When training to be an elite athlete, the sport in question becomes dominating part of life. It might lead to isolation of athletes from their social relationships, since there is not enough time for social interaction in addition to training, school, job, sleeping and eating (Gervis & Dunn, 2004). Athletes might travel a lot and spend more time with their coach than with their parents. In their study, Gervis and Dunn (2004) focused on emotional abuse of former elite child athletes by their coaches. According to their study, many young athletes experienced abusive behaviour by their coaches and coaches abused their power. If the athletes stay successful, these behaviours are ignored, accepted, and exchanged for success (e.g., Brackenridge 1997).

Although sexual harassment and abuse can appear in all levels in sport, in some studies the higher performance level was found to have an effect to the higher prevalence rate (Fasting et al. 2010). Increased presence of sexual harassment and abuse in elite sport,

could be explained by the time the athletes invest on their sporting career. Then the chances of being sexually abused or harassed in sport setting are higher than being a victim of abuse outside sport. At the elite level athletes might be afraid of risking their careers, if they report the misconduct (e.g., Kerr & Stirling, 2012; Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). Also, coaches have much more control over an athlete's life at the elite level, than at a less-competitive level and in recreational sport.

Performance factor is also linked to the aftermath of experiencing abuse or harassment in sports. Sudden decrease in performance and reluctance to go to the training can be consequences of sexual harassment and abuse and other inappropriate behaviour in the sport environment (e.g., Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). On the other hand, leaving the sport is not an option for the successful athlete who is close in reaching the elite level. According to Brackenridge (1997), athletes might exchange sexual abuse to success, especially when the coach is ranked high and considered to be the one making the athlete successful. Prioritising performance makes athletes more vulnerable for maltreatment and socialises stakeholders to accept harmful behaviours in sport, including sexual abuse (Kerr & Stirling, 2019). As Jacobs et al. (2017) found in their study that club directors were willing to accept inappropriate coaching behaviour for the sake of success. If club directors and coaches normalise sexual harassment and abuse, why would not athletes do the same when they experience it?

Although the performance focus is a risk factor for inappropriate behaviour, so is the culture of sport in general. The requirements for physical training, emotional toughness and the culture of flexibility, act as masks to the suffering of harassment and abuse that some of the athletes face when participating in their sport (Brackenridge, Bringer, & Bishopp, 2005). Many so-called masculine values are evident in sports and these will be discussed in an own chapter.

The abuse of power in sports

Like other social institutions, the power relations are an evident part of the sports world. Sexual abuse and sexual harassment in sport is said to stem from abuse of power relations. Cense and Brackenridge (2001) stated that power imbalance creates potential for abuse to occur. They also noted that authoritarian leadership flourishes in the sport culture. This is noted also by other researchers (e.g., Kirby & Demers, 2013; Sand et al. 2011). Coach-athlete relationship is one of the classical examples of imbalance power in sports. According to Tomlinson and Yorganci (1997, p. 134) power and control are present in all coach-athlete relations:

„The relations of power and control that characterize all coach/athlete relations – manifested in the spheres of training, knowledge, diet, weight control, and potential influence over interpersonal relationships – are especially acute in terms of the male coach/female athlete relations.”

As noted by Tomlinson and Yorganci (1997), the power in the athlete-coach relations can be complex. Example of power relations is when persons in athletes' support network use power on the athlete (NIF, 2010). The coach uses his or hers expert and/or power of position and that can lead to sexual abuse and harassment (NIF, 2010). This means that coach, who is in a position of power over athlete, due to gained expertise, respect, and trust, misuses this power. Coaches use power over athletes by having control of all areas in life including diet, health, and psychology. (Tomlinson & Yorganci, 1997). That truly exceeds coaches' expertise and knowledge and risk the well-being of an athlete. Secondly, sexist practises and assumptions functioned as a basis for forms of control over individual's personal life and body. (Tomlinson & Yorganci, 1997). Similarly, in the study by Sand et al. (2011), the authoritarian behaviour of the coaches indicated sexual harassment among the female sport and PE students. The student experienced more authoritarian behaviours as well as sexual harassment from male coaches than from female coaches. This difference in prevalence was significant. (Sand et al. 2011).

In a study by Stirling and Kerr (2009), abused athletes stated that a coach held significant power over athletes. The sources of power included the closeness of the relationship, the expertise of the coach and previous successes, the legitimate authority of the coach and coach's ability to control access to athletes (Stirling & Kerr, 2009). It was also clear that athletes did not question the authority, and athletes responded to abusive behaviours with fear and normalising the actions. It is also interesting, that close athlete-coach relationship and good reputation of the coach, the factors that are positive, were used negatively according to the athletes. According to Stirling and Kerr (2009), power is more likely used negatively, when an athletic performance is prioritised above well-being of the athlete. This is further explained by the dependency of the coach's career development on athletes' performance and success. In the study by Jacobs et al. (2017) the club directors accepted inappropriate coaching behaviours in Dutch gymnastics when the emphasis was on winning. Also, the coaches rationalised their behaviour because their athletes' dependency on success and good performance.

Sexual abuse is one form of relational maltreatment. Relational maltreatment occurs in critical relationships which are critical due to unequal power relation and dependency. (Kerr & Stirling, 2019). This kind of relationship, for example the one between parent and a child is critical because the child is dependent on the parent for safety and fulfilment of different needs. As Stirling and Kerr (2009) mentioned in their study, the coach-athlete relationship was sometimes compared to one between parent and a child. Same way as child is looking for trust and safety from a parent, the athlete can depend on the coach especially when athlete has not yet reached success. According to WHO (1999), the considerable amount of child maltreatment is perpetrated by the ones closest to the child and by people who the child encounters in day-to-day life. This has been proved by research as well since in majority of sexual harassment and sexual abuse cases, victim has known the perpetrator beforehand.

In research, the general imbalance of power between men and women in sport, has been a relevant topic. It has also been defining factor of sexual harassment and abuse in sport. For example, in the research by Fasting et al. (2010), the sexual harassment of female athletes inside sport was explained with the culture of elite-level sport, highly dominated by men, and characterised by unequal power between women and men. When there is a power imbalance, it offers a chance to execute one's power over someone with less power.

The abuse of power can happen in other relationship than the one between the coach and an athlete. In the study by Fasting et al. (2010), the sexual harassment of female athletes inside sport was explained with the culture of elite-level sport, highly dominated by men, and characterised by unequal power between women and men. In this case, the harassers were other players and teammates. In the research by Ohlert et al. (2017), focusing on the prevalence of sexual violence in organised sport in Germany, 91% of the perpetrators were adults and in addition to coaches, they were physiotherapists or staff members. According to Alexander et al. (2011) the perpetrators were mostly peers and teammates, but 21 % respondents also said that coach was included. According to Hentunen et al. (2018), the perpetrators were for example teammates, other athletes, strangers, and team staff. These results show that it would be too simple to focus purely on the coach-athlete relationship and the misuse of power in that relationship. Since the perpetrator can be anyone, from teammate to team staff, it should be kept in mind, that power is not always linked to a certain position although higher position might offer more chances for abuse. A teammate can have power over an individual due to close relationship, trust, or expertise in the same way that a coach can have power over an

athlete. These relationships do not function in a same way, but in the case of sexual harassment and abuse it should be noted that it is not only the coach who can abuse the power given to him or her. All adults who work with athletes, should act as role models, and have a professional attitude linked to their role. They should also understand and commit with the limits for acceptable behaviour (NIF, 2010). The same goes for the interaction between athletes and teammates since the sexual harassment and abuse also happens inside a team and by peers.

According to Mountjoy (2019, p.58) the abuse of young athletes could go on for so long because of three key factors: abuse of a power relationship, a sport culture of secrecy and deference and failed sport leadership (Mountjoy, 2019, p. 58). This case highlights that power in the sport world is linked to many different roles from coaches to team officials. It also demonstrates the fact that the power can be misused in sport and in some cases, the culture of sport allows it to happen. It also raises questions about sport leadership and the responsibilities of sport organisations.

Male dominance and masculine values in sport

In the research by Fasting et al. (2010), the sexual harassment of female athletes inside sport was explained with the culture of elite-level sport, highly dominated by men, and characterized by unequal power between women and men. Although the sport world has changed from the times, when women were only accepted as spectators and their sport performances were prevented due to their sex, the elite sport still lies under the dominance of men and masculine values. According to Brackenridge (2001, p. 60) female athletes confront most ridicule in sports which are associated with male dominance and masculine heritage.

In 1987 (p. 349), Lois Bryson stated that "*Sport is a crucial arena in which masculine hegemony is constructed and reconstructed*". She further described linking of maleness with visible and highly valued skills and with the approved use of aggression, force, and violence (Bryson, 1987). Aggression, force, and violence explain maleness and male dominance in sport and strengthen the male sex, while trivializing females. Light and Westwood (2012) further stated that the masculine values still dominate the field of sport even 25 years later and women's sport performances are challenged by masculine standards. Also, Appleby and Kirby (2013) discovered that sport has always been a masculine domain. Similarly, Hartill (2005) presented that competitiveness, physical strength and aggression, norms that are considered as masculine, are present in sport

in a way that would not be acceptable in other social institutions in Western society. Aggressive and violent behaviour are considered generally negative attributes but, in some sports, these are highly valued and respected.

In addition to the the values respected in the sport environment, it is also the place where men and women are characterised and further separated. According to Messner (2005, p. 313), sport is more than a place for recreation and play. It is the contested terrain for class, race, and sexual relations and gender (Messner, 2005, p. 314). Sport arena is showing the visible differences of male and female bodies and in addition to building attributions connected to those bodies, it offers a way to display the limitations and capabilities of those bodies. According to Messner (2005, p. 314), sport is a key setting for ideological competition over the meanings of femininity and masculinity. The contest between female and male bodies is evident in sport, when the performances of the sexes are compared, and women are seen as weaker sex especially due to their physical abilities that differ from men. On the other hand, some sports are constructed as highly masculine. Examples of these are the traditional team sports, like ice hockey or rugby. There are also sports that are constructed as more feminine like ballet or figure skating. By construction I hereby mean how these sports are discussed in the media and which attributes are shown as valued in these sport disciplines.

The research on sexual harassment and abuse in sport, gives support to the influence of masculine values and norms. Fasting et al. (2004) found that the female athletes entering so-called masculine sports tended to report more sexual harassment from peer athletes than female athletes in other sport groups. This was explained by women entering the sport that is dominated by traditional masculine values and patriarchal power exercised over women. These values could further normalise the harassing behaviours in sport and reinforce heterosexual identification among men. (Fasting et al. 2004). According to Brackenridge (2001, p. 60) female athletes who participate in seemingly masculine sport, represent a threat to the dominance of that culture and provoke homophobic prejudice. As many admired values in the sport world have been connected to masculinity and male culture, participants in the male elite sport might be more willing to accept harassing behaviours, including sexual harassment. Normalisation of harassment and abuse is present in sport and for example in teams in so-called "locker-room talk". Masculine hegemony and masculine culture are kept alive by harassing behaviours that are normalised by team members and further normalised by spectators, managers and others in sport. Membership in a team might require athletes to normalise harassment and abuse and prevent them from acting on it. This was demonstrated in

the study by Leone and Parrot (2018), where men's exposure to misogynistic peers who sexually objectified and disrespected women, decreased positive intervention by observers.

While sport participants are required to follow masculine values of strength and competitiveness, these requirements consider female and male athletes differently in the case of sexual harassment and sexual abuse. The overtly masculine culture normalises harassment and abuse and makes it appear as part of the game. Women entering masculine sport are viewed as a threat and are sexually harassed for entering the male domain. Abuse and harassment are ways to practice control. According to Hartill (2005) the masculine norms can make male athletes remain silent on the experienced sexual abuse. He argues that men who have invested both bodily and social capital into attaining status in a sport culture, become absorbed by these values and norms, and are further silenced by these (Hartill, 2005). Silent victims characterise the issue of sexual harassment and abuse in sport and this silence might consider even more male victims than female victims or at least function differently for them. Men are silenced by their "own" culture and speaking up about their experiences would challenge the whole culture. Belonging to the culture and being abused by the member of this culture, can cause even more frustration and pain, when it "betrays" you. Women then, have never really been full members of the masculine sport culture. Women are seen at "the other" and are silenced by stakeholders who trivialise their experiences and refuse to believe them. This overtly masculine culture where sexual harassment and abuse flourish, is damaging for both men and women who have experienced sexual harassment or sexual abuse and it is not the culture that promotes change and the well-being and safety of athletes.

3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Although the studies on child sexual abuse begun in the 1970s, sport organisations did not have any safeguarding policies in place until 1990s. The scientific studies done in the area paved the way for these preventive measures. According to Brackenridge and Rhind (2014), child protection in sport first begun within the so-called developed nations, Australia, Canada, and the United Kingdom. These countries acknowledged child abuse and protection in sport in the mid-1990s and the other countries have since followed the development (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). According to Mountjoy et al. (2015), the topic of safeguarding child athletes from violence in sport has grown interest in scientific

literature during the recent years. As showed in the literature review, these studies have principally focused on the magnitude of violence answering the questions of what, who and where.

Although sexual harassment and sexual abuse have proved to be issues in sport like in all other institutions, the sport community has been slow to develop proper prevention programmes (Mountjoy et al. 2016). According to Coakley (2015) different organisations are the key in protecting sport and others. The successful prevention and elimination of harassment and abuse against athletes lies on the efficiency of leadership by the international and national sport organisations (Mountjoy et al. 2016). Athletes are holding sport organisations accountable and expect them to take responsibility in protecting them. Also, Parent and Demers (2011) highlighted that the athlete protection leans on improved prevention in sports organisations. Some organisations have taken this responsibility seriously and implemented different measures to protect athletes. Safeguarding has recently become a priority for international sport organisations. The International Olympic Committee has published its own toolkit *Safeguarding athletes from harassment and abuse in sport* which is aimed to assist both International Sports Federations and National Olympic Committees to develop and implement safeguarding procedures to protect athletes (IOC, 2017). The toolkit offers a step-by-step guide from preparation to implementation to preventative measures. It is important that international organisations as leaders of the sports movement, set an example and provide guidance to promote safeguarding procedures in sport.

According to Brackenridge (2001, p. 228) one reason for sexual exploitation prospering in sport is the failure in leadership, both personal and collective. Unfortunately, the studies show that very few sport organisations are ready to take that leadership in protecting athletes from sexual harassment and abuse. For example, Parent (2011) found that very few sport organisations had preventive policies in place. Moreover, the sport administrators felt they were not competent enough to handle these issues. Similar results were found by Hartmann-Tews et al. (2020) when studying prevention of sexual violence in the German national sport federations. According to their results, many federations failed to meet the requirements for Munich Declaration and valid prevention policy.

In this chapter, I will focus on the responsibility of sport organisations to protect athletes from experiencing sexual abuse and harassment in sport. The concept of safeguarding will be utilised to define the process and the goal of prevention policies, safe sport. Connected to safeguarding, I will also present the most relevant studies considering the

challenges that sport organisations face when implementing successful preventive policies on sexual harassment and sexual abuse. I will also present possible facilitators found in the previous studies, that could help the organisations to meet the safeguarding requirements. I will introduce the specific model to protect the athletes from sexual abuse in sport. This model will be utilised for interpreting results of my study.

3.1 Safeguarding and safe sport

Safe sport should be the main goal for all sport organisations. Organisations have to offer safe environment that is free from all forms of harassment and abuse. For example, Mountjoy et al. (2016, p. 1021) define safe sport as “an athletic environment that is respectful, equitable and free from all forms of non-accidental violence to athletes”. But how to reach or maintain sport environment safe? The process is called safeguarding.

Safeguarding is a relatively new term, and it is approved of legislation in the United Kingdom (Hedges, 2015). Originally the term has been developed from child protection issues. In this thesis, the definition of safeguarding is fitted to sport context and considered as the responsibility belonging to all stakeholders in sport. According to Sport England (n.d) safeguarding is a process to protect adults and children by providing a safe space to practice sport and be active. The process belongs to everyone and important part of it is the education. The main goal is to keep children and vulnerable adults safe from abuse and other harmful behaviours (Hedges, 2015). According to sportanddev.org (n.d.), safeguarding can be adopted in sport and development to enhance the positive aspects of sport while protecting coaches, clubs, organisations, and young people.

When focusing on the safeguarding of children, adults are given great power and responsibility to enable the environment where playing sport is safe (Sport England, n.d.). According to Hedges (2015), people who work with children are responsible for keeping them safe. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) is a document that protects children and further justifies safeguarding in sport. It is the most widely ratified international agreement on childhood and a human right treaty (UNICEF, 1990). The convention aims to protect children’s right for being children and live a full childhood. It also states the responsibility to protect children from any forms of violence, abuse, exploitation, or maltreatment. Article 31 of the convention also considers child’s right to engage in recreational activities and in play including physical activity and sports (United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989). When engaging in sport, children should be kept safe from all forms of inappropriate behaviour including sexual harassment and sexual abuse.

Although the concepts of safeguarding focus mainly on protecting children, sport should be a safe environment for everyone, regardless of age or gender. Sport associations, organisations and governing bodies are responsible for building the conditions for safe sport and keeping the sport safe. But why are the organisations failing to provide safe sport? I will next focus on the challenges and possible facilitators of successful prevention policy on sexual harassment and sexual abuse.

Sports organisations can experience many barriers in different stages of establishing fruitful prevention policy on sexual harassment and sexual abuse. According to Brackenridge (2001, p. 203) barriers for implementing preventive policies include denial, fear, and pressure: fear of losing members for example and pressure to keep quiet and succeed. For example, denial and fear are connected to the internal culture in the organisation but also in the culture around sports where harassing and abusing behaviours are widely accepted and never questioned. In addition to the overall culture surrounding sport, one of the most studied challenges are the resources. These include funding, knowledge, and time. I will next introduce the challenges and possible solutions considering the implementation of prevention policy.

3.2 Organisations as central agents in safeguarding: favourable and challenging factors of preventive policies

According to previous research the sport organisations are struggling to protect athletes due to lack of expertise, funding, and resources (e.g., Hartmann-Tews et al. 2020; Rhind et al. 2014; Parent, 2011). These different resources are vital for sports organisations when creating and implementing policies but also in managing the cases of harassment and abuse. Considering knowledge, Parent (2011) found that sport administrators were not trained to deal with preventive policies on sexual abuse in sport or complaint procedures and felt they were not competent enough to react to these issues. When studying lead welfare officers (LWOs), who are responsible for safeguarding in their respective national governing bodies (NGOs), Rhind et al. (2014) found that managing the cases caused issues when the organisations' staff was not trained to manage cases effectively nor got any support to do that. The lack of knowledge might create the feel for sport organisations that these kinds of policies are very distant and irrelevant for their activities.

The lack of knowledge does not only consider the sport administrators and employees, but also athletes, coaches, and parents. According to Fasting and Brackenridge (2009) coach education programmes are often lacking information on sexual harassment

prevention. Similarly, Parent (2011) found that in addition to administrators, also parents, athletes, and even some coaches were not aware of current policies of the organisation and did not have information on which procedures they should follow if they would experience or witness sexual abuse in sport. The lack of education and low level of awareness put athletes at risk of experiencing and recognising sexual abuse in sport (Brackenridge, 1997). According to Donnelly, Kerr, Heron, & DiCarlo (2016), the lack of complete policies and trained officers make it hard for sport organisation to address false accusations, which further increases coaches' concern of their own vulnerability. Also, Brackenridge et al. (2004) stated that coaches were most often anxious about the possibility of false allegations, despite there is very little evidence of the occurrence of these. False allegations have not been proven as relevant topics by previous research when considering safeguarding and safe sport. On the other hand, comprehensive prevention policy can protect everyone against false accusations.

According to Rhind et al. (2014) found that in addition to available resources and funding, prioritising safeguarding consisted of a challenge. The officers also found it demanding to act as an expert in all areas of safeguarding. Also, in the study by Hartmann-Tews et al. (2020), the commissioners who were allocated to deal with prevention of sexual violence, had a diverse list of tasks in addition to prevention. The responsibility of ensuring safe environment and preventing policies requires time and the person dealing with these issues might fail in the tasks due to the lack of time. In addition, if the prevention policy is not a priority in the organisation, it might further decrease the possible resources that would otherwise be allocated to the topic and leave less time for dealing with the topic.

Some studies have recommended that the requirement of prevention policy could relate to the amount of funding. According to Brackenridge (2001, p. 229) funding could catalyst change in sport organisation towards establishing prevention policies. Also, Parent (2011) argued that intervention by the government agencies would force sports organisations to adopt definite measures to protect athletes. When the funding would be tied on successful policy establishment, it would pressure sport organisations to focus on these issues. In some countries, this kind of system is already in place. In England and in Canada, the countries that have been frontrunners in child protection in sport, safeguarding in sport is included in the funding criteria. In England, Sport England requires the national governing bodies (NGBs) to comply with the standards of safeguarding children in sport (Hedges et al. 2014). For example, all incidents of abuse must be recorded and monitored. In Canada, Sport Canada requires national sport

organisations (NSOs) to have a harassment policy and trained harassment officers to address complaints in place (Donnelly et al. 2016). Still, the study shows that while majority of sport organisations comply with the requirement to establish a harassment policy, these policies lack critical information. Furthermore, only 10% national and 14% of provincial organisations had harassment officers and none of these officers were at arm's length to the organisation as is required by Sport Canada. (Donnelly et al. 2016). This indicates that while governmental funding and intervention could help to solve the issues of establishing a prevention policy, funding alone is not enough to maintain successful sexual harassment and sexual abuse prevention in sport.

According to Hartmann-Tews et al. (2020), establishing a commissioner position acts as a catalyst for the development of prevention policy. What is even more meaningful result for the sport organisations is that this was the case, regardless of the prior knowledge of the commissioner or their work status. Although the study by Rhind et al. (2014) possessed the job of welfare officer as challenging, hiring an officer is far better option than not hiring one. It is important that the organisations have a person dealing with the prevention policy and case management. Considering resources outside the organisation, the consultation with legal experts is beneficial when there is a complaint on sexual harassment or sexual abuse. This person can also come from the outside but should still be close to the organisation and available to handle possible complaints. Establishment of these strategies is also a sign for athletes and other stakeholders that the organisation prioritises their well-being and is willing to protect both the athletes and their respective sport.

Failing leadership

Organisations are also responsible for maintaining the climate, where sexual harassment and abuse are normalised. This kind of culture might challenge the implementation of prevention policy. According to Brackenridge (2001, p. 228) sexual abuse and sexual harassment are allowed in sport because individual occasions when harassment takes place are not challenged, institutional conditions of discrimination remain unchanged and when sexual abuse goes unnoticed, or complaints are not believed. Finally, organisations fail to accept responsibility for the consequences of sexual abuse and sexual harassment. (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 228). When the climate for debating and challenging sexual abuse and harassment is not existing in sport, it consists as a risk factor for sexual abuse (Brackenridge, 1997). According to Parent (2011), sport stakeholders including athletes, participated in minimising, and trivialising the experiences of sexual abuse and blaming the victims. These kinds of prejudices can

further make victims of sexual abuse remain silent and . When studying power in relation to reporting abuse in sport, Solstad (2019) found that athletes thought telling a friend or remaining silent were the safest options and that reporting sexual abuse could potentially jeopardise their social position.

In their study on non-accidental violence in sport, Roberts, Sojo and Grant (2020) modelled enabling organisational factors for psychological, physical, and sexual abuse. Organisational norms that tolerate abuse are contributing to sexual abuse by maintaining dominant values which are high performance, expertise and traditional male violence that present non-accidental violence like sexual abuse as valid way to operate in the context of sport. (Roberts et al. 2020). These were discussed more detail in Chapter 2.3. According to this model, organisations have a relevant role in how they either accept or resist inappropriate behaviour. If the management level does not question sexual harassment or abuse and lets it go unnoticed, this attitude of ignorance transfers to employees, coaches, athletes, and parents and lets the harassment and abuse flourish in sport like Brackenridge (2001, p. 228) suggests. Finally, organisations fail to accept responsibility for the consequences of sexual abuse and sexual harassment. (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 228).

The weak commitment of coaches to specific codes of conduct and ethics, is a risk factor for sexual abuse in sport (Brackenridge, 1997). As Nielsen (2001) reported, coaches held neglectful attitudes towards being intimate with athletes and ignored legal regulations governing their coaching position. This is concerning finding considering the closeness of the coach-athlete relationship and the loose attitudes also at the administrators' end. The behaviour of the coaches was rarely regulated, and unacceptable incidents were tolerated in the organisations. Even the offending coaches faced no consequences for their offences (Parent, 2011). Similar findings were found by Jacobs et al. (2017) when studying emotional abuse in elite youth sport. Club directors accepted coaching behaviours, regardless of those being abusive and inappropriate and those were regarded as part of coaching young athletes on an elite level. While the directors in the study suggested that no sexual or physical abuse was tolerated, emotional abuse was constructed as vital part of youth elite sport (Jacobs et al. 2017). This said, if emotional abuse is normalised in youth sport by the management of the organisation, similarly the other forms of abuse might go unnoticed and be accepted as part of the game. Or how can directors tell which behaviour constitutes as emotional abuse and which as sexual harassment or abuse?

Sport organisations can act to change the culture in their sport by focusing on what kind of leadership they pursue. A climate where no sexual harassment or sexual abuse is tolerated and where any inappropriate behaviour is questioned and further penalised, is one where athletes are safe from maltreatment. Based on the challenges in previous research, Parent and Demers (2011) have created a model that sport organisations can utilise when implementing prevention policy and focusing on protecting the athletes from sexual abuse. I will next introduce this model.

3.3 Model to protect athletes from sexual abuse

In safeguarding athletes, prevention policies are the key. Those frame the aims and priorities of the organisation. Successful policy implementation can offer many benefits in addition to the main goal of safe sport and protecting everyone. Those are for example confidence, empowerment of athletes, knowledge, and resources (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 204). One could think that responsible organisation that is interested in the well-being of athletes is also a preferable partner for sponsors and preferred option also in the eye of parents and athletes.

According to Parent and Demers (2011), the athlete protection depends on stronger prevention in sport organisations. They studied preventive measures of sexual abuse in sports organisations in Quebec and found that sport organisations had very few preventive policies in place and several factors influenced this lack of measures. One of the most concerning finding was that the organisations that had policies to prevent sexual abuse had reacted only when inappropriate acts had been reported. Based on these results, Parent and Demers (2011) established a prevention model to prevent sexual abuse in sport (Figure x). This model highlights individually the factors that are relevant for successful prevention policy. In the model, athlete protection is divided into *Preventive measures* (external and international barriers) and *Case management measures*. *External barriers* consider mainly measures related to hiring new employees and *Internal barriers* refer to managing the staff by raising awareness and implementing rules. I will next present the aspects of the model together with relevant research on prevention policy.

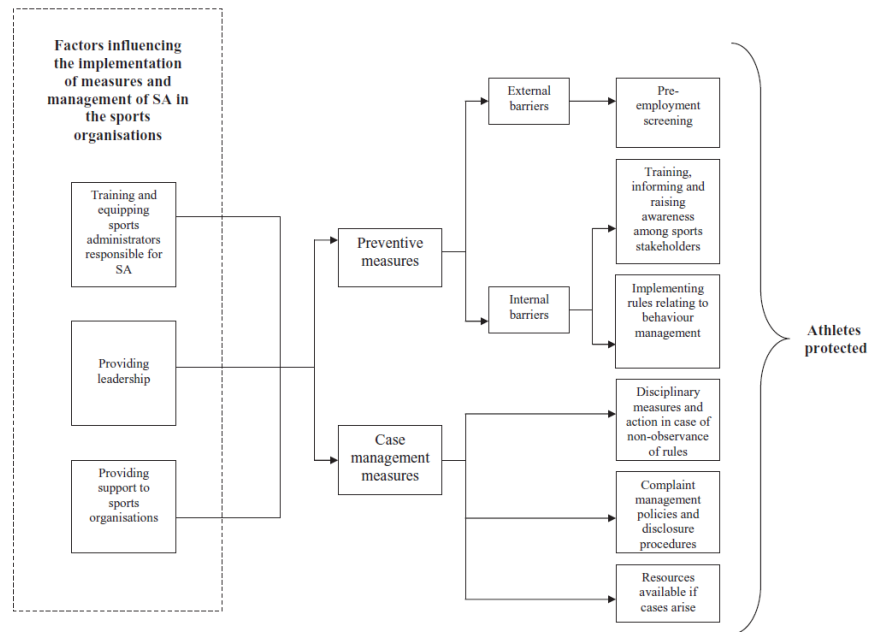


Figure 1. Sexual abuse (SA) prevention model for sports organisations

Figure 3: Sexual abuse (SA) prevention model for sports organisations. Adapted from Parent & Demers, 2011.

Parent and Demers (2011) include *Pre-employment screening* as the external barrier and as one component of athlete protection. Already Brackenridge (1997) recognised weak or non-existent employment control as a risk factor for sexual abuse in sport. Brackenridge (2001, p. 218) also suggested including criminal record checks to the action plan for sport organisations, to help them prevent sexual exploitation in sport. While employment controls and record checks can offer valuable information of the employees, who would be hired to work with children and youth, in sexual harassment and abuse prevention, this offers limited benefits. Even if the applicant would have a record of sexual harassment or sexual abuse, these incidents might have gone unreported and without consequences to the perpetrator. On the other hand, well-established complaint procedures and prevention strategies are key in this. When the incidents of abuse and harassment are reported and perpetrators are not left without consequences, screening the employees would reveal the record of previous inappropriate behaviour. Since employment screening protects athletes from perpetrators with previous record of abuse and harassment, it prevents them from continuing these behaviours when working with athletes. Hedges (2015) suggests that the recruitment process should include interviews and references among record checks so the employment screening would be one additional part to the typical application procedure.

According to Parent and Demers (2011), *training, informing, and raising awareness among sports stakeholders* are important when protecting athletes from sexual abuse. This is supported by Hedges (2015) who thought that raising awareness is the key in making sportspeople involved in this process. Everyone should also receive training about possible scenarios where abuse can occur. Brackenridge (2001, p. 219) notes that athletes should be educated about self-protection against sexual exploitation and reporting procedures. Education and training on sexual harassment and abuse should also consider parents and coaches taking into the consideration previous studies and their lack of knowledge on these issues (e.g., Parent, 2011, Sand et al. 2011). Coaches should receive education on communication skills and how their behaviour and actions can influence athletes. This will help to better understand their athletes' feelings and needs and further reduce the risk of unintentional actions that can be experienced as unwelcome by the athletes. (Sand et al. 2011). Education and training on sexual harassment and abuse are responsibilities of sport organisations, especially when the education is seen as a tool to protect athletes. All people involved in sport and working close with the athletes should be educated about safeguarding practices. In the context of this study, everyone should be informed on what constitutes as sexual harassment and sexual abuse and what kind of situation or behaviour these might involve. Everyone should also know how to report sexual harassment and abuse.

Sport organisations need to set boundaries to acceptable relationship and communication between athletes and coaches as well as athletes and other authority figures and team staff. In their model, Parent and Demers (2011) call this as *Implementing rules relating to behaviour management*. These consists of codes of conduct that describe what constitutes an acceptable behaviour and promote current best practises. These guidelines set benchmark what is acceptable for everyone working with athletes and further protects them. The code also sets standards for unacceptable and unacceptable behaviour when it comes to physical contact with the athletes or topics like dependency and control (Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). When everyone in sport is committed to the codes of conduct, it protects the athletes and guides the actions. It also helps everyone to recognise inappropriate behaviour. Similarly, Hedges (2015) states that organisations should consider codes of conduct in the process of safeguarding. The codes of conduct should target all stakeholders in sport including coaches, other staff members and peer athletes (Vertommen, 2017).

As Parent and Demers (2011) noted in their study, most of the measurements that were established in the sports organisation considered case management rather than prevention. The sport organisations also admitted reacting to the issue after

inappropriate acts had been reported. This result is extremely concerning since in all the cases the incidents could have been prevented with adequate prevention policy and the tools mentioned above. Sometimes the cases still occur, regardless of existing policies. If that happens, certain actions must be considered to further protect the athlete and to ensure fair process both for the victim and the perpetrator.

In the model case management includes the disciplinary measurements, complaint management and availability of resources. According to Parent and Demers (2011), these measures need to be present when protecting athletes both in local and national level. The first one considers written rules and codes of conduct, which sets boundaries between athletes and authority figures. When these are not followed, there must be a sanction for it. According to Mountjoy et al. (2016), sport organisations should define what constitutes a violation and specify the scope of consequences. As Parent and Demers (2011) found, sport organisation had unclear boundaries and were lacking rules relating to for example changing rooms, showers, or trips away. Non-existence of rules makes the control difficult and without rules it is hard to recognise when those are being broken. Consequences to the perpetrator of sexual harassment or sexual abuse, show that the organisation does not tolerate these behaviours and puts athlete well-being first in their activities.

Considering successful case management, clear reporting systems are the key and athletes must know these procedures when they need those (e.g., Hedges 2015, Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). The procedures should ensure confidential treatment of complaints and allow the involvement of social services or police in case it is required (Cense & Brackenridge, 2001). First thing is to listen to the athlete and take the complaints seriously. Further everyone should be encouraged to report inappropriate behaviours, especially if the victim of sexual harassment or sexual abuse is not capable of doing it. Clear case management and reporting systems could increase the number of reports by the victims if they feel it safe to report and their experiences are taken seriously.

Last point considering case management is the availability of resources if sexual abuse cases arise. As previous studies suggest, sport organisations are struggling with managing the safeguarding cases due to resources (Rhind et al. 2015). According to Parent (2011), the sport administrators responsible for prevention policies felt they were not competent enough to reach if a case would arise. Sport organisations are rarely equipped with special knowledge about handling sexual harassment or sexual abuse cases even if they would have a person hired for managing complaints and for

implementing policies. It would be beneficial that the organisations could utilise different resources and experts for managing the cases for example social services or other authorities. When there is criminal activity involved, the case is then no longer a responsibility of the organisation but a police matter.

Considering the factors influencing the implementation of measures on sexual abuse in sports, Parent and Demers (2011) focused on three key points. First, training the persons responsible for sexual abuse in the sports organisation. The importance of training and knowledge has been highlighted by previous research, when the sport stakeholders have found to have limited knowledge on the issue of sexual abuse (references). According to Parent and Demers (2011) this education should not only consider sport organisation but also the club level. Also, the access to resources and support can help organisation in the topic. Since lack of different resources has been identified as a major challenge for sports organisations to implement prevention policy, it is vital that they have the needed resources and can turn to the national sport governing body or other organisation for additional support. The factor of leadership means that for example the sport governing body provides leadership in the topic and assures that the prevention measures are regulated in the organisations (Parent & Demers, 2011).

I decided to use this model by Parent and Demers (2011) in this study, because the model is created based on the challenges that the sports organisations might face when implementing prevention policy and when managing the cases of sexual abuse. I think this model is a valuable framework for organisations to organise their priorities when implementing prevention policy on sexual harassment, sexual abuse, and other inappropriate behaviour in sports. It also offers me to assess the extent to which national floorball associations have implemented prevention policies in the context of sexual harassment and abuse and what factors could influence why the prevention policy has or has not been implemented by the associations.

4 METHODOLOGY

For my thesis, I investigated the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse in floorball in Europe and Asia Oceania. The aim was to explore prevention in national floorball associations to gain more understanding of their actions on sexual harassment and abuse prevention and the possible barriers and motives of these activities. The national associations were chosen because they are responsible for the sport in the national level and are in the position to advise clubs and athletes if the cases of inappropriate behaviour, such as sexual harassment or sexual abuse occur. The associations also oversee the elite level activities such as national team functions.

The topic of sexual harassment and abuse prevention in floorball was studied with the following two research questions:

- 1) To what extent have national floorball associations implemented preventive measures on sexual harassment and abuse?
- 2) What kind of motives, barriers, and facilitators can be identified when establishing a prevention policy?

Related to the first research question on prevention measures, the hypothesis that higher number of female employees or board members would increase the implementation of preventive measures was analysed. To answer the two research questions, both quantitative and qualitative data was needed. All data was primary and collected during this study.

4.1 Research design

The data presented in this thesis is based on quantitative survey on prevention measures and qualitative interviews with the association representatives who are responsible for prevention policies in the association. The qualitative interviews were conducted to gain more information of the facilitators that either promote the establishment of prevention policy or barriers that prevent the establishment. Also motives that could act as driver for policy implementation were investigated.

Ten national floorball associations were contacted in August 2020 to complete an online survey on prevention strategies on sexual harassment and abuse. These associations were chosen based on geographical spread and according to the IFF ranking. The IFF ranking is based on the past two past World Floorball Championships (IFF, n.d.). For example, the top four countries being Czech Republic, Finland, Sweden, and Switzerland were chosen in the study in addition to Australia, Norway, Singapore, Spain, and Ukraine. All the selected countries are included in top 30 of the ranking and here also the geographical spread was considered to select countries from Europe, Asia, and Oceania. Last responses for the survey were received in October 2020. No respondents were reached from one association and the response rate was finally 90% ($n = 9$).

The survey consisted of nine background questions that were either open ended or multiple-choice, twelve multiple-choice questions and seven questions that were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (see Appendix 1). In the twelve multiple-choice questions, the respondents were asked to evaluate the actions of preventing sexual harassment and abuse in their association either as *installed or exists*, *planned to install*, or *not installed and not planned*. Finally, the respondents were asked to evaluate their association's views on specific statements on a 5-point Likert scale.

Structured interviews were conducted with the association representatives, who were responsible for the topic of prevention of sexual harassment and abuse in the association or other topics such as club development or ethics. These respondents were chosen because they were experts of this topic in their association and had the most knowledge of the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse. The interviews focused on national framework, prevention policies of the association and managing the cases of sexual harassment and sexual abuse (Appendix 2). Nine persons took part in the interview. The mean duration was 38,70 minutes (minimum 24,92 minutes, maximum: 67,22 minutes). The interviewees had to accept the recording of the interview beforehand via signed form and the interviews were conducted online via Microsoft Teams or Skype.

Analysis of data

Before analysis, the survey dataset was checked for missing data. One question was left unanswered by one respondent and this was coded as not applicable. The survey data was analysed using statistical software SPSS and analysed using the Descriptive Statistics to first describe the associations and frequencies to investigate the number of preventive measures the associations have installed, planned to install, or not installed and not planned. The same methods were adopted for the other survey questions as well.

The interview data was first transcribed from the recordings and then edited so that all recognisable information could be changed. For example, the name of the country has been changed to [country] and name of the association to [association]. The same has been done to all other information that could make the association of the respondent recognisable. The interviews were analysed using content analysis and identifying themes and patterns from the interview data (e.g., Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013). The analysis involved both deductive and inductive processes since some of the of the themes were familiar from the theoretical framework and could be expected from the data. On the other hand, some themes were established directly from the data.

Justification of methods

I chose the mixed methods to gain as much knowledge of the implemented prevention strategies and motives, barriers and facilitators behind these strategies and prevention policy as possible. Similar setting was utilised for example by Hartmann-Tews et al. (2020), who conducted quantitative surveys and qualitative interviews when investigating prevention of sexual violence in the national sport federations in Germany. Without quantitative data, the question on the extent to which floorball associations have implemented prevention strategies could not have been answered fully. With a larger

sample size, the survey data could have been statistically measured. In case more associations would have been included in the study, the individual aspects and what those meant for each association would have been underestimated in the cost of generalisation.

Qualitative data offered valuable information on the issue of sexual harassment and abuse from an expert point of view, since the interviewees were people dealing with these issues. The utilisation of purposive sampling was beneficial to gain the required information from interviewees considering the topic of prevention policy (Robinson, 2014). This sampling method guaranteed that the respondents were able to explain the factors that are connected to the implementation of prevention policy in their association. According to Bogner, Littig, & Menz (2009), expert interviews can be advanced to situations, in which it would be difficult to gain access for example in taboo subjects. The topic of sexual harassment and abuse can be considered as a taboo topic in sports and interviewing someone who does not have knowledge of these issue might find it difficult or even impossible to discuss these themes. It was then important that the respondents with the needed knowledge could participate in the study. The interviews also offered information of the aspects, that most likely would have not been reported on the survey (e.g., managing previous sexual harassment and abuse cases). On the other hand, face-to-face interviews could have offered a possibility for better flowing conversation and observation of the respondents. In my research I had to utilise online survey and phone interviews (Microsoft Teams and Skype) since the respondents were from different countries and meeting face-to-face was not possible due to long distances and Covid-19 pandemic.

The approach that I chose contributed to new knowledge by showing the status of sexual harassment and abuse prevention in the national floorball associations and the motivation and challenges on policy implementation. Floorball is a relatively new sport and not much research has been conducted considering the sport. No international research exists related to sexual harassment or sexual abuse in international floorball. In the study by Lahti et al. (2020) floorball was named as one of the sports where sexual harassment was more common than in other Finnish competitive sports. This further increased the need to study preventive measures in floorball.

4.2 Floorball and the IFF

Floorball is an indoor team sport that has resemblance to field hockey and ice hockey. It is fast paced and relatively young sport, that has gained popularity worldwide. The International Floorball Federation (IFF) is the head organisation of the world floorball.

The federation was founded in 1986 in Huskvarna, Sweden by the national associations of Sweden, Finland, and Switzerland (IFF, n.d.a). IFF has a total of 74 Member Associations today. Member Associations are the national floorball associations that are responsible for the sport in their respective country. Floorball is very popular in the European countries where it is one of the most played sport. Northern Europe, Switzerland and Czech Republic have the largest number of players but in addition to Europe, floorball has spread around the world (IFF, n.d.a)

The aim of the IFF is to develop the sport and spread it around the globe. IFF also assists its Member Associations with concerns related to equipment, educates referees and organises major floorball events. The main events are the World Floorball Championships (WFC) that are organised annually. Men's World Floorball Championships is held every even year and the Women's WFC is held every odd year. Both events are played in December. The U19 World Floorball Championships are played every year in April-May. The Men's U19 WFC is played in the same year as the Women's WFC and Women's U19 WFC during the same year with the Men's WFC.

In addition to the IFF events, floorball has been featured in various multisport events. Floorball was an invitational sport at The World Games in 1997. In 2017, floorball featured in The World Games in Wroclaw, Poland as an official medal sport. Floorball is also an official sport in The World Games 2022 that will take place in Birmingham, USA. Floorball has also been on the programme for Southeast Asian Games (SEA) and appeared first as demonstration sport in 2013. In 2015 and 2019 floorball has been an official sport in the SEA. IFF and floorball have also received international recognition. IFF was fully recognised by the International Olympic Committee in 2011 and is an ordinary member of GAISF (General Association of International Sports Federations). IFF further cooperates with FISU and the World University Championships for Floorball are held every two years. (IFF, n.d.b).

4.2.1 Description of sport and its organisational frame

The benefit of floorball is, that it is easy to start. No previous experience is needed, and the needed equipment are shoes, stick and the ball. Floorball is an adaptable indoor team sport played on a 40 x 20 metres surface in a rink. The rink is built from a series of connected boards, made of plastic or wooden material. The height of the single board is 50 cm and corners are round. This way the ball stays in play and game flow is better. Each team has five players on the field and a goalkeeper in the rink at one time. The game is played with plastic sticks and a very light ball which has holes. Goalkeeper plays

without a stick but has a helmet, a jersey, goalkeeper pants and protective gear. (IFF, n.d.c).

The main objective in this team sport is the same as in the other team sport: to score more goals than the opponent. The official playing time is 3 x 20 minutes effective time. In tournaments and with young players, the game time can be for example 2 x 15 minutes. The playing format is open for adaptation and can be played with smaller goals or with less players. For example, 3 vs 3 format is a popular form when played in a smaller rink without a goalkeeper. In the international matches the rink size is the previously mentioned 40 x 20 metres and the goal is 160 x 115 cm. Fully equipped floorball rink includes marking on the floor: the center line, the center spot, two goalkeeper areas and the six face-off dots. The goal area is 4 x 5 meters and inside the goal area, there is an area of 1 x 2,5 meters, which is the goalkeeper area. This area is only for goalkeepers and not allowed for others. (n.d.c).

In addition to adaptability, floorball is a fast-paced sport that requires speed, strength, and skills. These attributes most probably make it popular amongst the youth. The physical requirements for the sport have also developed over time and elite players today need to be athletic, have good reaction and stick handling skills.

No violence is accepted in floorball and the accepted body contact is very minimal in the sport. That is since field players do not wear any protective layers. For example, pushing, tackling or obstructing the opponent is not allowed. For players under 18 years old, the use of eye protection is mandatory. When there is an offence, opponents are usually awarded a free hit but in case the offences are bad enough, those will be followed by 2-, 5-, 10-, minutes penalties or a red card. The player that has taken the penalty is not allowed to leave the penalty bench until his or her penalty has finished. The matches are led by two referees whose main tasks are to make the game safe and to run smoothly. They also accept the goals and decide the penalties (n.d.c).

When the players are more developed and have a certain number of skills, the role of tactics increases. In a match team have decided certain tactics beforehand, for fore-checking and defending. These reflect on the information that is available about the opponent team and their game style.

4.2.2 Sexual harassment and abuse in floorball

As previous research shows, sexual harassment and abuse are present in every sport. These issues have not been covered in international floorball, but floorball was included

as one of the sports in the harassment study in Finnish competitive sport by Lahti et al. (2020). The results indicated that floorball was one of the sports that had increasing factor on sexual harassment. No further analysis was conducted of the specific factors that could explain this finding. Some factors could be the culture of team sport and the perspectives of masculinity that have been discussed previously in this thesis in Literature review.

The IFF has not received formal complaints on sexual abuse or sexual harassment but it has established policy documents and advice for reporting considering the topic. These issues can be reported on the IFF website with the *IFF Complaint form*. IFF has also appointed Integrity Officer who can be reached via specific email. The contact link is also available on the IFF website. Finally, the IFF Ethics Commission examines the violations to the Code of Ethics after receiving a complaint form or on its own initiative and decides the possible measures. For example, the complaints on sexual harassment are examined according to the *IFF Sexual Harassment Policy*. The policy and guidelines have been in place since 2016 (IFF, 2016). According to the Guidelines for the work of the IFF Ethics Commission “The ETC has the power to conduct a preliminary investigation to assess whether a disciplinary procedure should be recommended” (IFF, n.d.d). Further the ETC must protect the identity of whistle-blowers, victims and witnesses and ensure the principles of natural justice. ETC then makes a recommendation of procedure to Disciplinary Committee but the recommendation of action is not binding.

As a leader of the young sport of floorball and as an international sport organisation, it is important for the IFF to gain information about the topic of sexual harassment and abuse to better understand the factors that influence the policy implementation in the Member Associations. On the other hand, IFF can act as the facilitator of the discussion about these topics and increase possible cooperation among members in the future. I will next provide information of the national framework of each association that participated in this study.

4.2.3 National frameworks

I will now focus on the nine countries whose national floorball associations are part of the study. Seven of these countries are from Europe and two from Asia-Oceania. It is important to notice the differences each country has in their sport system and their prevention policies before focusing solely on each country’s floorball association.

Australia

In Australia, the government agency responsible for sport is Australian Sports Commission (ASC). ASC is responsible for investing in and supporting physical activity and sport at all levels. The ASC is governed by a Board of Commissioners, appointed by the Minister for Sport (ASC, n.d.) The Board regulates the overall direction of the ASC and determines the allocation of resources. The ASC links two entities together, Sport Australia that is responsible for physical activity, participation and industry growth and Australian Institute of Sport, focusing on high performance sport (ASC, n.d.)

When it comes to safeguarding, Australia was one of the first countries to implement safeguarding policies to protect children. Also, the ASC has a Child Safe Policy, that provides information of certain definitions and related legislation (ASC, 2021). This policy is binding for all ASC stakeholders, for example board members, employees, contractors and any other organisation or individual that has given consent to be bound by the policy (ASC, 2021). On 26th of April 2018, the ASC also published a policy *Responding to Sexual Misconduct*. This policy guarantees that the ASC has a framework in place and can provide support to those experiencing sexual misconduct in the surveillance of ASC (ASC, 2018).

The Australian Floorball Association is responsible for floorball in the country. The number of licensed players is 1 346 (IFF, n.d.e).

Czech Republic

In Czech Republic, the main organisation responsible for prevention of sexual harassment in sport is the Czech Olympic Committee. It is representing the interests of Czech sport within the international Olympic Movement. In addition to promoting Olympic values, the Czech Olympic Committee manages the publicly beneficial activities to support Czech sport. (Czech Olympic Committee, n.d.a).

The Czech Olympic Committee took part in the preparation of IOC Guidelines to protect athletes from harassment and abuse in sport (Czech Olympic Committee, n.d.b). The Czech Olympic Committee also has an expert commission, focusing on the activity of women in the Czech sport, The Commission for Equal Opportunities in Sport. The Commission has been part of the Czech Olympic Committee since 1996. This Commission is also demanding equal status for women in sport, promoting women's sport in the media and preventing sexual harassment and violence in sport. (Czech Olympic Committee, n.d.b).

Czech Floorball is the national floorball association responsible for floorball. There are a total of 41 404 licensed floorball players in the country (IFF, n.d.e).

Finland

In Finland, the Ministry of Education and Culture is responsible for creating positive conditions for sports, physical activity, and sport policy development. It creates conditions for sport by financing the construction of sport facilities and by allocating funds. This is done in cooperation with diverse sectors. (Ministry of Education and Culture, n.d.). The ministry has since 2016 required sport organisations to have a gender equality and non-discrimination plan. This plan is required when applying for state funding. Although it is not legally binding for federations to address gender-based violence in their plans, it gives ministry the chance to discuss the topic with organisations and to assess their plans (European Commission, 2016).

The Finnish Olympic Committee is the umbrella organisation for all sport in Finland, from grassroots to elite sport (Finnish Olympic Committee, n.d.). The Finnish Olympic Committee is committed on increasing participation in physical activity and sports and ensuring successful performances in top level. The Committee is one of the key actors in safe sport, together with Finnish Center for Integrity in Sports (FINCIS) and The Family Federation of Finland. The Finnish Olympic Committee offers tools and other material for sport organisation on how to protect the athletes from sexual harassment. FINCIS is focusing on recognition and prevention of harassment in sports. The organisation is committed to developing best practices to prevent inappropriate behaviour in sports. FINCIS has for example conducted studies about sexual and gender-based harassment and bullying in competitive sports in Finland (FINCIS, n.d.).

You are not alone (Et ole yksin) is a project in which the aim is to prevent and decrease bullying, sexual harassment and all forms of violence in sport. The project offers support to anyone who has experienced any of the following (Et ole yksin, n.d.). They offer education and other material to sport federations and telephone and chat - services to the victims. The project is established by The Family Federation of Finland together with The Finnish Olympic Committee and FINCIS. (The Family Federation of Finland, n.d.). Seven sport federations are promoting and marketing the project and one of these is the Finnish Floorball Federation. There are around 51 118 licensed players in Finland (IFF, n.d.e).

Norway

In Norway, the supreme body of sport is the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF). It is responsible for the sport for all movement and ensuring all people the opportunity to practice sport (NIF, n.d.). NIF consists of around 2,100,000 memberships in the sports teams, 55 national sport

federations. In addition to providing opportunities to practise sport in Norway, NIF is also responsible for sports policy for all sports in the nation (NIF, n.d.a). This means that the NIF is working constantly to ensure safe sport for its members. The NIF has its own guidelines in place for prevention of sexual harassment and abuse in sports (2010). NIF also offers information on their website in case the person wants to report experiencing sexual harassment or abuse or other misconduct in sport or if they suspect someone has committed a crime (NIF, n.d.a).

The Norges Bandyforbund (NBF) is the national federation covering also Norwegian Floorball Association. There is a total of 9 037 licensed players in Norway (IFF, n.d.e).

Singapore

In Singapore, sport is one of the sectors in the Ministry of Culture, Community, and Youth (MCCY). Their vision is to inspire Singaporeans through their different sectors like arts and sports and to promote giving, strengthen community bonds and to engage youth (MCCY, n.d.). In their mission, the MCCY highlights the importance of the people and building a country that is “the best home for everyone”. Sport has a part to play in this mission (MCCY, n.d.)

Sport Singapore, formerly known as the Singapore Sports Council, is the MCCY’s Statutory Board, aiming to empower and inspire people for a better live through sport and transform Singapore through sport (MCCY, n.d.). In 2018, Sport Singapore launched the Safe Sport Commission, together with the Singapore Police Force and the Education and Social & Family Development ministries (Consultancy.asia, 17th October, 2019). The Commission was launched to tackle harassment, especially sexual misconduct occurring in sport. Sport Singapore has together with the Safe Sport Commission developed guidelines and policies aimed towards eliminating harassment and abuse in sport (Sport Singapore, n.d.).

On the 2nd of April 2018, 57 national sport associations, including the Singapore Floorball Association, Singapore national Olympic Council and Sport Singapore issued “Sport bodies say NO to sexual misconduct in Singapore” (Sport Singapore, 2018). The actors are committed to provide safe environments for their members and judge all forms of sexual harassment and inappropriate behaviour in sport.

Singapore Floorball Association is responsible for floorball in Singapore. There are total of 3 663 licensed players in Singapore (IFF, n.d.e).

Spain

In Spain, the sport is embodied in constitutions (Petry, Steinbach, & Tokarski, 2004). The responsible organisation is the Spanish High Council for Sport (Counsejo Superior de Deportes CSD). It is a national government agency, responsible for promotion and development of sports and physical activity of any kind including also top-level sport. The CSD also promotes the scientific research in sport and manages public policies in the field of sport facilities and other aspects of sport.

CSD has implemented a protocol against sexual violence in 2020. This protocol is meant to deepen the prevention and actions against sexual violence in sport and to promote awareness. This protocol is meant to be applied by the centres of high-performance sports and all other facilities at the CSD (CSD, 2020). CSD is also promoting and financing the campaign called “Child Sexual Abuse Stays Offside” together with Spanish Foundation helping to improve children’s lives through sport (Fundación Deporte Joven) and in collaboration with the UNICEF Spanish Committee. The campaign is aimed to detect and prevent the sexual abuse of children and adolescents in sport. As a part of the campaign, the CSD offers guides for prevention activities against child sexual abuse. The guides are provided in English and in Spanish for persons working together with children like coaches and teachers and are accessible on CSD website. The guides also stress the legal obligation to protect children from sexual abuse. (CSD, 2018).

The Spanish floorball association is responsible for floorball in the country. In total there are 885 licensed players in Spain (IFF, n.d.e).

Sweden

In Sweden, the Swedish Sports Confederation (Riksidrottsförbundet, RF) is the umbrella organisation for sports. The RF is supporting its member associations throughout Sweden and it is for example supporting and providing services to its 72 specialised sports federations, including the Swedish Floorball Federation (Svenska Innebandyförbundet). It is also leading the policy work in sport and it can give recommendations and guidelines for conducting cohesive sport (RF, 2021). The RF can also support associations with action plans. RF’s independent bodies can handle legal cases including doping violations and match fixing. The RF is also working with safe sports and has instructions for stakeholders if they confront crime or other activities that violate the RF statutes. The RF also has a specific policy and action plan against sexual harassment in sport and policy against sexual abuse in sport.

Swedish Floorball Federation has total of 105 719 licensed players (n.d.e).

Switzerland

In Switzerland, the Federal Office of Sport (BASPO), promotes exercise and sport for the entire population at all levels. BASPO is also committed to safe and fair sport including the prevention and sanctioning of sexual assault. They are supporting an Ethics Charter in sport, together with Swiss Olympic and Swiss sports associations (BASPO, n.d.). This charter is binding part of the statutes of every member association of Swiss Olympic (Swiss Olympic, n.d.a). One of the principles in the charter consider the actions against exploitation, violence, and sexual assault. The Swiss Olympic and the Federal Office of Sport have together launched a program “No sexual assault in sport” (in German *Keine sexuellen Übergriffe im Sport*), that offers information for associations, clubs, athletes, and coaches about prevention of sexual assault and action plans of how to act in case something happens (Swiss Olympic, n.d.b). The program for example mentions appointing a contact person to the club that manages the cases and represent the attitude against sexual assault. On the other hand, one way of prevention is mentioned to be checking applicants’ criminal records.

The responsible association for floorball in Switzerland is the Swiss Floorball Association (swiss unihockey). There are a total of 33 325 licensed players in the country (IFF, n.d.e).

Ukraine

The responsible body in the Ukrainian sports is the Ministry of Youth and Sports. The Ministry regulates the overall sports policy in the country and is responsible for measures that promote healthy lifestyle. The Ministry is also responsible for supporting the youth associations and the social development of children and youth (European Committee of the Regions, n.d.). The Ministry is also responsible for safe sport in Ukraine and has taken steps to strengthen this link with for example international cooperation.

Earlier this year, Ukraine became the 40th member state of Enlarged Partial Agreement on Sport of the Council of Europe (EPAS) (Council of Europe Portal, 2021). EPAS is providing a platform for cooperation in sport between the public authorities of EPAS member states. The agreement also strengthens the communication between sports federations, public authorities, and non-governmental organisations. EPAS further aims in making sport more inclusive and safer by contributing to better governance (Council of Europe portal, 2021). It was stressed in the press release of the Ministry of Youth and Sports that this development is very welcome as the Deputy Minister for the Ministry’s European Integration Andriy Chesnokov expressed gratitude

and emphasised the importance of protecting the ethical values in sports (Ministry of Youth and Sports of Ukraine, 2021). Among doping, manipulation and violence, the Strategy for the Development of Physical Culture and Sports identifies other negative phenomena in sports that should be resisted in sport. The strategy period continues until 2028. Ukraine is also in cooperation with the European Union in the field of youth and sport. The combat against threats in sport are included in the cooperation and one area is about combating violence (Ministry of Youth and Sports Ukraine, 2021).

Ukrainian Floorball Federation is responsible for floorball in the country. There currently 836 licensed floorball players in Ukraine (IFF, n.d.e).

5 RESULTS

5.1 Survey results

A total of nine respondents completed the survey. Five of the respondents were male and four were females. The age of the respondents varied from 28 years to 59 years and their experience in the respective floorball association from 2 years to 17 years. Five of the respondents held an executive or managing position in the association, three were employees and one was the board member of the association. Table 1 below shows more details of the association based on the number of employees.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of the national floorball associations (N = 9).

Descriptive statistics of the national floorball associations (N = 9)				
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Number of full-time employees	0	49	20.78	19.639
Number of female full-time employees	0	17	6.67	6.344
Number of board members	7	12	8.22	1.641
Number of female board members	0	5	1.33	1.581

The associations had on average 20.78 full-time employees (SD = 19.64) and the mean of number of female employees was 6.67 (SD = 6.34). On average, the associations had 8.22 board members (SD = 1.64) and 1.33 female board members (SD = 1.58).

The statistics of each prevention measure can be found from Table 2. The value of implementation received a score from 1 (not installed and not planned) to 3 (installed/exists). All associations had either installed or planned to install preventive

policies for sexual harassment and abuse. The most often installed actions by the associations were guidelines for team staff and volunteers and police record checks for employed staff. These had installed by 55.6% of the associations. Considering the finances, the associations either had a budget for sexual harassment and abuse prevention or did not have it in place or planned at all. Considering contact with juridical expert, majority of associations had this contact installed and same number of associations had not installed and not planned to install it. Although the associations had installed ethical guidelines and police record checks none of the associations had installed binding rules for team staff on how to interact with athletes. The instalment of education and training and including the topic in the contacts with team staff received the lowest percentages, 11.1% each.

Table 2: Status of implementation of actions to prevent sexual harassment and abuse in national floorball associations (descending order of percentages) [n = 9].

Status of implementation of actions to prevent sexual harassment and abuse in national floorball associations (descending order of percentage) [n = 9].

Action	Installed/ exists	Planned to install	Not installed and not planned	Not applicable
Does your association have ethical guidelines for team staff and volunteers in place?	55.6	22.2	22.2	
Does your association do police record checks for employed team staff working with children and adolescents?	55.6	11.1	33.3	
Does your associations have preventive policies in place for sexual harassment and abuse?	44.4	55.6		
Does your association have a specified person responsible for sexual harassment and abuse policies/cases?	44.4	22.2	33.3	
Are there sanctions and a juridical procedure for perpetrators of sexual harassment and abuse?	44.4	33.3	22.2	
Does your association have contact with a juridical expert available for legal assistance in case of sexual harassment and abuse allegations?	44.4	11.1	44.4	
Does your association have guidelines or procedures for dealing with sexual harassment and abuse allegations and possible cases?	33.3	55.6	11.1	
Is there information available concerning the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse (e.g., on the website, meetings or in brochures)?	33.3	55.6	11.1	
Does your association have a budget for the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse?	22.2		66.7	11.1
Does your association offer education and training programs on sexual harassment and abuse to stakeholders (e.g. to clubs, national teams, team staff and parents)?	11.1	33.3	55.6	
Is the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse included in contracts with team staff?	11.1	44.4	44.4	
Are there binding rules for team staff on how to interact with athletes (e.g., concerning body contact, locker room access and national team events)?		44.4	55.6	

To answer the question on what extent the national floorball associations have implemented prevention measures for sexual harassment and abuse the associations were ranked according to their installed preventive measures. The average number of installed prevention measures was 4 (SD = 3.46). Two associations had not implemented any prevention measures on sexual harassment and abuse. For four associations, the number of installed measures was above average and varied from 5 to 9. None of the associations had installed all the prevention measures.

The respondents also had a possibility to name other prevention measures their association had planned to install or installed. One respondent answered that they had not installed any prevention measures and stated that regardless of this, they are referring to the guidelines set by their national governing body of sports. This respondent further explained they are balancing the coaching staff with both female and male representatives. One respondent stated that they had more preventive strategies planned and in action by the association. The association was for example planning the whistle-blower function. This respondent also reported that the association board and staff would undergo education in equal opportunities.

Although the question of to what extent the associations have implemented prevention measures was resolved, it was interesting to have look how the situation changes if counting the frequencies for both installed actions and actions that were planned (see Figure 4). On average, the associations had installed or planned to install 6.67 prevention measures (SD = 2.40). All associations had planned to install at least one prevention measure for sexual harassment and abuse. Since there were two associations that had not installed any prevention measures, these two associations had still planned to install some prevention measures on sexual harassment and abuse.

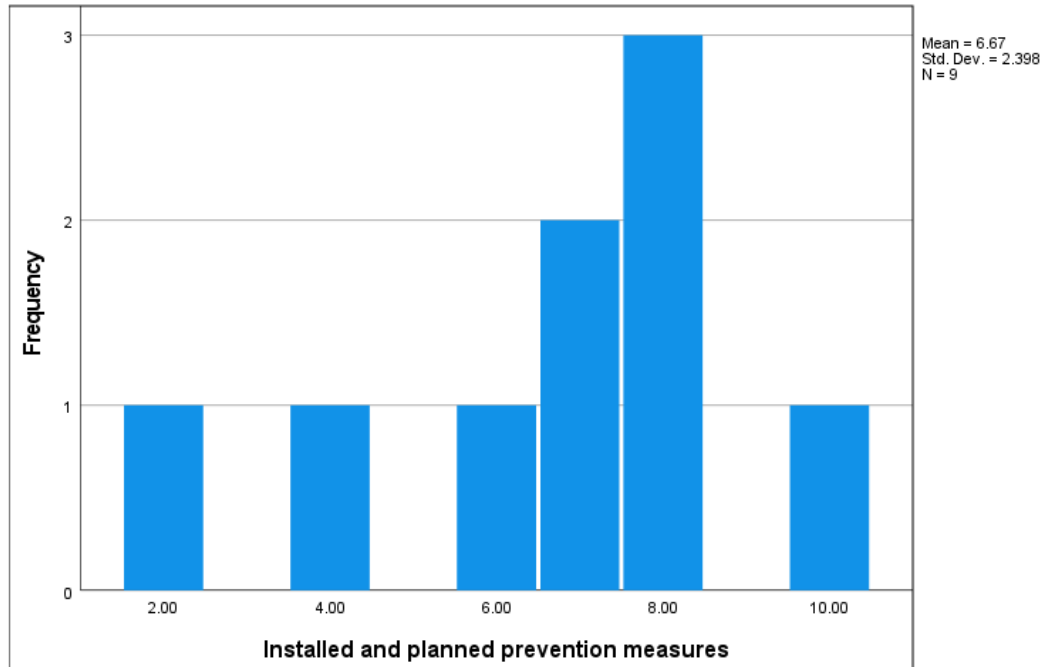


Figure 4: Number of installed and planned prevention measures.

Related to the questions of implemented prevention measures, the hypothesis that higher number of female employees or board members would increase the implementation of preventive measures was investigated. Since the sample size was too small, the Bivariate Pearson Correlation could not be utilised to evaluate the relationship (Bujang, 2016). Still, some assumption of the relationship can be formed when looking at the installed prevention measures and the number of female full-time employees and board members. The relationship was slightly positive considering the relationship between female full-time employees and installed prevention measures and the associations that had more female full-time employees had on average installed more prevention measures than the associations who had none or less females as full-time employees. An exception to this was the association who had a total of 17 female full-time employees but no installed prevention measures. Considering the female board members and installed prevention measures, the relationship was not that positive. The associations had far less female board members ($M = 1.33$) than female full-time employees ($M = 6.67$). I would argue that the number of female full-time employees will more likely have a positive relationship with the implementation of prevention measures on sexual harassment and abuse than the number of female board members. This partly supports the initial hypothesis. I will present possible reasons for this statement in the Discussion section.

The second part of the survey was to evaluate the values and resources of the associations considering sexual harassment and abuse prevention. The statistics of these answers (see Table 3) show that most of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with the statements. None of the respondents strongly disagreed with the presented statements. 77.8% of the respondents agreed that prevention of sexual harassment and abuse is an important issue for their association. 66.6% of the respondents felt that their association has a sufficient knowledge to create and implement prevention policies. The statement considering support from the IFF had the most variety among respondents. 55.5% agreed having enough support while 11.1% were neutral, same number disagreed and 22.2% did not know.

Table 3: Evaluation of the motives and resources considering prevention of sexual harassment and abuse

Evaluation of the motives and resources considering prevention of sexual harassment and abuse (N = 9)

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I do not know
Prevention of sexual harassment and abuse is an important issue for our association.	55.6	22.2	22.2			
Our association has sufficient knowledge to create and implement policies and procedures to prevent sexual harassment and abuse.	22.2	44.4	11.1	22.2		
Our association has sufficient support from the IFF to manage sexual harassment and sexual abuse in floorball.	22.2	33.3	11.1	11.1		22.2
Sexual harassment and abuse are relevant issues in the sport of floorball.	22.2	33.3	33.3	11.1		
Our association has sufficient policies and procedures to manage sexual harassment and abuse.	11.1	44.4	22.2	22.2		
Our association has sufficient financial resources to create and implement policies and procedures that prevent sexual harassment and abuse.	11.1	44.4	22.2	22.2		
Our association has sufficient human resources to create and implement policies and procedures to prevent sexual harassment and abuse.	11.1	44.4	22.2	22.2		

When analysing different resources, the respondents most often agreed on having sufficient resources for implementing policies and procedures to prevent sexual harassment and abuse in floorball. Five respondents agreed on having sufficient financial resources for creating and implementing prevention policies and procedures for sexual harassment and abuse (see Figure 5). Two respondents were neutral considering financial resources and two respondents disagreed on having sufficient finances for prevention.

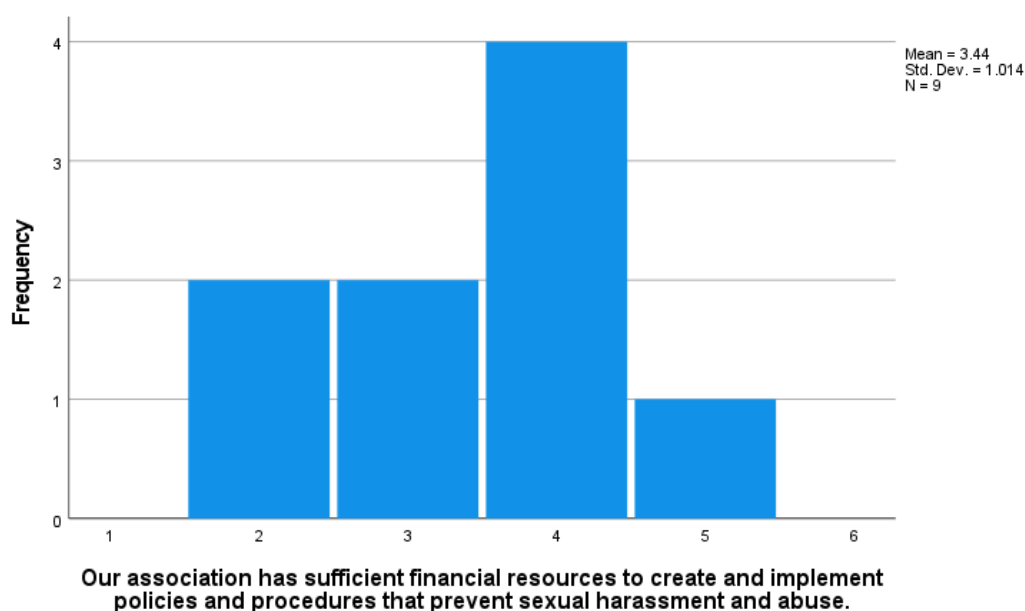


Figure 5: Financial resources evaluated by the respondents.

Similarly to financial resources, 2/3 of the respondents agreed on having sufficient knowledge for creating and implementing preventive policies and procedures. Two respondents disagreed and one evaluated the status of knowledge being neutral. The respondents also evaluated their sufficient human resources similarly. Five respondents agreed their association had sufficient human resources for sexual harassment and abuse prevention. Two respondents disagreed and two evaluated the situation neutral. The question about the support from the IFF caused the most variance among the answers (see Figure 6). Still the support from the IFF to manage sexual harassment and sexual abuse in floorball was seen sufficient by five respondents. One respondent disagreed and two answered “I do not know”.

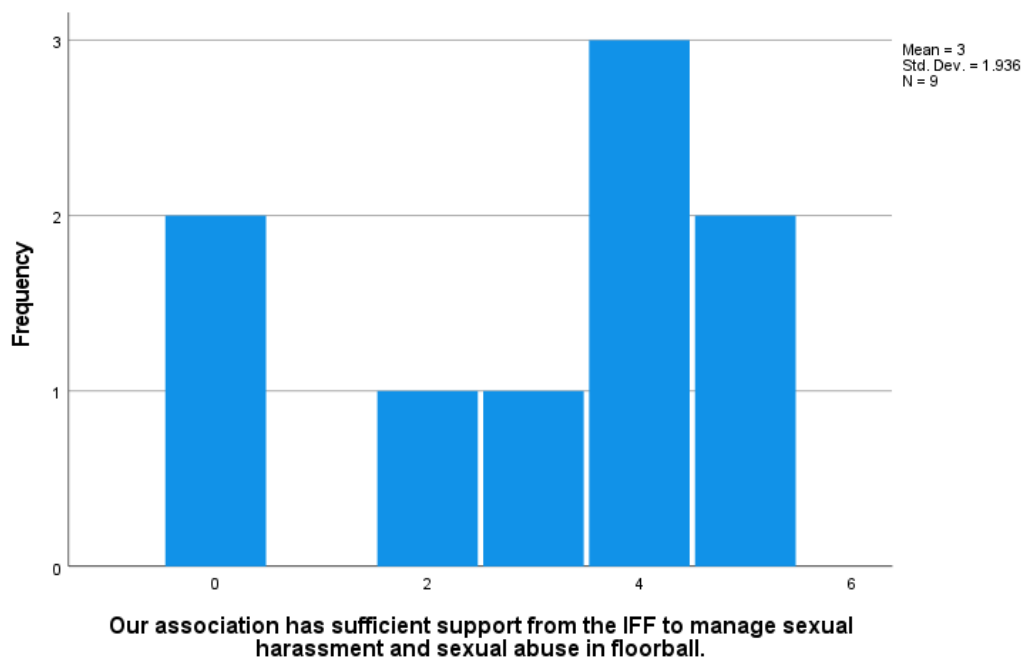


Figure 6: Support from the IFF evaluated by respondents.

The respondents were also asked on what kind of further support they would appreciate from the IFF to manage sexual harassment and abuse in floorball. One of the respondents suggested an online seminar with practical tips and material about the topic that could be translated and used by the associations. One respondent felt that there is no need for further support but joint recommendations and communication among the sports community would be beneficial. This respondent highlighted the relevance of the shared message from the floorball community. One respondent felt that the IFF needed to take more responsibility for gender equality and require national policies, development programs and demands considering both gender equality and sexual harassment and abuse from the IFF Member Associations. This respondent also felt that the IFF board

should implement gender equality and saw the work for gender equality as a step closer to work with sexual harassment and abuse.

5.2 Interview results

A total of nine respondents took part in the interview. Five of them were male and four females. The average age of the respondents was 47.2 years (minimum 21, maximum 60). The respondents had different positions in the national floorball association. Two of them were in the managing position in the association, one of them was a board member, and six respondents had positions of an employee. The employees were responsible for various topics like development, national teams, or legal issues. The average time being in the current position was 4.42 years (maximum 14, minimum 2 months).

Out of the nine associations, three were required to have a prevention policy on these issues or general framework that also included these topics (full interview transcripts available on Appendix 3). For one association this requirement had just been placed and they had to establish a policy soon. For one association that had not yet prevention policy in place and it was not yet required, expected that it might be coming obligatory. Considering the connection to funding, only one association was required to have prevention policy on these issues to receive funding. Two respondents were not sure about the funding and one respondent thought that this could be required in the future to receive funding. For one respondent, there were no requirements since they were not included in the recognised federations.

Considering the past cases of sexual harassment or sexual abuse, six associations had knowledge of past cases. The maximum number of cases was three per association. The cases varied from verbal sexual harassment like comments to physical sexual abuse and from the border of criminal activity to conviction and imprisonment. In the most severe cases, the perpetrators had been banned from floorball and in one case also from other sports in the country.

I will next present the themes from the interview data. These are divided into three sections: motives, barriers, and facilitators.

Motives

When asked about driving factors and reasons for implementing prevention policy, most of the respondents named the theme of safeguarding. This included keeping the safe sport, protecting everyone involved from such behaviour and prevention of these kind issues. One of the respondents stated that their driving force was to “make the sport safe and keep the sport safe from this sort of behaviours” (Respondent 1). Other respondent

agreed on this aspect of safeguarding and saw that it starts from wanting that “practising sport is kept safe.” (Respondent 3). Similarly, one respondent named the theme of safe sport and that their motivation to implement prevention policies is that “we have a completely safe environment for everyone” (Respondent 2). The main priority for many associations was to provide safe sport for everyone involved in floorball. One respondent highlighted especially the protection of kids and named having kids secure as their biggest driver. Protecting kids was the reason to implement prevention policies, because the respondent saw that “they can’t handle it themselves” (Respondent 5). This respondent also highlighted that negative things could have bigger impact on children and that it happening to them is “a lot more common unfortunately”.

Protecting the image of sport was also mentioned as the cases of sexual harassment and abuse could be damaging for the sport. One respondent stated that especially when being a new sport “any little thing will be terrible” (Respondent 4). Protection of players and participants was this way also connected to protecting the integrity of sport. One respondent connected being safe to “knowing your roles and the way you could behave and should behave” (Respondent 8). Ensuring safe sport through prevention policies is about clear rules on what is appropriate behaviour and what is not. Everyone should also understand what constitutes as sexual harassment or sexual abuse so they can act in an appropriate way but to also recognise situations where these issues are present and intervene.

The respondents also mentioned that they want to prevent these kinds of cases. Prevention of these cases is a way to reach safe sport and to protect athletes and everyone else involved. With implementing prevention policy, the respondent felt that these cases could be avoided or diminished from sport. One respondent highlighted that by having prevention policy on most severe things like sexual harassment and abuse, it could help on getting rid of other negative issues that are present in the culture of sport:

„Yea, I truly believe that. If you are working towards a goal where the most severe things should be erased on your way to that goal, you also will get rid of a lot of other stuff that you don't want in your sport even if that isn't sexual abuse but it's still something in the culture that we would like to get rid of. And I don't know how much that is, I don't know how I should grade it or name it but everyone knows that you don't just have sexual abuse, you have a lot of stuff you don't want in your culture” (Respondent 2).

As this respondent suggests, the topic of sexual abuse is included in the most severe issues that can take place in sports and in floorball. On the other hand, there many for

example sport specific issues that are often addressed first in the sport like doping or match fixing. Other negative aspects of the sport culture were highlighted also by associations that had a broader view on prevention and on safe sport. Sexual harassment and abuse prevention is often linked to the general framework and it is not necessarily a separate issue although it requires definitions and even more understanding than for example doping.

The theme of responsibility was also present in the interviews and perceived as a motive and reason to implement prevention policy. Responsibility was linked to the task of the association to provide safe sport. This responsibility was highlighted by one respondent who thought that if the association does not have prevention policies in place and something happens, it is the failure of the organisation:

„ I think we have got a legal responsibility to protect our players. If we don't have things in place, if we don't have things in place to protect the player and something happens, players, administrators or others involved in the sport, if we don't have things in place, it puts the people at risk, but it also puts the organisation at risk for failing to provide a safe sport” (Respondent 1).

This respondent highlights on the other hand the risk for the players and other stakeholders but also to the associations. The consequences for individuals who experience abuse or harassment in sport can be very damaging. By failing to provide safe sport, the organisation also fail to provide leadership and the cases can damage the image of the sport as was noted previously in the context of safeguarding.

Creating an environment that is free from all forms of harassment, abuse, and bad behaviour, was seen as the responsibility of the association. The associations also felt that responsibility of these topics is expected from the outside and they would like to fulfil these expectations by acting in a responsible manner. They also highlighted that being responsible would not be done in the cost of safe sport, but that safe sport was still the priority. One respondent for example felt that even though safe sport is the priority of the association, they would like to be considered “as a serious established part of the society” (Respondent 2). This respondent thought that they have a responsibility towards the society and fulfilling the expectations that are set outside of sport. Similarly, one respondent felt that they must “show everyone that these are matters that we take really seriously” (Respondent 6). One respondent felt that these prevention policies are part of the “good governance” (Respondent 9). This highlights that the topic of sexual harassment and abuse prevention are also linked to the public image of the association. Association who takes these issues seriously, is most likely a preferred partner for

sponsors but also for new players. Linking the topic to good governance further shows the importance that this topic has considering responsibility but also different other values like transparency in its actions.

Responsibility and taking the issues seriously also considered the management of possible cases. The associations felt that their responsibility was to handle the cases and not hide them. One respondent described this by stating that they would not drop the topic easily and “just hide the cases” but that that they “have to get to the bottom of them” (Respondent 6). Responsibility was seen on the other hand important when ensuring the safe environment and safe sport but also as acting on the cases if those would occur.

Some of the respondents also highlighted the pressure from the national sport governing body or from the other organisations as the driving factor. One respondent felt that the national sport governing body should have put pressure on them, considering the topic of sexual harassment and abuse prevention. According to this respondent “it would have been good for us if they put that pressure on us” (Respondent 2). The respondent was not expecting pressure not only for their association, but generally for sports federations in the country because knowledge of this topic was not good enough in any sport in the country.

The association of one respondent had just started receiving education from the national sport governing body focusing on safe sport. This respondent felt that “the government enforcement is one of the key factors” for them (Respondent 7). The pressure from the governmental body in this case meant that the association had started to focus more on the topic because they were required to do so. This respondent further mentioned that some of the national sports had created their own framework already. One of associations that had not yet implemented any prevention policies on sexual harassment and abuse also saw the pressure coming from outside organisation as a driving factor. The respondent stated that they will have it in place if they are required by those who “actually provide the funding” (Respondent 9). This respondent also added that this kind of policy could be required by the IFF and if IFF would require it from its Member Associations, it “would be also one of the drivers”. For these two associations the governmental enforcement would mean that they can prioritise the topic in the association and focus on it more. On the other hand, the position and responsibility of the IFF was mentioned here as an organisation who could put more pressure on its Member Associations and require these policies from the associations.

On the contrary, the governmental enforcement did not have importance for most of the associations that had implemented prevention policy on sexual harassment and abuse without obligations from the national sport governing body. The governmental enforcement or pressure from other organisations might be more important for the associations that do not yet have policy, because it might give them a reason to implement those. This kind of obligation can further motivate the associations to focus on this topic and to start working with it. Still, the governmental enforcement is not the driving factor for other associations.

Raising awareness and education was named as the final motive for prevention policy. The respondent perceived their associations as educators of this topic. The respondents thought that it is important to educate everyone on this topic and let people know that these issues exist. Education was seen as the main responsibility of the association. One respondent highlighted that it is the responsibility of the association “to make this issue more known” (Respondent 2). It was important to get this knowledge especially to the clubs and players. This respondent further stated that there are people that know nothing and people who know everything and that the association has a lot of levels they could “try to step up on”, educating especially parents and kids of these topics. One respondent connected the education specially to reporting and that the association can be better in educating the athletes of what they can do if they experience sexual harassment or abuse in sport, even “if it is rumours” (Respondent 6). It is important that players and others report also possible harassment and abuse even they would not experience it themselves or witness it. It should then be the responsibility of the club or association to decide upon if the case requires outside investigation by authorities or other organisations. So, while education is a driver and motive for the associations, the associations also felt that they can do better when it comes to education and informing the stakeholders. One respondent especially highlighted that they will educate their stakeholders by describing the possible situations that that are considered as sexual harassment and sexual abuse.

One respondent highlighted the education of the participants and that the coaches should be taught to teach the player “the right attitude” (Respondent 7). Similarly, the coaching education was seen important by another respondent. This respondent thought that educating the coaches would have a “big meaning” (Respondent 3). Coaches are in positions where they can recognise harassment or abuse situations and possibly intervene. The answers of the respondents also displayed that the education should be targeted to all stakeholders in sport, not only players. The education of these issues on

the other hand, give better tools to recognise harassment and abuse, to report it and possibility to intervene.

Barriers

Five different themes could be found from the interview data. First and most often mentioned challenge was the lack of resources. Respondents often mentioned the lack of time, staff, and knowledge. Prioritising was also seen as a challenge by some respondents. The respondent of one association that had not implemented any prevention policies felt that implementation is a “difficult process” and that it needs a lot of time and someone to make it happen (Respondent 9). On the contrary, another respondent saw the implementation just as “a matter of process”, which would not cause any challenges for the association (Respondent 1). Also, this association had not prevention policy in place for sexual harassment and abuse, but they had received basic documents from the national sport governing body to establish their own framework. This could cause the difference between the respondents since Respondent 9 did not have knowledge of what kind of assistance they could be receiving for implementation. The implementation then seems as a challenge since the association does not have any framework what they would need to establish considering these topics.

The respondent also referred to the topic as something that needs human resources to handle it. The short of staff was for example highlighted by one respondent, who stated that sometimes it is a bit difficult “to really roll out our full force” (Respondent 7). This respondent felt that there can only be stages of improvement by their association because of the limited staff. Considering the improvement little by little, another respondent also felt that they are “making only little steps” considering this topic (Respondent 8). This respondent further felt that improving by small steps considers not only sport but also the whole country in this topic. This association had not been able to focus on prevention policy or other issues since their focus had been on developing the sport. Therefore, the prevention policy had not been prioritised because sport related things required more focus. Also, another respondent felt that the implementation is just the “questions of prioritising” and they need to reach a certain level before they are able to invest their “time and focus on such a thing” (Respondent 9). The associations who do not yet have prevention policy should first prioritise it as an important question that needs focus before, they can start working on it. On the other hand, in another association where the general framework for safe sport existed, the respondent felt that the topic is not a prioritised question or an area “in a normal working week or working month” (Respondent 2). Since this framework is not seen as the core of the sport similarly

to competitions and events for example, it is not necessarily an integrated part of the everyday life of the association. At the same the topic would need active focus and work. Some respondents felt that having information only on the website is not enough. One respondent then stated that having information on the website is “almost the same as nothing if the topic is not actively processed in the club” (Respondent 3). Although this considered the processing in the club, it should be made a the priority and integral part of the club activities and but also the activities in the association.

There also respondents that did not perceive resources as challenges for implementation. One respondent thought that although lack of time and knowledge are challenges, those are not “severe difficulties” (Respondent 5). The association of this respondent was receiving to some extent a lot of support from the national sport body, especially considering the reporting. The national sport body had established a platform for reporting, so it meant that the cases were not brought directly to the association anymore. Similarly, another respondent felt that they had not enough knowledge or “a great system” before they started receiving education through the national sport body (Respondent 6). These associations felt that they had received the needed resources for handling the topic in the association because of the support they had received from their respective national sport bodies.

The implementation and the topic of sexual harassment and abuse prevention were seen as challenging but also the case management was perceived as a process that requires time and workforce. One respondent felt that although the topic would not take much time itself, it requires a lot of time and resources, like lawyers or something else if there is a case (Respondent 5). Another respondent had a similar feeling that the case management was “really time consuming” (Respondent 6). These respondents had been personally involved in the cases that had taken place in floorball and could reflect on the resources that are needed for these situations. For associations who have not had any cases it can be difficult to on the other hand recognise the needed resources and to estimate the workload if there is a case of harassment or abuse brought to the association. Case management often requires resources outside the association, and it can be sometimes difficult to recognise the right resources that are needed. For example, one respondent mentioned asking advice from outside organisations when there had been situations of bullying reported to the association and the existing expertise had not been enough. This respondent also thought that it always requires a human resource for handling the cases and suggested an establishment of specific “helpline” for these topics to ask for advice (Respondent 3).

The respondents also felt that clubs are experiencing similar challenges to the ones they are facing as the associations. For example, one respondent felt that in the club level it is difficult “to have the knowledge about these things and have the time to work with it” (Respondent 2). Another respondent summarised the lack of resources and the question of priority as something that is shared both by the association and the clubs when it comes to the topic of prevention policy:

„So, I think that these same elements are present in the association and in the same way in the clubs. So, I think that why something is stopping these things then it’s not necessary the people don’t want to grab it but there’s maybe more that lack of expertise and then it’s a question of priority in a way and then in some cases those connect so when you can’t quite do it, then it would require more time and then it is more a question of priority” (Respondent 3).

On the other hand, the associations that had not yet implemented prevention policies on sexual harassment and abuse or they were in the progress of starting the implementation, named that they would be needing certain resources to start the implementation. The respondents mentioned for example that they would need staff and someone to help them through the process, that they would need guidance from the national sport governing body and knowledge in the forms of best practices or content. Also, the associations that had implemented could mention the theme of resources and see the lack of resources as a challenge but that did not only consider implementation but was shown more as a general challenge that was present considering the topic of prevention.

The respondents also mentioned distance as challenging factor. Respondents perceived the association as a distant organisation which was too far to reach the players and the clubs. On the other hand, the association was seen distant in reaching players and clubs with the information of this topic but on the other hand, too distant to recognise harassment or abuse. For example, one respondent saw that it is hard to make the information go through all the way to the player and make sure something is implemented by the club organisation:

„What I see as a challenge here is in a way that between us and the individual athletes, there is still the club organisation so passing that, there is quite a... that the information from us really flows to the individual player. Or some formula really genuinely comes into practice in the club” (Respondent 3).

The challenge of distance was strongly linked to the responsibilities. While associations cannot reach the players and are too distant, it is the responsibility of the clubs to really

put the prevention policy into practise. At the same time, the associations recognised their responsibility in creating the framework for the sport and in creating the needed policies. The practical implementation and education of individual players would then belong to the clubs. One respondent perceived that the association is responsible on the prevention in the national level while the clubs can reach out more players “in the ground” (Respondent 7). Another respondent also highlighted the fact that it is impossible for the association to “be the ones that really makes the change” and that it is “fairly impossible to be the ones that are making it happen in the clubs” (Respondent 2). While associations are too hard to reach the players with the needed information, they are also too far to notice harassment or abuse happening in the club.

One respondent felt that the distance could also affect the reporting and that the association does not receive the information of the cases. This respondent felt that on the other hand the threshold for reporting is still very high which causes probably that a lot of the cases “are left unheard” (Respondent 3). The association is unable to help the players and the clubs if the information of the cases does not reach the association. So, the distance goes in both ways, on the other hand association is too far to notice harassment or abuse or to make a practical difference in the clubs but also the distance is felt by the associations that they would not know if something would happen. This would require stronger connection with the clubs. On the other hand, some of the respondents pointed out that being a small sport and knowing everybody helps them to get the information if something happens. One respondent described this as “the story goes” (Respondent 2). This way the information of the cases will reach the association at one point, but not necessarily at the point when the case has been uncovered in the club.

National team players seemed to be an exception to the barrier of distance, at least to some extent. For example, two respondents stated that their national team players are informed and aware of the reporting procedure of sexual harassment and abuse. This means that the national team players might be in some cases offered more information than recreational level players, from who the association feels distant from.

The respondents also felt that the culture of sport or culture in general was challenging for implementing prevention policies. Some respondents highlighted the issue that the topic of sexual harassment and sexual abuse is not recognised in their culture. For example, one respondent felt the topic of sexual harassment is something which is “a bit underestimated or even ridiculed” in the culture (Respondent 9). This respondent further thought that implementation of these policies would require justification from the

association and explanation on what is the benefit of it since it might feel threatening for the people in the country. Similarly, another respondent felt that the lack of awareness by the community could possess a challenge for implementation of prevention policies:

„If to speak about the future, I think that we will develop it in a near future and the problems with that which we could have, I think that the biggest moment will be maybe to understand what is the harassment, what is abuse and what kind of situations could be describe that because like, because the way that we do not know actually, do people know about it or not” (Respondent 8).

The respondents who felt the culture was the obstacle for the association to implement prevention policy also mentioned the influence of the culture on reporting. Two of the respondents were reflecting on the character of the people in the culture and that they would not report or share their experiences of sexual harassment and abuse. One of these respondents was reflecting on how the association could encourage people to report those incidences, although due to the culture, they would not want to share their experiences. If the topic of sexual harassment and abuse is underestimated in the culture and people are silenced by it, it causes more difficulties for stakeholders in sport to recognise harassment or abuse or intervene. Non-reporting does not end the abuse or harassment, but it silences the victims while perpetrators are not held accountable for their actions. The association cannot change the culture, but they can start by changing the culture in their sport.

The challenge of authority was linked mostly to the case management. One third of the respondents felt that the perpetrators could be changing sport or changing clubs possesses a challenge. One respondent thought the perpetrators have had to change from club to another because someone there could tell that “it’s something wrong here” (Respondent 2). If the case does not go as far as if the person is not convicted, he or she can go to another club and “behave bad as well”. The same challenge was mentioned by two more respondents. One respondent also highlighted that the perpetrators move from area to another or from city to another. According to this respondent “they move because then it is harder to catch them, and they move in sports” (Respondent 5).

Perpetrators moving from sport to another has challenges for the associations. Respondent 6 stated one of the challenges regarding which is that the national floorball association is only eligible to ban people from floorball but from other sports. If broader sanctions are required, the case has then to be brought to the national sport governing

body as they had done. This had resulted a life ban from sports for one perpetrator. It also causes challenges for the sports who know the perpetrator but cannot warn other sports or clubs about it. One respondent felt that this was an issue since they would have the knowledge of these people in floorball, but they cannot warn other sports. One of the cases that the association had had before, was solved because there was a witness who had knowledge that this person had done similar in other sports. Associations are not necessarily in the position to stop a club from using specific coach or personnel. One respondent mentioned that they are not able “to tell a club that they have to stop using a coach” (Respondent 2). This responsibility was left to the clubs.

It was also a difficulty to keep perpetrators of abuse or harassment away from sport until they are convicted. This difficulty was demonstrated by one of the respondents, who had experience from a case where the perpetrator of abuse would not stay away from sports until he was convicted. The respondent felt that they did not receive help for keeping this person away from their sport:

„It's the problem when you have a case that has happened within our sports, we go to the police, they investigate and then we kind of at the same time file the case within the sport body, they always wait for the courts to finish the case and firstly, after that they will take the decision. So, it's kind of, it's often difficult to keep these people away from the sports until they are convicted. And that was surely the most difficult thing because this person, he was not in jail while the case was investigated and it was really hard to keep him away from our sports and there were no help from anybody, not from the police, not from, it's impossible to shut them completely out of the sports and as I recall this was, this ended up like, so that this person who was being suffering these sexual harassment or this case, this person stayed away from the sport until the case was finished and the person was in prison and then came back” (Respondent 6).

The lack of authority and at the same time the lack of assistance meant in this case that the person who had experienced the harassment had to stay away from sports not to meet the harasser. Since experiencing misconduct in the form of harassment, the athlete should not have to leave the sport because of the perpetrator, but it should be the perpetrator leaving sport. Since the case management can take a while, the association might have wait for the sanctions some time which does not make these situations easier for them.

The theme of authority was also seen through contradiction between the regulations by the association and the national laws. One respondent highlighted that they had had cases which in the “border of criminal” (Respondent 2). This respondent highlighted the difficulty to implement internal regulations if those are not in accordance with the national laws:

„And in one case, if I'm not remembering it wrong they had a real relationship and of course to have an, if you are 17 years old and you have a relationship, you are still a kid within the [national] laws, but you are allowed to have sex because you are allowed to have sex with someone when you are 15, but of course if I would be a parent to a 17-year-old boy or girl who are starting a relationship with a 35-year-old male who is coach in the club, I would see that as on the border of criminal even if it's perhaps not possible(..)” (Respondent 2).

Even if the clubs or associations would like to implement stricter rules considering coach-athlete relationship and intimacy in that relationship, it is difficult if, according to law, those are allowed. Also, in case the relationship is consensual, there is not much that the club and especially the association can do to change it although they would perceive these kinds of relationships inappropriate.

Facilitators

Some general facilitators for the prevention policies implementation were identified from the interview data. These include cultural change, assistance, and responsibility balance. The cultural change illustrates the positive change of the sport culture that could facilitate the implementation of prevention policy. One of the changes was the discussion on other societal topics that had been included in sport. These were for example the discussions around the topics of transgender, gender equality and integrity. Two respondents identified that the themes of gender equality or more women in sports as players or in managing positions were currently highlighted in their national sports now. On the other hand, the respondents recognised a change in the culture considering the topic of sexual harassment and abuse. One respondent felt that the conversation culture is now more open and makes these kinds of discussions possible:

„Yes, and then in way it becomes a bit, that I feel the conversation culture has changed so that if something has to be raised then that's not the same as we would have a problem with this thing but that we can do and raise these things into conversation without us having a problem with it and it is understood that we have a problem if we won't do anything about it” (Respondent 3).

Previously talking about these topics would have caused denial or questioning in the clubs but now the topic was understood better than before. Since the topics of sexual harassment and abuse have been covered by other institutions, it might be easier to understand that these issues can occur in sport as well. The topic being visible on the media and the #MeToo movement have also increased awareness of these issues. This was highlighted by one respondent who thought that the #MeToo campaign is a really good proof “that the bar from what has been ok, obviously not ok but something that you won’t report, has been lowered so, I hope that in the future, people won’t in the same number experience these things” (Respondent 6). Change in culture and increase awareness of what constitutes as sexual harassment and abuse can further lower the bar for reporting.

This cultural change was also related to the case management. Some respondents highlighted the change in how these kinds of cases would have hidden in the past but not anymore. On the other hand, they also focused on their own responsibility and how they would not hide the cases. As the general culture in society consisted as challenge for some associations, the change in sport culture on how these issues are discussed and how the cases are handled might facilitate the process of prevention policy in national sports and in the national floorball associations.

Many associations that had prevention policy in place or that were about to establish one, had received assistance from an outside organisation. The organisation assistance includes on the other hand the assistance received from the national sport governing body, the IFF or another organisation. On the other hand, it highlights the need that the associations who are struggling with the implementation, would need best practices, information, and guidance that were expected to be received from the national sport body.

The assistance came in various forms. Some respondents mentioned that they had received material and framework. One association got information through focus group discussion and the increased amount of dialogue that the national governing body had started with the sports federations in the country. The association of one respondent had adopted the specific IFF policy on the topic and felt that IFF is the best assistant for them in this topic. Other respondent also thought that they will utilise the IFF policy in the association. There were also two associations who were receiving a load of assistance from the national sport bodies. One respondent mentioned that their employees were educated, and they had two persons assigned to handle this topic with

the association. Another respondent talked about the close cooperation with the national sport body and felt that the assistance had taken off pressure from them:

„And this is also a huge help because I'm of course not professional on these questions doesn't matter what, I'm professional in floorball not in this and that helps a lot and takes also away some pressure because sometimes they don't address things to the association, but they might be addressing it to somebody neutral (...)" (Respondent 5).

Last facilitator for the successful prevention policy is the responsibility balance. This means that especially the association and the clubs recognise their own responsibilities and support each other in protecting athletes and the sport from these issues. As the respondents stated, associations have the main responsibility in being the policymakers, educators, and supporters for the clubs. The importance of the clubs is highlighted through the challenge of distance that many respondents mentioned. Associations are too far from the athletes and cannot reach everyone. As one respondent stated, the association can take care of the national level and clubs educate the players:

„So same like, I think as a floorball association firstly, we have to know what to do and we will do our own policy to implement to our national level. That means national leagues player and a national youth level but is also our responsibility to carry out and to assistance such policy gradually to our clubs so that the clubs are able to help us to do likewise to their players because with their help they are also able to reach out to more players in the ground while we are trying to focus on national level (...)" (Respondent 7).

One respondent felt that because of the strong connection with the clubs, also these themes could be raised in discussion with them. One respondent felt that they as the association cannot make the change within the clubs so it must be the leaders and coaches who make the prevention in practise in the club level. Considering the responsibility, the balance between association and club is important. While the responsibility of the clubs was highlighted by the respondents, most of them still thought that the association was responsible for raising awareness and education of these topics. One respondent stated that this kind of knowledge cannot be required from the clubs. One respondent felt that if the topic of prevention is up to each individual club, the topic will not be taken that seriously:

„It's mainly because if we have, if we are educating our clubs, they all get the same information and they get the same standards and if it's up to each and every club, it's going to be not taken that serious, I think” (Respondent 6).

All the associations had installed or planned some preventive strategies against sexual harassment and abuse in sport. The average number of installed strategies was four out of twelve. Two associations had not installed any preventive measures. 77.8% of the respondents agreed that prevention of sexual harassment and abuse is an important issue for their association. The respondent disagreed most with the questions considering resources the percentage was still low, 22.2%. The question considering support from the IFF had most variety in the answers.

The themes around motives, barriers and facilitators were driven from the interview data. Safeguarding that included safe sport and prevention of these issues was one the main motives for the associations to implement prevention policy. Responsibility, pressure from the national sport body or other organisations and education were also recognised as motives. The most mentioned barrier was the lack of resources. Associations also felt that distance from the clubs and players is a barrier for sexual harassment and abuse prevention. Also, the lack of authority and culture were barriers for policy implementation. Cultural change, assistance and responsibility balance were identified as the facilitators for the policy implementation.

6 DISCUSSION

The results indicate that while all the floorball associations had planned some prevention strategies on sexual harassment and abuse, only few associations had implemented an adequate number of preventive strategies. Average number of installed strategies was four which is rather low number considering the total number of the possible prevention strategies being twelve. The motives for implementing prevention policy on sexual harassment and abuse were safeguarding, responsibility, pressure from governmental agencies or other organisation and education. Lack of resources and authority, distance from the clubs and players, and culture were perceived as barriers. The results suggest that cultural change, assistance, and responsibility balance can be facilitator for prevention policy implementation.

Comparing to the model by Parent and Demers (2011), the associations were especially lacking the implementation of internal barriers that consider training and informing

stakeholders and rules related to behaviour management. 11.1% of the associations had installed education and training for stakeholders and for the same percentage, the sexual harassment and abuse prevention was included in the contracts with team staff. None of the associations had installed binding rules for team staff on how to interact with athletes. Still, most of them had ethical guidelines in place. As previous studies show, it is crucial that the persons interacting with athletes know what constitutes as appropriate behaviour and are committed to rules and regulations (e.g., Brackenridge, 2009; Nielsen, 2001). Athletes should be informed how to recognise inappropriate behaviour and how to report it. Two associations mentioned their national team players are informed on these topics. One respondent mentioned that all stakeholders must sign the contract before the season where they are informed about the topic of harassment and abuse. Still, formal education of the topic was missing from all but one association.

Less than half of the associations had installed sanctions and a juridical procedure for perpetrators of sexual harassment. Showing that sexual harassment and sexual abuse are not tolerated in the association should be in line with the sanctions and consequences if these cases are to occur. This is also highlighted in the model by Parent and Demers (2011), where one of the key areas considers case management, which shows that handling the cases adequately can further prevent new cases and better protect the athletes. Sport organisations should define what constitutes a violation and specify the scope of consequences (Mountjoy et al. 2016). Without binding rules, it is difficult to provide sanctions when those rules are being violated.

The results contribute a clearer understanding of the organisations' motives connected to prevention policy implementation. Most of the respondents perceived safeguarding as their priority. They felt that their task is to keep the sport safe and provide safe environment for everyone. It is important that the associations recognise this as their responsibility and are in accordance with the process of safeguarding as a concept (e.g., Hedges, 2015). The prevention of sexual harassment and abuse was also mentioned considering this theme. The respondent felt that these policies were needed to avoid or diminish harassing and abusing behaviours. The respondents also felt that they have the responsibility to on the other hand, provide safe sport and to act in a responsible manner. This included fulfilling the expectations from the society and handling the possible cases instead of hiding those. This highlights the connection of sport to other institutions and to society (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). Fulfilling the expectations from the society but also the pressure motivated some associations to implement or to start planning for prevention policy. This is in accordance with Parent (2011) who argued that that intervention by the government agencies would force sports organisations to adopt

definite measures to protect athletes. In case the associations further receive the needed guiding and information from these agencies, they will be well equipped to protect athletes from sexual harassment and abuse in sport. The respondents also felt that they should be the educators in this topic. It is vital that the associations take this role as educators and promote the topic actively. As in the study by Parent (2011), with the clubs, also many associations in this study recognised that there are many players who do not know enough about the topic or how to report it. On the other hand, the main responsibility of educating the players in the recreational and grassroots level belongs to the clubs.

The results considering available resources are in accordance with previous studies on challenges that sport organisations have considering prevention of sexual harassment and abuse (e.g., Hartmann-Tews et al. 2020; Rhind et al. 2014; Parent, 2011). In the survey, the most of the respondent felt that they had adequate financial, human, and other resources to implement prevention policy. Considering the finances, most of the associations had no budget for sexual harassment and abuse prevention but the respondents nevertheless evaluated their association having sufficient financial resources for creating and implementing policies and procedures for prevention. The funding in general was not catalyst for the associations, since only one association was required to have prevention policy on these issues to receive funding (Brackenridge, 2001, p. 229). These confirm these results are in accordance with Donnelly et al. (2016) that only funding will not solve the challenges on implementation, at least not directly but through additional resources.

Different resources constituted as a challenge, not only to the associations that had not implemented any prevention policy. Also, other respondents felt that there is not enough time, knowledge, or human resources to deal with the implementation of prevention policy or the topic overall. The case management was also seen as time consuming. It was still the associations that had not implemented any prevention policies on these issues that connected their challenges on the lack of resources and especially on lack of staff, time, and knowledge. For these associations, the lack of available resources most probably explains the lack of prevention measures. If the association does not have sufficient resources for daily activities, it is rare that the association could implement sufficient prevention policies. Based on the results, it can be stated that the association must have sufficient resources and activities in place before it can prioritise and establish successful prevention policy. The responses regarding resources might differ also because for some associations, there was a different respondent in the survey and in the interviews. Since the goal was to interview the person who is responsible for the

actual issues, they might have the exact knowledge of all the resources that are needed to implement prevention policy and to handle the cases. Still, associations who thought they had no challenges regarding the implementation of prevention policy, received assistance from the sport governing body for implementation and for handling the actual cases. This is accordance with the model by Parent and Demers (2011) that support provided to sports organisations would be a factor influencing the implementation of preventive measures. In this study, the assistance that was either received or expected to be received, was facilitating the implementation of prevention policy in the association.

While many challenges like resources, time and expertise had been recognised by previous research, it was clear that the associations had specific challenges which are different from the challenges and difficulties that the clubs are suffering of. The lack of authority and distance were mentioned as challenges. Lack of authority was connected to the rules and case management. Associations are not in the position to keep the perpetrators of abuse or harassment away from sport before conviction or sanctions from sport body or authorities. They are also not able to implement stricter rules on coach-athlete relationship although it would be perceived inappropriate by the associations. The case management sometimes needs authorities and resources that the association is lacking. In these situation associations are dependent on the outside assistance and proceedings. Distance from the players was one of the biggest challenges amongst the respondents. They thought that the information does not reach the athletes since there is a club between. The position of the national association is very different for the player who is playing floorball in recreational level or sometimes even on the elite level. Based on the answers by the respondents, it was the national team players who were to some extent, an exception to this. National team players could receive more information considering the topic of harassment and abuse. On the other hand respondents mentioned that it is hard to make the clubs implement prevention policy. In this case, the autonomy and nonregulation of sport organisations is against the associations (e.g., Brackenridge, 2004; Kerr et al. 2020). Clubs can decide their priorities and organise their activities as they wish, and associations might have very limited possibilities to influence this. In this case, the autonomy enjoyed by the clubs, is a challenge for the associations. Without having a good connection with the club and on the other hand the control, the distance is a big challenge especially for the national associations and governing bodies. Both associations and clubs need each other to implement successful prevention policy and the responsibility balance can facilitate this process.

Most of the respondents agree that the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse is important for their association. This finding indicates that the associations do not have

views against prevention policy that could further prevent them from implementing the strategies. This finding is not in line with the finding by Parent (2011) where stakeholders trivialised the topic of sexual harassment and abuse and prevention. It was on the other hand perceived as challenging to justify the topic to the sport community. If the topic of sexual harassment or sexual abuse is not discussed in the culture or it is not given any meaning in the society, it is difficult for a sport organisation to start this discussion. The culture can also cause challenges for reporting experiences which is distressing since non-reporting is a widely linked to the issues of sexual harassment and abuse in general but also in the context of sport (e.g., Solstad 2019). The respondents felt that the justification of the prevention policies could be a challenge which is explained by the lack of knowledge by the community and by the lack the understanding why the prevention of these issues requires active discussion and education. As one respondent pointed out, the associations are not able to make the change and I believe in the situation when there is no phenomenon present in the culture, the responsibility for introducing these themes, lies on the governmental side. The reach of the sport-specific association is too narrow for them to educate the whole society since they are having challenges in raising awareness among their own community. On the other hand, the associations that had discussed other topics like gender equality in sports, had implemented prevention policies or they were expecting the implementation to happen very soon. The cultural change to more open and responsible direction, facilitates the implementation of prevention policy on sexual harassment and abuse. This change is also about combating the other characteristics in sport like masculine values and abuse of power. The influence of culture and for example the #MeToo movement also shows that sport is not a separate system from the society but that the culture can either act as a barrier for implementation of prevention policy and ideal safe sport or act as a catalyst for conversation and further implementation (Brackenridge & Rhind, 2014). It is also vital that when implementing prevention policy on these or any other issues, it is done in culturally respectful manner (Mountjoy et al. 2016).

The relationship between female full-time employees and installed prevention measures was slightly positive. Same kind of relationship was not present between installed measures and the number of female board members. This finding partly supports previous research (e.g., Hartmann-Tews et al. 2020). Unfortunately, this relationship could not be confirmed by statistical measures due to the small sample size. What could explain the positive relationship between the female full-time employees and the number of installed prevention measures is the impact the employees can make in the association. This effect might not be the same for female board members, although they

would be in the decision-making positions. Being part of the staff in the association offers possibilities to promote important values internally. Board members do not hold similar position when it comes to the internal processes of the association. According to Breger, Holman, and Guerrero (2019), the recruitment of women leaders and hiring policy that aid in achieving diversity and inclusivity, are potential ways to re-norm sport and change the toxic culture that enables sexual harassment and abuse. They also recommend balanced mix of women and men in coaching which is something that one of the floorball associations had implemented. Equal hiring processes and organisation composition further diminish the effect of dominant and hegemonic masculinity that characterises sport and pave the way for more respectful and safer environment.

The generalizability of the results is limited by the small sample size. Nine associations were included in the sample, meaning nine respondents for the survey and nine for the interview which constrained the statistical analysis from the data. In some cases, the respondents were overlapping, and same respondent completed the survey and participated in the interview.

7 CONCLUSION

This study aimed to evaluate to what extent the national floorball associations have implemented preventive strategies on sexual harassment and abuse and identify the motives, barriers and facilitators related to the implementation. The results indicate that while all the floorball associations have planned some prevention strategies on sexual harassment and abuse, only few associations have implemented an adequate number of preventive strategies. Safeguarding, responsibility, pressure from the national sport body or other organisations and education were identified as main motives. Lack of resources, lack of authority, culture, and distance from the clubs and players were barriers for prevention policy. Cultural change, assistance and responsibility balance were identified as the facilitators for the policy implementation. The study shows that while not all associations have implemented prevention policy against sexual harassment and abuse, they agree that these issues are important for their association.

Mixed method approach was selected to gain both quantitative and qualitative knowledge of the topic. These methods complemented each other since answering to two different questions. For example, identifying motives, barriers or facilitators from the survey data would have been a challenging or even an impossible task. On the other hand, quantitative data was needed to evaluate the status of prevention strategies in the associations. One of the most surprising findings in the research was

the influence of the culture, both as a barrier and as a facilitator for the implementation of prevention policy.

To better understand the implications of these results, the future research could enrich the motivation and driving factors of the sport organisations on the implementation of prevention policies. While the previous research has not yet confirmed that one sport discipline is more risky than other, further research could address the characteristics that might promote the occurrence of sexual harassment and sexual abuse in certain sports. Considering team sports, the influence of locker room talk and socialisation into harmful behaviours would be an interesting topic to look at more in detail. For sport practitioners, this aspect could offer valuable insights for prevention implementation.

This study aimed to evaluate to what extent the national floorball associations have implemented prevention policy on sexual harassment and abuse and what motives, barriers and facilitator could influence this process. My research identified the common motives, barriers, and facilitators for this process, in the perspective of a sport governing body. It also addressed a gap in research since the topic of sexual harassment and abuse prevention had not been discussed in international floorball.

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Abstract

Sexual harassment and abuse have been evident topics in sport during the recent years. The research has shown that these issues exist in every sport and that sport organisations are struggling with implementation of prevention policies. This study aims to evaluate to what extent the national floorball associations have implemented prevention strategies on these topics and what kind of motives, barriers, and facilitators are present in the implementation process.

The data was collected with quantitative and qualitative methods. An online survey was distributed to the national floorball association representatives. Structured interviews were conducted with nine participants.

Analysis of the responses demonstrated that only a few associations had implemented an adequate number of preventive strategies on sexual harassment and abuse. Main motives included safeguarding, responsibility, pressure, and education. Biggest barriers were lack of resources, distance from the clubs and the players, culture, and lack of authority. Cultural change, assistance, and responsibility balance with the clubs were identified as facilitators.

The results indicate that although many associations had implemented some preventive measures, none of the associations had desired prevention policy in place. Many respondents perceive the topic of sexual harassment and abuse as something that requires a lot of resources. Due to the small sample size, no implications considering other associations can be drawn from the results. Further research is needed to identify what factors facilitate the implementation of prevention policy and what are specific barriers for sport governing bodies.

Zusammenfassung

Seit einigen Jahren sind sexuelle Belästigung und Missbrauch offensichtliche Themen im Sport. Bisherige Forschungen haben gezeigt, dass diese Problematik in jeder Sportart existieren und Sportorganisationen mit der Umsetzung von Präventionsstrategien zu kämpfen haben. Ziel dieser Studie ist die Evaluierung der bisher implementierten Präventionsstrategien der nationalen Unihockeyverbände und welche Art von Motiven, Barrieren und Erleichterungen im Implementierungsprozess vorhanden sind.

Die Daten wurden mit quantitativen und qualitativen Methoden erhoben. Die Vertreter der nationalen Floorballverbände nahmen an der Online-Umfrage teil. Zudem wurden mit neun Teilnehmern strukturierte Interviews geführt.

Die Analyse der erhobenen Daten zeigt, dass nur wenige Verbände eine ausreichende Anzahl von Präventionsstrategien zu sexueller Belästigung und Missbrauch umgesetzt haben. Zu den Hauptmotiven der Implementierung gehören Schutz, Verantwortung, Druck und Bildung. Die größten Barrieren stellen fehlende Ressourcen, Distanz zu den Vereinen sowie den Spielern, Kultur und fehlende Autorität dar. Als Erleichterung werden kulturelle Veränderungen, Unterstützung und eine ausgeglichene Verantwortung mit den Vereinen identifiziert.

Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass viele Vereine zwar überdurchschnittlich einige Präventionsmaßnahmen umsetzen, aber keiner der Vereine eine wünschenswerte Präventionspolitik besitzt. Das Thema sexuelle Belästigung und Missbrauch wird von vielen Befragten als ressourcenaufwändig wahrgenommen. Aufgrund der geringen Stichprobengröße lassen sich aus den Ergebnissen keine Implikationen für andere Verbände ableiten. Weitere Forschungen sind notwendig, um herauszufinden, welche

Faktoren die Umsetzung von Präventionspolitik erleichtern und was spezifische Hindernisse für Sportverbände sind.

Appendices

Appendix 1

Survey questions

Background questions

1) Country of the floorball association?

2) Your position / function in the national floorball association?

3) Gender

a) Female

b) Male

c) Other

d) I prefer not to say

4) Age

5) How long have you worked in the national floorball association?

6) How many full-time employees currently work in your national floorball association? _____

7) How many female full-time employees currently work in your national floorball association?

8) How many members are there in the board?

9) How many female members are there in the board?

In this section, you should evaluate the actions considering sexual harassment and abuse in your organization. Please mark the status of the action, either *installed*, *planned to install*, *not installed* on the right side.

Action	Installed / exists	Planned to install	Not installed and not planned
Does your association have preventive policies in place for sexual harassment and abuse?			
Does your association have a specified person responsible for sexual harassment and abuse policies/cases?			
Does your association have a budget for the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse?			
Does your association have guidelines or procedures for dealing with sexual harassment and abuse allegations and possible cases?			
Is there information available concerning the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse (e.g., on the website, meetings or on brochures)?			
Does your association have ethical guidelines for coaches, staff and volunteers in place?			
Is the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse included in contracts with staff members?			
Does your association do police record check for employed staff members working with children and adolescents?			
Does your association offer education and training programs on sexual harassment and abuse to stakeholders (staff, coaches, athletes and parents)?			
Are there binding rules on how to interact with athletes (e.g., concerning body contact, changing and training camps)?			
Are there sanctions and a juridical procedure for perpetrators of sexual harassment and abuse?			

Does your association have contact with juridical expert available for legal assistance in case of sexual harassment and abuse allegations?

Are there any other preventive activities your association has planned or implemented that were not mentioned here?

Evaluation of the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse in floorball

Please mark the option (Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly disagree) that you think best describes the specific statement and the status of your organisation.

Sexual harassment and abuse are relevant issues in the sport of floorball.

Prevention of sexual harassment and abuse is an important issue for our association.

Our association has sufficient policies and procedures to manage sexual harassment and abuse.

Our association has sufficient financial resources to create and implement policies and procedures that prevent sexual harassment and abuse.

Our association has sufficient knowledge to create and implement policies and procedures to prevent sexual harassment and abuse.

Our association has sufficient human resources to create and implement policies and procedures to prevent sexual harassment and abuse.

Our association has sufficient support from the IFF to manage sexual harassment and sexual abuse in floorball.

What kind of further support would you appreciate from IFF?

Appendix 2

Structured interview

The aim of this interview is to get more information from the national floorball associations considering their preventive policies on sexual harassment and abuse. In addition to background questions, the interview has three parts: *Sexual harassment and abuse in national framework*, *Sexual harassment and abuse prevention in the association*, and *Sexual harassment and sexual abuse cases in the association*. This interview is part of my master thesis. The final results will be utilised for updating the IFF Guidelines on Sexual Harassment and Abuse and the final thesis will be published on the IFF website.

As informed earlier in the letter of consent, the interview will be recorded. The participation in the interview is fully voluntary, and the interviewee has the option to leave certain questions unanswered or stop the interview if feeling uneasy. Direct quotations can be included in the final thesis, but the respondents can't be recognised from these.

Background questions

1. Gender

- e) Female
- f) Male
- g) Other

2. Age

3. What is your position in the national floorball association?

4. How long have you worked in this position?

_____ years

Have you worked in any other positions?

2. Sexual harassment and abuse in national framework

Here the focus is on national framework and possible pressure coming from the national sport governing bodies. A funding from the government can influence the implementation of the prevention policies and assistance received from the governmental sector can help associations to improve their preventive strategies.

- 1) Does your national sport governing body require your association to have a prevention policy on sexual harassment and abuse? To what extent is the requirement binding?
-

- 2) Is your association required to have a sexual harassment and abuse prevention policy to receive funding from the governing body? What does the prevention policy have to cover?
-

- 3) Is the national governing body offering you any assistance for sexual harassment and abuse prevention? If yes, what kind of assistance?
-

3. Sexual harassment and abuse prevention in the association

In this section, the idea is to gather more information on the factors that are either facilitating and promoting the implementation of preventive policies or hindering it. These factors can include funding, resources, knowledge and lack of knowledge or trained staff. The associations should also recognise their status as leader and name the form of assistance they are looking for.

- 1) What are the driving factors for your association to have prevention policies against sexual harassment and abuse? What are the reasons to implement or not to implement those policies?
-

- 2) Has your association faced any difficulties or challenges when implementing prevention policy? What kind of challenges?
-

- 3) Does your association need assistance in implementation? If yes, what kind of assistance?
-

- 4) What kind of education do you offer on these matters? (e.g., brochures, meetings, information on the website)
-

- 5) Do you feel the responsibility on prevention lies more within the association or with the clubs? Why with the association/club?
-

4. Sexual harassment and sexual abuse cases in the association

Prevention policies are often implemented once there has been an actual sexual harassment or abuse case. It would be interesting to know if the associations have had cases and implemented prevention policies only after occurrence of these cases.

1. Is your association aware of cases where a member of a team staff (e.g. coach, team manager) or athlete has either sexually harassed or abused another athlete?

Has the association received a complaint form etc. has someone contacted the association)?

2. If yes, how was this case or these cases handled by your association? (*What were the actions taken, were there disciplinary measures on the harasser or abuser, what were the consequences both for the victim and for the perpetrator*).
-

3. What could have been done differently?
-

4. What kind of information is available for athletes and other stakeholders (e.g., parents) on reporting of sexual harassment and abuse experiences? Do the

athletes know what to do if they experience sexual harassment or sexual abuse?

-
5. What kind of resources does your association have available if these cases occur?

What kind of resources would you need?

Is there anything you would like to add that I haven't thought about asking?