



**A juridical-psychological perspective:
Teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional
abuse in school sport coaching**

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DECLARATION / VERKLARING

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'M. B. ...', with a stylized, cursive script.

Signature / Handtekening

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SUMMARY

This qualitative study explored and described teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. The aims of the study were to: (i) explore and describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching from teacher sport-coaches' perceptions; (ii) determine which legal determinants regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching; (iii) explore and describe which psychological dynamics, in the child or coach, may result in emotional abuse in school sport coaching; (iv) determine coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse on learners in school sport; and (v) to provide strategies that can be put in place for teacher sport-coaches in order to curb emotional abuse in school sport from a juridical-psychological perspective. A qualitative design situated in a social constructivist paradigm was chosen in order to achieve the aims of this study. A purposeful sampling strategy was utilised to select the teacher sport-coaches who were all coaching sport at secondary schools in the North-West province. Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education of the North-West University. Written permission to conduct research was further granted by the North West Department of Basic Education, the school principals, the SGBs, and participating teacher sport-coaches. Furthermore, participants' interests were safeguarded by guaranteeing their anonymity and obtaining their informed consent in writing before the data-generation process commenced.

The data-generation process comprised of semi-structured interviews. Data saturation occurred after 12 semi-structured interviews. The data were analysed by means of qualitative content analysis. Six main themes emerged from the data. Theme 1 included views of emotional abuse. Theme 2 discussed different forms of emotional abuse. Theme 3 described the causes of emotional abuse. Theme 4 discussed the effects of emotional abuse. Theme 5 examined knowledge of legal regulation. Lastly, Theme 6 described participating teacher sport-coaches' suggested strategies to curb emotional abuse.

In the last chapter, suggestions were made as to how emotional abuse in school sport coaching can be curbed. Recommendations for further research were also made. Findings of the study indicated that both peers and teacher sport-coaches are responsible for emotional abuse. Teacher sport-coaches also stated that the effects

of emotional abuse are both psychological and personal. The juridical-psychological perspective was suitable for this study: the juridical perspective assisted in establishing what legal determinants regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching, while the psychological perspective explained the psychological dynamics of emotional abuse in this context. Teacher sport-coaches should be cognisant of the findings of the study as failure to do so would potentially lead to emotionally abusive coaching practices.

Key concepts: Coaching; emotional abuse; juridical-psychological; school sport; teacher sport-coach

OPSOMMING

Hierdie kwalitatiewe studie het onderwysersportafrigters se persepsies van emosionele mishandeling in skoolsportafrigting verken en beskryf. Die doel van die studie was om: (i) emosionele mishandeling in skoolsportafrigting vanuit onderwysersportafrigters se persepsies te ondersoek en te beskryf; (ii) te bepaal watter regs-determinante emosionele mishandeling in skoolsportafrigting reguleer en verbied; (iii) om te ondersoek en beskryf watter sielkundige dinamiek, in die kind of afrigter, kan lei tot emosionele mishandeling in skoolsportafrigting; (iv) afrigters se persepsies van emosionele mishandeling op leerders in skoolsport te bepaal; en (v) strategieë te verskaf wat vir onderwysersportafrigters in plek gestel kan word om emosionele mishandeling in skoolsport vanuit 'n juridies-psigologiese perspektief te bekamp. 'n Kwalitatiewe ontwerp wat in 'n sosiaal-konstruktivistiese paradigma gesetel is, is gekies om die doelstellings van hierdie studie te bereik. 'n Doelgerigte steekproefstrategie is aangewend om die onderwysersportafrigters te kies wat almal by sekondêre skole in die Noordwes-provinsie afrig. Toestemming vir die studie is verkry by die Etiekkomitee van die Fakulteit Opvoedkunde van die Noordwes-Universiteit. Skriftelike toestemming om navorsing te doen is verder verleen deur die Noordwes Departement van Basiese Onderwys, die skoolhoofde, die SBL's en deelnemende onderwysersportafrigters. Verder is deelnemers se belange beskerm deur hul anonimiteit te waarborg en hul ingeligte toestemming skriftelik te verkry voordat die data-insamelingsproses begin het.

Die data-insamelingsproses het bestaan uit semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude. Dataversadiging het voorgekom na 12 semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude. Die data is geanaliseer deur middel van kwalitatiewe inhoudsanalise. Ses hoofemas het uit die data na vore gekom. Tema 1 bevat sienings van emosionele mishandeling. Tema 2 bespreek verskillende vorme van emosionele mishandeling. Tema 3 beskryf die oorsake van emosionele mishandeling. Tema 4 bespreek die uitwerking van emosionele mishandeling. Tema 5 ondersoek kennis van wetlike regulering. Laastens beskryf Tema 6 deelnemende onderwyserafrigters se voorgestelde strategieë om emosionele mishandeling te bekamp.

In die laaste hoofstuk is voorstelle gemaak oor hoe emosionele mishandeling in skoolsportafrigting beperk kan word. Aanbevelings vir verdere navorsing is ook

gemaak. Bevindinge van die studie het aangedui dat sowel leerders se eweknieë as onderwyserssportafrigters vir emosionele mishandeling verantwoordelik is. Onderwyserssport-afrigters het ook verklaar dat die effek van emosionele mishandeling beide sielkundig en persoonlik is. Die juridies-sielkundige perspektief was gepas vir hierdie studie: die juridiese perspektief het gehelp om vas te stel watter regs-determinante emosionele mishandeling in skoolsport-afrigting reguleer en verbied, terwyl die sielkundige perspektief die sielkundige dinamika van emosionele mishandeling in hierdie konteks verduidelik. Onderwyserssport-afrigters behoort kennis te dra van die bevindings van die studie, aangesien onkunde in hierdie verband tot emosionele mishandeling tydens afrigting kan lei.

Slutelbegrippe: Afrigting; emosionele mishandeling; juridies-sielkundige; skoolsport; onderwyserssportafrigter

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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT, RESEARCH RATIONALE AND DESIGN

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I offer an outline of the study. Teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching are explained and described. The research problem is then highlighted, followed by a brief description of the research design as well as the methodology used in the empirical study. This chapter is concluded with an outline of the remaining chapters.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH PROBLEM

The National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE, 2013) maintains that participation in sport holds numerous benefits for learners, which include retaining a positive mental attitude, avoiding illness and increasing self-esteem whilst decreasing the chance of developing mental disorders. Stirling (2011:3) posits that "sport, however, is not inherently good". According to Stirling, participation in school sport is a neutral process that may generate favourable or less favourable developmental consequences. School sport can promote a healthy lifestyle, assist in the development of gross and fine motor skills, and may even contribute to reaching academic goals and psychological well-being (Merkel, 2013:153-154). These are just some of the positive consequences school sport may offer its participants (Holt, 2016; Vella, Cliff, Magee & Okely, 2014; Eime, Young, Harvey, Charity & Payne, 2013).

On the other hand, school sport may also generate negative outcomes. Coaching practices that include a "win at all costs" approach may put the child in a vulnerable position (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:216). A coach who shouts, belittles and humiliates is a danger to the psychological well-being of children who take part in school sport (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:220). Sexual abuse receives more attention in the literature, even though, according to Vertommen Schipper-Van Veldhoven, Wouters, Kampen, Brackenridge, Rhind, Neels & Van den Eede (2016:224), emotional harm has a higher prevalence rate than either sexual or physical abuse. Vertommen *et al.* (2016:224) emphasise that at least one child in every sports team may be the victim of emotional abuse, demonstrating that emotional abuse is on the rise in schools.

There is a lack of relevant research on emotional abuse in school sport. This lack of literature underscores the need to explore emotional abuse in school sport coaching, considering the number of children involved in school sport in South Africa. However, when reviewing more current literature on abuse in sport, numerous investigations have been done on sexual abuse in countless sporting environments (Johansson, Kentta & Andersen, 2016; Johnson, 2014; Teasley & Gill, 2015).

While any form of abuse can be damaging, the perpetration of emotional abuse can also transpire separately from physical or sexual abuse (Simmel & Shpiegel, 2013:626). Trickett, Menen, Kim and Sang (2009:28) assert that emotional abuse is an under-recognised form of child maltreatment. This may explain why Stirling and Kerr (2008:174) believe that there is a dearth of empirical and explorative studies on emotional abuse in sport. Even school counsellors consider emotional abuse as the most suspected form of abuse, but the least reported in the school environment (Buser & Buser, 2013:3). Internationally, researchers who have investigated emotional abuse in sport generally focused on elite athletes participating in organised youth sport clubs who revealed that coaches altered their behaviour and became more negative once they (the athletes) were identified as elite performers (Gervis & Dunn, 2004; Stirling & Kerr, 2011; Stirling & Kerr, 2013).

In a report sanctioned by UNICEF (Brackenridge, Fasting, Kirby & Leahy, 2011:11), researchers claimed that “very little systematic research has been carried out into emotionally violent coaching behaviours in children’s sport”. In addition, there seems to be a paucity of research on emotional abuse across all levels of participation within a school sport context (Alexander, Stafford & Lewis, 2011:9). This accentuates the need for research to explore and describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Stirling (2011:2) and Stirling and Kerr (2013:88) confirm that more research is needed into coaches’ perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

Furthermore, Hartup (1994:43) asserts that perception “involves the processing and interpretation of the sensory input”. This seems to be challenging, seeing that children are even more susceptible to abuse on the sports field due to, among others, a “winning at all costs” mentality. It was thus of great importance to investigate emotionally abusive behaviour by interviewing teacher sport-coaches so as to explore and describe their perceptions of the said phenomenon and to establish what appropriate strategies could be put in place for teacher sport-coaches.

This study contributed to an area of research relatively unexplored in scientific literature in South Africa, where seemingly no studies have been conducted on emotional abuse in school sport coaching, specifically focusing on teacher sport-coaches' perceptions. This study is also the first of its kind that explored emotional abuse in school sport coaching from a juridical-psychological perspective. Lastly, strategies were suggested that can assist teacher sport-coaches in curbing emotional abuse in school sport coaching. This qualitative descriptive study therefore sought to explore and describe teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching from a juridical-psychological perspective.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The central research question that guided this study was: What are teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching, as underscored by a juridical-psychological perspective?

Sub-questions of the study were the following:

- What is emotional abuse in school sport coaching based on teacher sport-coaches' perceptions?
- Which legal determinants regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching?
- Which psychological dynamics, within the child or coach, may result in emotional abuse in school sport coaching?
- What are coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse on learners in school sport?
- What strategies can be put in place for teacher sport-coaches in order to curb emotional abuse in school sport from a juridical-psychological perspective?

1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The general aim of this study was to explore and describe teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

Specific aims of this study were to:

- Explore and describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching from teacher sport-coaches' perceptions;
- Determine which legal determinants regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching;
- Explore and describe which psychological dynamics, within the child or coach, may result in emotional abuse in school sport coaching;
- Determine coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse on learners in school sport; and
- Provide strategies that can be put in place for teacher sport-coaches in order to curb emotional abuse in school sport from a juridical-psychological perspective.

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF THE CONCEPTS

Key concepts for this study included emotional abuse, school sport coaching, and a juridical-psychological perspective. The study incorporated four fields of specialisation in order to explore and describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching (see Figure 1.1 below).

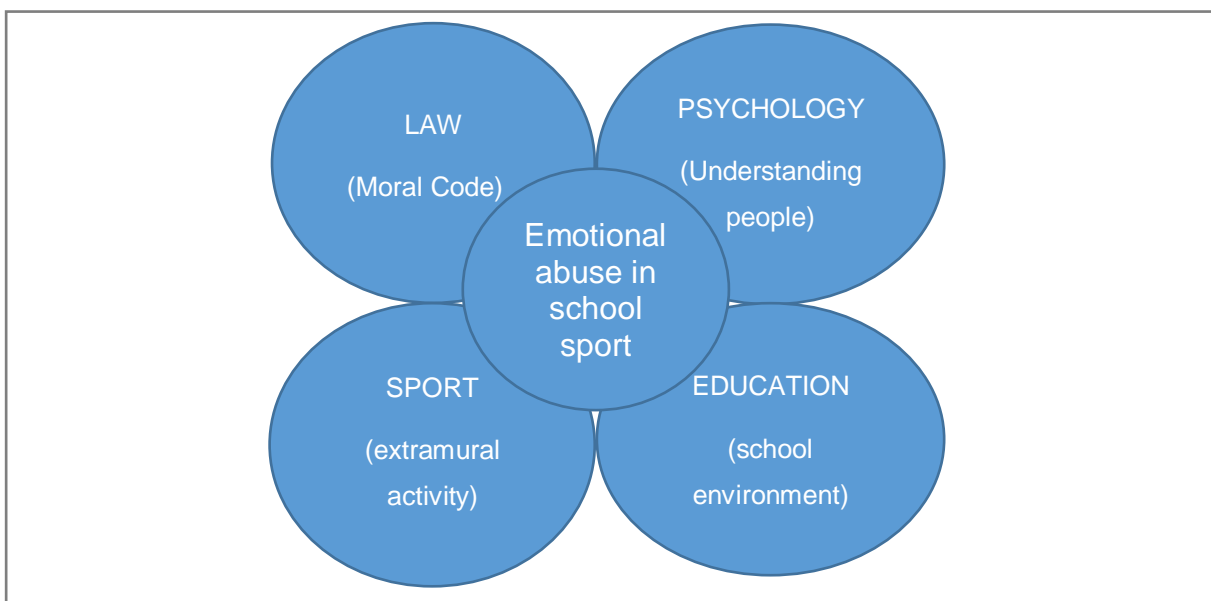


Figure 1.1 Fields of specialisation for the study

This study was underpinned by the abovementioned fields in order to get a holistic viewpoint on emotional abuse in school sport coaching. First, a juridical-psychological perspective was used where the fields of specialisation of law (moral code) and psychology (emotional

abuse) within sport (school sport as an extramural activity – component of a holistic education programme) in an education context (school environment) were applied in order to understand emotional abuse in school sport coaching. These main concepts are clarified below to illustrate how they were interpreted in this study.

1.5.1 School

According to the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (South Africa, 1996:5), a school can be defined as a “public or independent school which enrol learners in one or more grades from grade R to twelve”. A school can be viewed as an institution where compulsory teaching and learning take place in a structured setting, which includes sport as an extramural activity.

1.5.2 Sport

Woods (2015:7) describes sport as a “higher order of play and as a kind of game with certain characteristics that set it apart”. According to LeUnes (2008), sport is an activity that involves competition of a serious nature where the result is not fixed or known to competitors. Sport embraces physical prowess and skill, and it takes place within an organisational structure comprising different teams participating in different leagues or divisions, with coaches and administrators also playing roles in the management of these activities (LeUnes, 2008). In the context of this study, sport refers to “an institutionalized, structured competitive activity beyond the realm of play that involves physical exertion and the use of complex athletic skills” (Delaney & Madigan, 2009:7).

1.5.3 School sport

School sport can be seen as learning that takes place in an organised and coordinated manner, but beyond the school curriculum, which is sometimes referred to as education beyond usual school hours, with the key aspect being physical activity. It can be understood as a programme that has the potential of broadening the learning of physical attributes beyond what is already taught in physical education (Association for Physical Education, 2008:3). School sport aim to generate an environment that endorses healthy living, social integration, and lifelong participation within the sporting sphere (Department of Education, 2009:7). As Eime *et al.* (2013:16) explain, school sport hold numerous psychological benefits, such as improved self-esteem and social interaction, as is intended by the abovementioned goals set forth by the Department of Basic Education. In this study, school sport entail extracurricular activities, defined by Alexander *et al.* (2011:5) as “playing in the school team or being part of a club, based at school but taking place outside ordinary PE

(Physical Education) lessons". In addition, the Department of Education (South Africa, 2009:7) proposed that "school sport shall be [an] integral, extramural and extracurricular component of the holistic education programme". As can be inferred from the latter statement, school sport can be seen as a necessary element in providing a complete educational experience for learners.

1.5.4 Coaching

The term "coaching" stems from the Anglo-Saxon word meaning "carriage" (Kennedy, 2009:3). With this in mind, it is clear that coaching is a proximal process whereby individuals are led from a starting point to where they want to go. Challenges associated with defining this concept can be seen when Kennedy (2009:4) lists a host of different coaching categories, including life coaching, business coaching, and relationship coaching, to name but a few. There is, however, a distinct element that encompasses coaching regardless of the context – that is, the role of the coach. A general definition of sport coaching emphasises that coaching "centres on the improvement of an individual's or teams' sporting ability, both as a general capacity and as specific performances" (Lyle, 2002:38). Kidman and Hanrahan (2004) reiterate the important role of a coach whose main focus must be on improving athletes' performances. Thus, in the context of this study, coaching refers to teacher sport-coaches coaching learners participating in school sport in order to balance and develop their performances.

1.5.5 School sport coaching

In this study, school sport coaching can be interpreted as coaching learners (athletes) who are not older than 19 years of age (South Africa, 2009). The main attributes of coaching, as is depicted by Martens (2012), include: identifying the needs of each athlete; understanding the context of each athlete; and having a keen awareness of the physical and mental capabilities of the athletes in order to balance and develop performance. Coaching at school sport level is usually performed by teachers, although other parties might also be involved, such as parents, other adults contracted by the school, or students who are seeking experience, are interested in coaching or are sharing their expertise in a specific sport by means of coaching. In the context of this study, school sport coaching entails a teacher coaching young athletes in their physical and mental performance, leading them to acquire a skillset of a particular sport whilst also improving social skills that are known to occur through sports participation (Bailey, 2006:398). In this study, a 'coach' refers to a teacher who is coaching any of the sporting codes at a school as assigned by the school governing

body (SGB) of the respective schools. In other words, the sport included in this study depended on the extramural activities offered by the schools who participated in the study.

1.5.6 Perceptions

Perception can be defined as “the acquisition and processing of sensory information in order to see, hear, taste, or feel objects in the world” (Sekuler & Blake, 2002:621). Furthermore, perception also influences an individual’s actions with respect to those objects (Sekuler & Blake, 2002:621). In other words, perception can be seen as a mental process or activity between the occurrence of a particular stimulus and the commencement of a response. In this study, the perceptions of teacher sport-coaches were explored and described from a juridical-psychological perspective.

1.5.7 Emotional abuse

According to Doyle and Timms (2014), emotional abuse is a term frequently used interchangeably with other terms, such as ‘emotional abuse’, ‘psychological maltreatment’, ‘emotional violence’, or ‘psychological abuse and neglect’, collectively implicating some form of harm to a person’s psychological state. Stirling (2011:19) asserts that definitions of emotional abuse may vary depending on whether it is defined by the behaviour of the perpetrator or by the outcome of the victim’s experience of the behaviour. She further posits that the concept of emotional abuse should include both the behaviour committed as well as the repercussions of the conduct in question (Stirling, 2011:19).

Glaser (2002:702) defines emotional abuse as a relationship between a child and a caregiver where the relationship is marked by forms of destructive interpersonal interactions. Royse (2016:8) further describes emotional abuse as a persistent behavioural pattern, beyond causing unhappiness in a child, which may hamper the self-esteem, development and worldview of a child.

Christensen (1999:111) differentiates between active and passive forms of emotional abuse. When experiencing active forms of emotional abuse, the victim is constantly exposed to verbal attacks, including yelling, name-calling and belittling, whereas passive forms of emotional abuse constitute neglect or a lack of security and attention (Christensen, 1999). Gervis (2009:24) adds to these definitions by stating that emotional abuse “may involve conveying to children that they are worthless or unloved, inadequate, or valued only insofar as they meet the needs of another person”. Stirling and Kerr (2008:178) define emotional abuse in the sporting context as “a pattern of deliberate non-contact behaviours by a person

within a critical relationship role that has the potential to be harmful”. According to Stirling and Kerr (2008:178), “acts of emotional abuse include physical behaviours, verbal behaviours, and acts of denying attention and support”.

1.5.8 Juridical

An early definition of the concept ‘juridical’ describes this term as representing formal law and its approaches of proscriptions and penalties (Claes, Duff & Gutwirth, 2006:141). Tadros (1998:78) gave a more detailed description of the concept juridical:

The juridical conception defines power in relation to a series of acts. It defines which acts transgress and which are permitted. Law is not the only way in which the transgressive threshold is defined nor is it the only way in which it is enforced. It describes any form of power which attempts to prevent a certain type of action through the threat of legal or social sanctions.

Tadros (1998:78) explains the concept of juridical as not merely formal law, but a term that encompasses a moral code through which certain behaviours are permitted according to the social standards of the day, whilst others are deemed as wrongdoings that should invoke punishment. Case law, legislation and common law principles, as established in the South African judicial system, formed the legal framework that guided the juridical perspective in this study. The law of delict, known as tort law in other countries (Rossouw, 2006:33), was considered, as this element of common law is related to acts of unlawfulness found in emotional abuse in school sport coaching. According to McManus (2013:1), the law of delict forces the person who unlawfully and unreasonably injures another to compensate the victimised party.

1.5.9 Psychological

The concept psychology derives from the Greek root “psyche” (Murugan, 2013:5). The root of the word in ancient Greek means “soul”, and “logos” in Greek means “knowledge” (Murugan, 2013:5). Psychology is one of the social sciences that “allow us to find out why people think, act and feel in the ways they do” as supposed to sociology which focuses on how society as a whole works (Train, 2007:3). Murugan (2013:5) explains that psychology “involves systematic study of behaviour and mental processes in which the observed data is organized based on theory”. It may include both overt (e.g. walking or jumping) and covert (e.g. attitudes or motivations) behaviour (Murugan, 2013).

Psychological dynamics refers to the three main areas of psychology, namely affect, behaviour, and cognition (Gill, Williams & Reifsteck, 2017:5). Specifically, psychology “seeks to understand people’s thoughts, feelings and behaviours within their dynamic context of their environment” (Gill *et al.*, 2017:5). For the purposes of this study, psychological dynamics in school sport includes the three areas of psychology (i.e., behaviour, cognition, and affect) and how these aspects are manifested in the individual coach or learner (athlete) in possible emotional abusive interactions during physical activities, such as school sport (Gill *et al.*, 2017:5).

In the next section, I elucidate relevant perspectives and various theories. According to Maree (2016:34), a perspective signifies “a way of viewing the world, and holds that researchers, when they choose a perspective or paradigm, make certain assumptions and use certain systems of meaning in favour of others”. Theory is defined by Littlejohn and Foss (2011:19) as “any organized set of concepts, explanations, and principles of some aspect of human experience”. Theory is essential to the researcher as it provides a backdrop and foundation for the study conducted (Bryman, 2012:20). Bryman (2012:20) claims that theory “provides a framework within which social phenomena can be understood and the research findings can be interpreted”.

According to Fiske (2010:415), the social learning theory “teaches people how and when to aggress, through modelling of imitative aggression and vicarious learning of sanctions”. In this study, this theory was employed to determine if teacher sport-coaches imitate and learn their emotionally abusive practices from others. The frustration-aggression hypothesis argues that frustration generally results in aggression, and aggression in its entirety results from frustration of some kind (Fiske, 2010:415). Accordingly, this study ascertained if frustration leads to teacher sport-coaches emotionally abusing their athletes. The cognitive neo-association theory proposes that events deemed as aversive yield negative effects (Botha, 2012:155). In other words, negative cognitions about a specific event would ultimately lead to an unpleasant experience. Therefore, teacher sport-coaches who have negative associations about coaching may, according to this theory, produce unpleasant coaching practices. Lastly, the drive theory maintains that all organisms are motivated by an inner drive to release tension and reach goals (Hsiao, 2013). In the context of this study, it was ascertained if teacher sport-coaches had an innate tendency to emotionally abuse their athletes through unresolved tension.

1.5.10 Juridical-psychological perspective

According to Carta (2009:127), “law and jurisprudence have always referred to psychological concepts”. The author goes on to state that judges would often consider an offender’s character and personality traits before rendering a verdict (Carta, 2009:128). From Carta’s (2009:128) viewpoint, the disciplines of law and psychology share certain commonalities that can provide a more holistic perspective combined than the two fields of study on their own. The law regulates human behaviour by prohibiting some behaviour and authorising other behaviour, whereas psychology is descriptive and not regulatory (Carta, 2009:128). However, all behaviour deemed contrary to the norms of the community are assessed in terms of their consequences and evaluated according to the intellectual and motivational considerations of the perpetrators (Carta, 2009).

Psychology is a field concerned with cognitive, emotional and behavioural aspects of human behaviour and “is therefore the specific discipline that might help to judge human conduct in a legal sense” (Carta, 2009:128). In this study, a juridical-psychological perspective underscored the exploration of teacher sport-coaches’ perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching as were guided by the research questions and aims. This study thus included a juridical perspective as is portrayed in the three sources of law, namely legislation, common law, and case law. A juridical perspective was utilised to determine what legal determinants regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching, while a psychological perspective explained the psychological dynamics of emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This section discusses the research design and methodology that was employed in this study.

1.6.1 Research design

Research designs may differ according to the study’s objective, the type of research questions employed, and the skills and sources accessible to the researcher (Fouchè & Schurink, 2011). In other words, the research process indicates the procedures utilised in the design (Fouchè & Schurink, 2011). This study adopted a qualitative descriptive research design, considering that this design is “typically an eclectic but reasonable and well-considered combination of sampling, and data collection, analysis, and re-presentational techniques” (Sandelowski, 2000:337). Qualitative descriptive studies tend to focus on the

general principles of naturalistic inquiry as they seek to study phenomena in their natural state where the investigator uses methods and the participants present themselves as if not being investigated (Sandelowski, 2000:337). Descriptive research describes a picture containing aspects of a social setting, situation or affiliation, and concentrates specifically on 'how' questions (Fouchè & de Vos, 2011). This study focused in depth on the nature of emotional abuse in school sport coaching, underscored by a juridical-psychological perspective, thus exploring deeper meanings that may eventually lead to more pronounced descriptions.

1.6.2 Research site, sampling, and sample

In this study, secondary schools in the North-West province were selected as the research site. Further, teacher sport-coaches were selected by means of purposive sampling. Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences of the North-West University (Addendum A). Written permission to conduct research was granted by the North West Department of Basic Education (Addendum B), the school principals (Addendum C), the SGBs (Addendum D), and participating teacher sport-coaches (Addendum E).

The secondary schools were selected by means of purposive sampling for the data-collection process. Purposive sampling is a form of non-probability sampling "[in] which the researcher aims to sample participants in a strategic way, so that those sampled are relevant to the research questions that are being posed" (Bryman, 2012:418). From each of these secondary schools, teacher sport-coaches were also purposefully selected to be interviewed in order to explore and describe teacher sport-coaches' perceptions emotional abuse in school sport coaching from their perceptions.

Nieuwenhuis (2016) states that purposive sampling is exactly what the name suggests: a way in which members of a particular group are chosen with a specific purpose. Thus, the individuals can be connected to a phenomenon that is under investigation (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). Purposive sampling focuses mainly on the judgment of the investigator and is concerned with the elements comprising the most representative characteristics of a population that will ensure that the purposes of the study are met (Strydom & Delpont, 2011). In order to prevent selection bias, all teacher sport-coaches at the selected schools were invited by open invitation to voluntarily participate. In this qualitative study, the number of participants was not established beforehand, but data were collected until data saturation was achieved. Data saturation is "that point where all the themes and categories have been

saturated and no new data are generated” (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:84). According to Ryan and Bernard (2004), the moment data saturation is reached will depend on the number and intricacy of the data, the researcher’s experience and energy levels, as well as the number of analysts. In this respect, Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006:77) assert that “saturation is reliant on researcher qualities and has no boundaries”. Guest *et al.* (2006:74) further highlight that data saturation usually occurs after the twelfth interview. Therefore, as prescribed by the aforementioned authors, 12 participants were sampled to participate in this study.

1.6.3 Data generation

Data for this study were collected by means of semi-structured interviews. A qualitative interview is an interaction between an interviewer and a participant in which the interviewer has a general plan of inquiry, including the interview questions to be covered (Babbie, 2012). Semi-structured individual interviews were used to collect data (Addendum F). In a semi-structured interview, the participants are asked open-ended questions, followed by further probing to enhance clarification (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:93). Probing may be employed by the researcher when the participant does not understand the question (Bryman, 2012:223). The researcher also utilises probing when the response provided by the participant seems to be inadequate or not sufficient (Bryman, 2012).

It is important to be attentive to what one’s participants are saying in order to identify themes and to guide the lines of inquiry into the phenomenon under investigation (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:93). All the individual interviews were audio recorded and were later transcribed verbatim for data-analysis purposes. These audio recordings were deleted from the recording apparatus but were saved on a compact disk for safekeeping in a secure locked cabinet in the supervisor’s office at the North-West University.

1.6.4 Data analysis

Data analysis in qualitative research can be defined as “the interpretation and classification of linguistic material aiming to make statements about implicit and explicit dimensions and structures of meaning making in the material and what is represented in it” (Schreier, 2014:370). Qualitative analysis involves several levels of examination that presses the researcher to “read between the lines” so as to get a full description of what is being said (Schreier, 2014:370).

In this study, I employed qualitative content analysis. Qualitative content analysis is an analytical technique with the objective of describing the main features of a document's content by investigating who said what, with what effect (Bloor & Wood, 2006:58). Vaismoradi, Turunen and Bondas (2013) believe that qualitative content analysis should be used by novice researchers as it provides researchers with well-defined and user-friendly techniques to analyse data. The first step in qualitative content analysis is the preparation phase. As was also done in this study, in this phase, the researcher transcribes the interview and acquires a sense of the whole by reading the transcripts several times (Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013:401). The content analyst may choose between developing categories or themes before proceeding to the following phase (Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013:401). This is followed by open coding, as the researcher then collects codes under potential categories and sub-categories before contrasting the emerged code clusters (Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013:402). In the last phase of analysis, the results of the previous stages are reported (Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013:402).

1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Due to atrocities involving human subjects used in research during the last century, a very high demand has been put on ethical research practices (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013). The following ethical aspects were relevant to this study:

- Approval from the Ethics Committee: Formal approval and clearance was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences (NWU, Potchefstroom campus);
- Permission to conduct the research: Permission to conduct research was obtained from the North West Department of Basic Education; principals of the respective selected schools; and teacher sport-coaches who participated in the study;
- The study did not entail any deception on the part of the researcher. The participants were briefed on what the study entailed and what was expected of them;
- The participants' identities were kept confidential and their privacy was ensured. The data will be secured and stored in a cabinet (Potchefstroom campus);
- Informed consent was obtained from the participants.

These ethical considerations and how they were met are discussed in detail in paragraph (par.) 4.8.

1.8 CHAPTER OUTLINE

The chapters in this dissertation are outlined as follows:

- Chapter 1: Problem statement, research rationale and design
- Chapter 2: A juridical perspective on emotional abuse in school sport coaching
- Chapter 3: A psychological perspective on emotional abuse in school sport coaching
- Chapter 4: Research design and methodology
- Chapter 5: Presentation and discussion of the findings
- Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations for further research

1.9 SUMMARY

This chapter offered an outline of the study. First, an introduction and background to the study were provided and the problem statement was discussed. The research questions and aims were then provided and the main concepts relevant to this study were elucidated. The research design and methodology, sampling method, and the data-collection and data-analysis strategies were also briefly discussed. This chapter was concluded with the ethical considerations relevant to this study and lastly, the chapter outline.

CHAPTER 2

A JURIDICAL PERSPECTIVE ON EMOTIONAL ABUSE IN SCHOOL SPORT COACHING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The legal determinants that regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching are considered in this chapter. Firstly, a brief introduction is presented on how the South African legal system originated and what it constitutes today. Accordingly, three sources of law – namely legislation, common law, and case law – are examined with the purpose of establishing a legal framework. The Constitution stands central, as it is the ‘supreme law’ of South Africa and provides the core of the legislation in the system. Original and subordinate legislation are discussed in accordance to relevant rules and regulations pertaining to emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Common law principles are then explored, focusing on the law of delict to the extent that it regulates the delictual liability of teacher sport-coaches. Lastly, relevant case law is integrated into aforementioned discussions as pertinent court cases related to the phenomenon of emotional abuse in school sport coaching are considered.

2.2 THE SOUTH AFRICAN LEGAL SYSTEM

The law has been described and defined numerous times, but no consensus has been reached on exactly what it entails (Kleyn & Viljoen, 2010:1). Although there is no single definition for this vast field, one of the functions generally agreed upon is that the law has a regulatory function. According to Du Bois (2007:3), “the law provides reasons for acting in prescribed ways and holds people responsible to each other as well as to society at large, when they fail to comply with such reasons”. Rossouw (2013:2) further asserts that “since the genesis of this young South African democracy close to twenty years ago, there has understandably been a prominent focus on the extent to which human rights are protected”. In post-apartheid South Africa, the Constitution was developed to correct the wrongs of the past and, *inter alia*, provide equality to all South Africans. Therefore, the Constitution has been established as the ‘supreme law’ of the country. Law or conduct inconsistent with it is invalid, and the obligations imposed by it must be fulfilled. As becomes clear from such a description of the Constitution, the law can be seen as a normative system where behaviours are distinguished based on the moral codes that prevail in the community at any given time.

The South African legal system originated primarily from Roman-Dutch and English law. Kleyn and Viljoen (2010:19) assert that the principles of Roman-Dutch law were developed for and adapted to South Africa, with English law playing a pivotal role in what is today the 'South African legal system'.

Oosthuizen, Rossouw and De Wet (2011:15) distinguish between three basic sources of law where legal principles and imperatives can be found, namely legislation, common law, and case law. Kleyn and Viljoen (2010:2) define legislation as legal rules imposed by organs of the state with the competence to do so. These written rules are known as laws (Kleyn & Viljoen, 2010) and are referred to in this study as statutory determinants. Furthermore, Rossouw (2006:22) describes common law as "the uncodified (i.e. not written down as statutes) legal tradition as derived from the Roman-Dutch and English law of the seventeenth century". Rossouw (2006:22) further postulate that these traditions were adapted and developed according to the South African legal environment and culture. Lastly, case law is based on judicial decisions that include judgements that interpret statutes (Oosthuizen *et al.*, 2011:60).

2.3 STATUTORY DETERMINANTS OF SOUTH AFRICAN LAW

Laws or statutes are those legal rules that are implemented by the parliament, provincial legislators or municipalities in order to maintain a safe and secure society for all its inhabitants. Section 43 of the Constitution of South Africa (South Africa, 1996) determines that legislative authority of the national sphere of government is vested in Parliament as set out in section 44. This holds true to provincial legislation as well as municipal councils as is depicted in section 43 of the Constitution (South Africa, 1996).

Three categories of legislation are described by Smit (2009:5), namely the Constitution of South Africa, original legislation, and subordinate legislation. In Table 2.1 below, Smit (2009:5) provides examples of original and subordinate legislation.

Table 2.1 Original and subordinate legislation

| Original legislation | Subordinate legislation |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Laws from National parliament | Regulations in terms of National legislation |
| Laws from the Provincial parliament | Regulations in terms of Provincial legislation |
| Municipal ordinances | Municipal regulations |

In this study, statutory determinants were employed to analyse emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Provincial and local laws as well as municipal ordinances were not included, as the discussions revolved around matters that are determined on the basis of national legislation. A discussion of some regulations forms part of this chapter, but the focus is only on regulations at national level as promulgated by parliament (such as regulations associated with the South African Schools Act or the Employment of Educators Act).

2.3.1 The Constitution

The Constitution of South Africa functions as the most essential foundation aimed at regulating all human activities in the country, as other legislation, including conduct between individuals, must be consistent with it (Rossouw, 2006:16). Section 1(c) of the Constitution declares the supremacy of the Constitution, whilst, in terms of section 2 of the Constitution (South Africa, 1996), any conduct not consistent with it is seen as unconstitutional. The Constitution was put in place to regulate the relationship between the State and its citizens, the latter being in an inferior and more vulnerable position (Rossouw, 2006:17). This is known as the vertical application of the Constitution. The Constitution, however, regulates interpersonal conduct between two individuals as well, which is known as the horizontal application of the Constitution (Rossouw, 2006:17). The latter application can be between

any two parties, including individuals and legal persons such as schools (Rossouw, 2006:17).

In the following section, several sections from the Bill of Rights, which forms Chapter 2 of the Constitution, are discussed insofar as they directly or indirectly relate to emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

The Constitution sets out fundamental rights that can be viewed as relevant to this study, which sought to explore and describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching. These three fundamental rights, which are also regarded as the founding values of the Bill of Rights, include the right to human dignity, the right to equality, and the right to freedom. Of these three fundamental rights, human dignity is arguably most related to emotional abuse suffered by learners participating in school sport, considering the detrimental effect of this form of abuse on victims' self-esteem.

2.3.1.1 Human dignity

Section 10 of the Constitution (South Africa, 1996) states that everyone has the inherent right to human dignity and to have it respected and protected. This is a significant value in a society known for its unfortunate past. Currie and De Waal (2010:276) assert that the "right to dignity is at the heart of the right not to be tortured or to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way". According to Oosthuizen *et al.* (2011:23), in conjunction with the right to life, human dignity is seen as the most important fundamental right in the Constitution. This was emphasised in the court case of *S v Makwanyane and M. Mchunu*, where judge Chaskalson concluded that the right to life and human dignity are inseparable:

Together they are the source of all other rights. Other rights may be limited, and may even be withdrawn and then granted again, but their ultimate limit is to be found in the preservation of the twin rights of life and dignity. These twin rights are the essential content of all rights under the Constitution. Take them away all other rights cease.

Every person, including a child, has the inherent right to be treated humanely. A court case which became a landmark for this right was that of *S v Williams*, where corporal punishment as a method of discipline was found to be unconstitutional (Oosthuizen *et al.*, 2011). It was found to be contradictory to the fundamental right of the child to have his or her human dignity protected. Teacher sport-coaches who administer corporal punishment to their learners, as part of a coaching approach, contravene this section as the learners' human dignity is compromised by this violent act. Similarly, teacher sport-coach who shout at an

athlete in front of the whole team for making a mistake, infringe on the right of the athlete to have his or her dignity respected and protected. Abusive coaches may make themselves guilty of these infringements when they, as a form of “encouragement” towards improved performances, hit athletes or use abusive language. Even just an abusive attitude that leads to humiliating incidences forms part of this negative element of sport coaching (Rossouw, 2006:117).

2.3.1.2 Equality

The Constitution of South Africa specifies in section 9(1) that everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law. Currie and De Waal (2010:230) argue that equality in a formal sense would necessitate “people who are similarly situated in relevant ways should be treated similarly”. Therefore, it is logical to deduce the idea that individuals who are not on equal footing should not be treated similarly (Currie & De Waal, 2010:230). However, these authors mention two ancillary ideas that prove to complicate the notion of similar treatment for similar people. The first issue revolves around what is relevant in establishing similarity of people and their situations, and the other issue focuses on what represents similar treatment of people who are positioned similarly. Nevertheless, the Constitution strives to achieve equality for all its inhabitants and to never exclude. This is especially noteworthy in a country where racial segregation and discrimination were rife only a few decades ago. The education sector was also influenced in the previous regime as opportunities were limited for non-whites and systems of teaching varied among racial lines. The Constitution states in section 9(3) that the state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language, and birth. Children are thus now protected from discrimination, where historically, this right was not granted to them.

Teacher sport-coaches are expected to uphold the abovementioned principles of equality. As is discussed throughout this study, some teacher sport-coaches utilise abusive coaching practices to improve the performance of their young athletes. Gervis and Dunn (2004:221) found that coaches will often overlook or disregard athletes not performing satisfactorily. In other words, coaches who emotionally abuse their athletes will act differently towards different athletes: athletes who perform poorer will be dealt with in a negative way as compared to the enthusiastic, supportive approach to those athletes seen as ‘gifted’. This

behaviour clearly displays unfair discrimination and a transgression of the aforementioned right to equality.

2.3.1.3 Education

It would be an understatement to assert that South Africa has a complicated past. With the pre-1994 government's apartheid system, non-white citizens were granted a substandard educational curriculum as opposed to their white counterparts who received world-class education from professional, trained teachers. With this in mind, section 29(1)(a) of the Constitution (South Africa, 1996), which states that everyone has the right to basic education, including adult basic education, is of the utmost of importance. Seeing that such education is central to this study, it should be noted that all learners – including learners of all races, ages, and intellectual ability – should be awarded the opportunity to receive an education. According to Brand and Heyns (2005:59), section 29 can be viewed as a socio-economic right, compelling the government to make education more readily available to all its inhabitants. Likewise, Brand and Heyns (2005:59) state that “it is also a civil and political right as it contains freedom of choice guarantees, such as language choice in schools.

When it comes to school sport as an extracurricular activity, no specific mention is made in the Constitution (South Africa, 1996) instructing schools to ensure that all learners participate. However, with the numerous benefits of participation in sport, it should be made a priority to ensure that, if a learner voluntarily wants to participate in school sport, the chance should be afforded without any reservation. Baily (2006:339) proposes that specific attention needs to be paid to prospective contributions that activities like school sport can make towards the social inclusion agenda, which, according to Baily, has been an aspect of much educational debate among lawmakers.

In South Africa, disparity still exists in education. In school sport, this is even more pronounced when comparing schools from rich and poor communities. The opportunities for early sport development are almost non-existent in poor communities with little to no resources for an adequate school sports programme. Regarding this study, teacher sport-coaches from the previously disadvantaged communities are less likely to succeed as coaches. Lack of funds to attain proper equipment and facilities lead to frustration on their part, which could ultimately lead to emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

2.3.1.4 Freedom and security of the person

The Constitution (South Africa, 1996a) recognises the right to two concepts pivotal in a free and unprejudiced society. These are the right to the security of a person and the right to freedom. Relevant to this study is the security of the child participating in school sport. In the context of school sport in South Africa, children should be offered coaching where their right to be protected from harm would be promulgated. Also, freedom in selecting to participate in school sport should not be taken for granted. Hughes (2014:245) believes that “the essence of the right to freedom and security of the person is a right to be left alone, which creates a sphere of individual bodily inviolability”. Teacher sport-coaches should therefore not violate this right, thereby respecting the sanctity this right bestows on all South Africans. Currie and De Waal (2010:308) further emphasise that “the right to bodily and psychological integrity is an important innovation in the 1996 Bill of Rights”.

In terms of section 12(1)(e), everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person, which includes the right not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way. Teacher sport-coaches who belittle, degrade or humiliate their athletes are in direct contravention of this section. It is expected of teacher sport-coaches to always consider the best interest of the athletes under their supervision and to never punish athletes in any way that can be considered to be abusive.

Teacher sport-coaches who demand perfection and have a “winning at all costs” temperament often display emotionally abusive behaviour towards those athletes they deem as underachievers (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:222). Constant verbal attacks (such as belittling, humiliating, or ignoring) employed by teacher sport-coaches are in direct contravention of this provision, as these behaviours threaten the freedom and security of the person by punishing athletes in a degrading manner. A teacher sport-coach who screams at an athlete after not performing adequately is a practical example of this provision not being upheld by the coach. Intentionally ignoring such a child when proper attention is expected may be even more humiliating.

2.3.1.5 Environment

The experience of *geborgenheit* can be directly related to the environment in which a person finds him- or herself (Rossouw, 2014:27). The Constitution (South Africa, 1996) provides that every citizen has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being. Currie and De Waal (2010) emphasises the importance of section 24(a) written in the

negative, since this signifies a 'non-harmful' instead of a positive right to a healthy environment. The objective is to establish a minimum standard of health and well-being with regard to the environment. Brand and Heyns (2005:260) highlight that the concepts of 'health' and 'well-being' are fundamental to section 24. Health distinctly relates to human health, which involves both mental and physical integrity. Mental and physical integrity could be threatened if children are put in a dangerous environment where their health and well-being might be at risk. Sports fields pose potential danger, which consequently places an obligation on teacher sport-coaches to take notice of any foreseeable harm that may occur whilst the athletes are under their supervision. According to Joubert and Prinsloo (2001:110), teachers should be aware of potential harmful situations learners may encounter and therefore necessary steps should be taken to ensure the safety of the learners under their supervision. It is expected of teacher sport-coaches, as part of their duty of care, to ensure the safety of the athletes entrusted to them and to safeguard the athletes against any dangerous situation. A teacher sport-coach who coaches rugby, for example, should be mindful of the potential risks involved in this sport during contact between players, which is inherent to the game. But the field of play and the surrounding environment should also be inspected beforehand so as to curb the chances of players getting injured due to an unsafe environment. For example, a teacher sport-coach should make sure that there are pole protectors during practice sessions or matches, which could prevent rugby players from obtaining serious injuries on the rugby field. Other associated hazards on large grass playing fields are fences, movable pavilions, water taps and irrigation pipes on or near the playing field. All sports equipment must be checked regularly for safety.

2.3.1.6 Children

In terms of section 28(1)(d) of the Constitution (South Africa, 1996), every child should be protected from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation. Section 28 serves as a provision for children only, who are seen as having special rights, distinct from adults. By making provision for various rights specifically applicable to children, this section obviously plays an important part in all education matters. The importance of education in a child's life should not be taken lightly; so, section 28 creates a backdrop for educational matters to be considered. A child should be offered a school environment where any form of abuse is eradicated and dealt with accordingly. However, considering the numerous accounts of former child athletes accusing coaches of abusive behaviour, attention should be given to children in school sport settings where they are subordinates to their teachers and are

therefore more vulnerable. This is even more pronounced in school sport where rules of discipline are often different than those in a classroom due to the different setting.

Section 28(2) specifies that a child's best interests are of paramount importance in every matter concerning the child – a legal principle that can be applied widely in almost every setting where a child is involved. Teacher sport-coaches should thus be aware of the rights of their athletes and when engaged in coaching, the well-being of the child (athletes) should always be borne in mind.

Herselman (2006:15) believes that one of the goals of section 28 is to protect children in vulnerable positions. The question can be raised as to what situations can be construed as potentially harmful to children. Numerous situations on the sports field can put children in a vulnerable position. The athlete is in a subordinate position to the teacher sport-coach in many ways. Athletes are dependent on their teacher sport-coach for selection and will therefore normally perform any task the teacher sport-coach requires of them. Coaches should thus always have reasonable expectations. Teacher sport-coaches should also employ safe coaching techniques and should possess the necessary knowledge of the sporting code they are coaching so as to make sure that participation is harmless to all athletes or, at least, to minimise the risk inherent to some sport codes. Section 28(2) states that a child's best interests should always be on the foreground and that a child should be protected against any harm he or she might experience in his or her daily life. This is intentionally written in a broad sense in order to accommodate the application of law to guarantee that the child's best interests are met in any circumstance (Davel, 2000:195). In other words, teacher sport-coaches should ensure that the child is safeguarded from any potential danger, and this is applicable to both practice and match settings.

Weber (1947) provides a famous portrayal of the concept of authority as a form of power legitimised by the agreement of those it controls. Teacher sport-coaches' authority lies in the great importance of keeping children safe when they participate in a potentially dangerous activity such as sport. An authority figure (i.e. a teacher sport-coach) is needed in school sport as children are not accountable due to their lack of maturity. Teacher sport-coaches, therefore, with their greater knowledge and experience, should be able to discipline a child as this would ensure that the best interests of the child are met in keeping him or her safe. When it comes to the safety of the child, the *in loco parentis* rule should be applied, as the teacher sport-coach stands in the place of the parent or in the absence of the child's caregivers. The *in loco parentis* rule can be applied to all activities related to the

school, including extracurricular pursuits, such as participation in school sport. This supervisory authority is delegated by the parents to grant teachers the opportunity to instil a safe and protective environment that is conducive to learning and proper development. According to Rossouw and Keet (2011:8), the *in loco parentis* position places a duty on teachers to ensure learners' physical and psychological well-being. However, numerous teacher sport-coaches are uncertain about the nature and extent of the legal responsibility they owe to their learners who participate in school sport (Rossouw, 2013:24). This lack of knowledge can jeopardise the safety of learners who participate in school sport. An empirical study conducted by Greenfield, Osborn and Rossouw (2011) found that teacher sport-coaches are aware of delictual liability regarding negligence related to physical injuries but are oblivious of the fact that abusive language in coaching may threaten the human dignity of learners and may therefore also constitute delictual liability if harm can be proven (Rossouw, 2013: 24).

Due to the inherent risk of sport participation, teacher sport-coaches should be knowledgeable about their responsibility to keep the learners under their supervision safe and secure. In addition, teacher sport-coaches should be aware that especially the younger learners under their supervision are children who are inherently impulsive beings, who are either not accountable or only partly accountable for their actions. This is especially noteworthy on the sports field where the chances for injury are much greater than in a classroom. Another important feature related to supervision is the great disparity in numbers between the learners and a teacher sport-coach. It is not uncommon for a single teacher sport-coach to be responsible for the well-being of 30 or more highly active learners at any given practice session. Therefore, knowledge of laws, regulations and legal principles play a pivotal role in safeguarding teacher sport-coaches whilst fulfilling their responsibilities toward those learners by not moving outside the parameters of accepted practice.

2.3.2 Education legislation

Education legislation contains legal rules and regulations determined by parties interested in the education sector (Oosthuizen *et al.*, 2011). Interested parties include the government, managers, educators, learners, parents and the community (Oosthuizen *et al.*, 2011). The main objective of education legislation is to provide guidelines to ensure harmonious interactions between educators and learners. As a result, the educators are entrusted to provide a safe and secure environment for learners, free of any obstacles that may impede on quality education practices. These laws are codified as written legal rules and are

promulgated by Parliament. In this study, education legislation will be analysed to determine the legal determinants that regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

2.3.2.1 The South African Schools Act (84 of 1996)

The South African Schools Act (84 of 1996) (henceforth 'the Schools Act') was passed to provide a uniform system to organise, govern and fund schools, including altering and revoking laws related to schools. The preamble of the Schools Act purports several objectives this act strives to achieve. The objectives of this Act are as follows:

- to redress past injustices in education provision;
- to provide high-quality education to all learners;
- to uphold the rights of all learners, parents and teachers (educators) and to promote their acceptance of responsibility for the organisation, governance and funding of schools;
- to advance the democratic transformation of society.

According to section 15 of the Schools Act, every public school is a juristic person with legal capacity to perform its functions in terms of this Act. As a result, public schools can be held liable for harm caused by unlawful conduct. Section 60(1)(a) stipulates the following:

(1)(a) Subject to paragraph (b), the State is liable for any delictual or contractual damage or loss caused as a result of any act or omission in connection with any school activity conducted by a public school and for which such public school would have been liable but for the provisions of this section.

The above section provides that the State will accept liability should it be found that teacher sport-coaches should be held liable for unlawful conduct. In the case of *Peter Wynkward v Minister of Education, Highlands Primary School*, a teacher was found to have been negligent when a young learner was paralysed after slipping and falling off a locked gate, consequently suffering head trauma. This case, although not relevant to school sport coaching, illustrates section 60(1)(a) of the Schools Act, as the Department of Basic Education was held liable for the alleged negligence of the teacher. In *Louw en 'n Ander v*

LUR vir Onderwys en Kultuur, Vrystaat, en 'n Ander, it was maintained that both departmental and SGB appointments would be included under this provision.

Furthermore, section 20 of the Schools Act is concerned with the functions of the governing body. Section 20(4) specifies that a public school may establish posts for educators and employ educators additional to the establishment determined by the Member of the Executive Council in terms of section 3(1) of the Educators' Employment Act (1994). Section 20(5) goes on to state that a public school may establish posts for non-educators and employ non-teaching staff additional to the establishment determined in terms of the Public Service Act (Proclamation 103 of 1994). According to section 20(1), the SGB must promote the best interests of the school and strive to ensure its development. Section 20(1)(e) further emphasises that the governing body should support the principal, educators and other staff of the school in the performance of their professional functions. The SGB should therefore assist teacher sport-coaches in their coaching duties to ensure proficient and professional conduct.

2.3.2.2 The South African Council for Educators Act (31 of 2000)

This act regulates the relationship between the teacher and learners. Rossouw and Keet (2011:22) believe that the Code of Professional Ethics, which functions as a schedule for the South African Council for Educators Act, contains provisions that could be applied to teacher sport-coaches' delictual liability.

According to par. 3.2 of the Code of Professional Ethics, a teacher should acknowledge the uniqueness, individuality and specific needs of each learner, guiding and encouraging each to realise his or her potential. Teacher sport-coaches' role is therefore to motivate their athletes and to actualise these athletes' talent(s). This guidance should be given in a non-threatening way. Section 3.5 stipulates that a teacher should avoid any form of humiliation and refrain from any form of abuse, whether physical or psychological. Physical abuse may involve overtraining or physically assaulting an athlete. Psychological abuse, on the other hand, may involve emotional outbursts or humiliating and belittling the athlete in order to achieve coaching goals.

2.3.2.3 The Employment of Educators Act (76 of 1998)

The Employment of Educators Act (EEA) (South Africa, 1998) strives to make provision for the employment of educators by the State and regulate the conditions of service, discipline,

retirement and discharge of educators and matters connected therewith. The EEA affords teacher sport-coaches additional information on the conditions of service, including aspects pertaining to school sport coaching. Some teacher sport-coaches may be unaware of their duties pertaining to coaching or the repercussions should they be perceived as incompetent in this task.

Although coaching and other extracurricular activities are not central to the teaching profession, teachers are commonly expected to assist in these practices. Section 11(1)(d) states that the educator may be discharged because of unfitness for the duties attached to his or her post or incapacity to carry out those duties efficiently. Teacher sport-coaches are therefore expected to perform their duties adequately so as not be in contradiction of section 18(1)(e), that stipulate than an act that is unlawful during duty if the act endangers their lives or those of others if set safety rules or regulations are disregarded.

2.3.2.4 Children's Act (38 of 2005)

The Children's Act (38 of 2005) is an example of legislation not written specifically to regulate the education sector, but of which teacher sport-coaches should take note. The Children's Act applies directly to teacher sport-coaches: section 8(2) stipulates that all organs of state in any sphere of government and all officials, employees and representatives of an organ of state must respect, protect and promote the rights of children contained in this Act.

Teacher sport-coaches should always be cognisant of the rights of the athletes under their supervision. Likewise, the rights of an injured athlete should be known in case of a medical intervention. According to Joubert and Prinsloo (2001:112), a child who gets injured under the supervision of a teacher should receive immediate medical treatment.

In the case of *Mogabgab v New Orleans District*, the plaintiff filed a lawsuit against the defendant for negligence ultimately leading to the subsequent death of the plaintiff's son. Mogabgab was involved in a training session for his school's football team when he suffered heat stroke and subsequently fell unconscious. It was alleged that the coach waited two hours after this incident to respond and call an ambulance. The plaintiff contested that if medical attention was administered sooner, the deceased would have still been alive.

The abovementioned case illustrates that the coach did not have the best interests of the child at heart during this particular practice session and hence acted in contravention of section 9 of the Children's Act. The best interest of the child is paramount. The Act stipulates

that, in all matters concerning care and well-being of a child, the standard that the child's best interest is of paramount importance must be applied.

2.3.3 Subordinate legislation

Due to the ever-changing landscape of our country, it is impossible to regulate every sphere of society as this will necessitate legislators to be in constant deliberation. Laws promulgated by parliament are formulated in broad terms. It is therefore necessary to draw upon subordinate legislation to provide more specific aspects emanating from regulations and proclamations.

2.3.3.1 Defining subordinate legislation

Subordinate legislation (also known as delegated legislation) can be defined as legislation that is formulated on lower levels, such as provincial structures, and is subordinate to parliamentary legislation that authorised the enactment of the delegated legislation (Marx, 2013:30).

2.3.3.2 Code of conduct for learners

In terms of section 8 of the South African Schools Act, the SGB should, after consultation with learners, parents and educators, lay down a code of conduct. This code of conduct should be adopted to establish a purposeful environment conducive to a quality learning process, according to section 2. Section 4 further stipulates that no learner is exempt from complying with the code of conduct. This also holds true for educators. Schouwstra (2008:40) advises that educators should acquaint themselves with the code of conduct of the school where they are employed in order to fulfil their legal duty of care. Teacher sport-coaches have a responsibility to adhere to the rules and regulations stipulated in the school's code of conduct and in doing so, keep the learners participating in school sport in a secured environment, save from harm.

2.4 COMMON LAW DETERMINANTS OF DELICTUAL LIABILITY

Rossouw (2006:22) defines common law as the uncodified legal tradition as derived from the Roman-Dutch and English law of the 17th century. However, the importance of common law should not be inflated, as several important fields of law are regulated by mini-codifications (Van der Merwe & Du Plessis, 2004:40). Legislation has reformed and augmented common law in all areas (Van der Merwe & Du Plessis, 2004:40). However, in

terms of section 39(2) and (3) of the Constitution, common law's importance is acknowledged to complement other sources of law (Oosthuizen *et al.*, 2011).

2.4.1 Introduction

In this section, common law principles relevant to emotional abuse in school sport coaching are discussed. The law of delict along with the duty of care and *in loco parentis* principles are analysed in order ascertain how these legal determinants regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching. The five elements of delictual liability are subsequently applied to the practice of school sport coaching by teacher sport-coaches.

According to McManus (2013:1), the law of delict forces the person who injures another to compensate the victimised party. It is known as tort law in countries such as England and the USA. A delict (tort) does not constitute a criminal offence, but rather entails a civil wrong being committed (Spengler, Anderson, Connaughton & Baker, 2016:14). In criminal law, a penalty or imprisonment may be the punishment garnered for conduct deemed unlawful. In the law of delict, the punishment will only entail reparations in the form of a monetary obligation (Spengler *et al.*, 2016:22). In other words, the act that is seen as unlawful necessitates the wrongdoer to reimburse the victim for the damage caused. The application of the law of delict in a sporting context is described by Basson and Loubser (2001) in chapter 5-10 as follows: "under the law of delict an injured player or spectator can claim compensation for physical, psychological and financial damage caused by an injury attributable to the intentional or negligent conduct of a player or official."

Delictual liability refers to a person being held accountable for damage suffered by another as a direct consequence of the first-mentioned person's negligence. In terms of section 15 of the Schools Act, "every public school is a juristic person, with legal capacity to perform its functions in terms of this Act." However, as stipulated in section 60(1) of the Schools Act:

the State is liable for any delictual or contractual damage or loss caused as a result of any act or omission in connection with any school activity conducted by a public school and for which such public school would have been.

This is known as vicarious liability but does not apply to all cases of liability and as a result, provisions are made in sub-sections 2 to 5 of section 60 of the Schools Act.

2.4.1 Functions of the law of delict

Loubser, Midgley, Mukheibir, Niesing and Perumal (2010:8) list the following inherent functions of the law of delict:

- compensate for damages suffered or interests affected;
- protect certain interests;
- promote social order and cohesion;
- maintain and strengthen values;
- provide socially acceptable compromises between conflicting moral views;
- discourage wrongdoers of acting the same in the future as well discouraging others from wrongful behaviour;
- reallocation and distribution of damage.

Of particular importance to teacher sport-coaches, is the function of protecting certain interests. Loubser *et al.* (2010) include interests pertaining to mental health in the form of pain and suffering associated with physical injury. In the case of *Koffman v Garnett*, the defensive coach of Koffman's football team was held delictually liable for an aggressive tackle performed on the plaintiff. Koffman argued that, because of gross negligence on the part of Garnett, he suffered a broken humerus bone. The mere act of tackling a player Garnett outweighed by 50 kg, led to the horrific injury. This injury may have caused serious mental anguish and suffering as well, potentially keeping the plaintiff from ever playing football again.

Another function of the law of delict relevant to teacher sport-coaches is to maintain and strengthen values. The law of delict seeks to articulate normative rules of conduct to lead individuals and to avert people from wrongful conduct (Loubser *et al.*, 2010). Loubser *et al.* (2010) assert that the law of delict, more than ever before, serves to maintain and uphold fundamental human rights as described in the Constitution and the Bill of Rights.

2.4.2 Remedies

In most cases where a delict is committed, compensation is awarded to the party suffering damages. An interdict is another remedy used when a delict was committed (Loubser *et al.*, 2010:13). An interdict, in fact, is not seen as a remedy that focuses on compensation as it is an action seeking to prevent damage. The law of delict in South Africa rests on three pillars (Neethling, Potgieter & Visser, 2010). These pillars are the *actio legis Aquiliae*, the *actio iniuriarum*, and the action for pain and suffering. Table 2.2 indicates the different remedies involved in the law of delict (adapted from Loubser *et al.*, 2010:14).

Table 2.2 Different remedies in the law of delict

| Type of damage | Action taken |
|---|--|
| Pecuniary loss | Actio legis Aquiliae or Aquilian action |
| Pain and suffering (mental and physical harm) | The Germanic action after impairment of mental or physical integrity |
| Non-pecuniary loss | Actio iniuriarum |

2.5 DELICTUAL ELEMENTS

Rossouw (2006:34) distinguishes between five elements of a delict which should be proven for an individual to be found delictually liable. An act should have been committed by a defendant or he or she omitted to act accordingly. It is obvious that damage must be experienced in order for a liability case to be proven. Unlawfulness of the act ought to be identified in order for liability to be incurred. There must be a causal link between the act and damage suffered by the victim. Lastly, fault can be either intentionally or negligently caused and is determined by evaluating all the facts of the case in its entirety. These five elements should all be proven to be found legally liable and for compensation to be requested by the wronged party.

2.5.1 Act

Loubser *et al.* (2010:63) point out that a delict cannot be proven if an act of a person or behaviour of an animal cannot be linked to the damage suffered. Loubser *et al.* (2015:25-26) describe conduct as comprising of the following characteristics:

- only the act of a human being is accepted as conduct;

- human action only constitutes conduct if it is performed voluntary;
- conduct may be in the form of either a positive act or an omission.

Therefore, an act that is seen as an “act of God” cannot be viewed as unlawful (Rossouw, 2006:38). A golf player who got struck by lightning while playing a round of golf cannot hold the golf course owner liable seeing that the act was not committed by a person but by an act of God. Subsequently, an act must likewise occur voluntarily, where the defendant had performed out of free will and not due to an involuntary action or reflex (Rossouw, 2006:38). A teacher sport-coach who fainted and collapsed on his young athlete, breaking the victim’s arm, cannot be held accountable, as the act did not transpire due to the free will of the coach. Rossouw (2006:38) asserts that “voluntariness does not mean that the person necessarily willed or desired the conduct”. Consequently, a person (perpetrator) can be held liable even if the resulting damage was not intended by him or her.

An act requires overt behaviour to be delictually liable; in other words, thoughts that are not manifested cannot create a case of delictual liability (Loubser *et al.*, 2010:63). Actions can be classified as follows: malfeasance, where a person committed an act that he or she should not have; misfeasance, where a person did not conduct himself or herself in a manner that is lawfully obligated; and non-feasance, where a person should have acted but failed to do so (Mawdsley, 2003).

2.5.2 Unlawfulness

Loubser *et al.* (2015:33) are of the opinion that “an act that causes harm is in itself insufficient to give rise to delictual liability”. An act must be unlawful for delictual liability to ensue. According to Loubser *et al.* (2015:34), wrongfulness rests upon a violation of a legally protected interest in a legally culpable way. In other words, teacher sport-coaches can only be held delictually liable for unlawful conduct if they perform acts deemed to cause physical or psychological harm.

Furthermore, according to Louw (2010:371) “the unlawfulness requirement in delict relates to the general duty, in terms of the legal convictions of the community or *boni mores*”. This rule rests on all individuals to not encroach on the subjective rights of others (Louw, 2010:371). Subjective rights can be defined as rights a person possesses and where it is compulsory for others to respect these rights (Oosthuizen, De Wet & Rossouw, 2011:98). Neethling *et al.* (2010) describe three tests which could be utilised to determine unlawfulness. The *boni mores* test, as is mentioned above, stipulates the rules conveying

the legal convictions that reign in a specific community (Louw, 2010). The violation of a person's subjective rights and the failure to realise a legal responsibility towards the victim are the other two tests used to determine the unlawfulness of an act. Teacher sport-coaches have a legal duty to protect the athletes they coach. According to the law of delict, a duty of care must be established before someone can be assumed to be liable for damage experienced because of negligent behaviour (Beloff, Kerr & Demetriou, 1999:112-113).

In the context of this study, teacher-sport coaches can be found legally liable if they did not exercise their duty of care owed to their athletes. It should be noted that not all harmful conduct constitutes unlawfulness. In other words, a teacher sport-coach may harm his or her athletes without it constituting an unlawful act. Cloete (2005:109) describes instances where an infringement of a person's rights is not seen as unlawful, which is known as "grounds for justification". These defences include self-defence, provocation, consent to injury, assumption of risk, emergency, and statutory authority (Cloete, 2005:109-110). For example, a teacher sport-coach who acted negligently in an emergency, may use this defence as his or her undiscerning conduct was committed to prevent more harm or even death.

The duty of care principle is pivotal to establishing unlawfulness (Loubser *et al.*, 2010:147). Teacher sport-coaches owe the athletes under their supervision a high standard of care to ensure their safety. If it is believed that a teacher sport-coach's conduct fell below the standard of care, delictual liability will follow. As Rossouw (2006:42) suggests, coaches should be mindful of the distinction between lawful and unlawful behaviour, as they can be held liable if they do not apply their duty of care to protect victims from unlawful conduct.

2.5.3 Damage

Damage is one of the elements that needs to be confirmed to establish delictual liability. The general compensatory function of the law of delict implies that there must be some loss or damage for which the law makes compensation available (Loubser *et al.*, 2015:221). Damage is defined as "the detrimental impact upon any patrimonial or personality interest deemed worthy of protection by the law" (Loubser *et al.*, 2015:222). It can be categorised into two forms of loss: patrimonial damage, and loss to personal rights (Rossouw, 2006:46). Patrimonial loss entails financial damage, whilst loss of personal rights can be viewed as an injury to the physical or psychological make-up of a person. According to Rossouw (2006:46), "the educator-coach and his school should be aware of these types of damage because the extent of the damage is calculated with reference to these items of damage".

2.5.3.1 Patrimonial loss

Property damage may include the loss or damage of any personal possession of the learner. This may include schoolbooks, school clothes, bicycles, or any other personal belonging of the learner (Oosthuizen *et al.*, 2011:100). Medical expenses accrued as a result of physical or psychological damage inflicted by a defendant is also categorised under the heading of patrimonial loss. Oosthuizen *et al.* (2011:100) stress that, in the case of a minor requiring medical treatment, the parents will typically invoke litigation on behalf of their child so as to lessen their financial strain. Lastly, loss of income and earning capacity is viewed as a form of patrimonial loss. For example, a child prodigy in soccer, with the potential of someday playing professional soccer earning millions, might file a lawsuit against an opponent due to a career-ending tackle leading to early retirement. The earning capacity of the child prodigy is therefore foregone due to the damage caused by the defendant.

Patrimonial loss can be distinguished according to the following forms (Loubser, Midgley, Mukheibir, Niesing and Perumal, 2015:231):

- **Damnum emergens and lucrum cessans:** The expression *lucrum cessans* means loss of profit, but can also be used to illustrate prospective loss and patrimonial expectancy.
- **Damage to property and pure economic loss:** Accordingly, there is a clear distinction between damage and physical damage to property. The latter refers to the impairment of the physical object of a real right, while damage is a much broader concept.
- **Direct and consequential loss:** The distinction between direct and consequential damage is made for the purposes of limitation of liability. Direct loss indicates the immediate or direct loss of a damage-causing event, while consequential damage is the loss which flows from direct loss.
- **General and special damage:** General damage often refers to damage which is presumed to flow from an unlawful act and which needs only be pleaded generally, while special damage means loss in respect of which such a presumption does not apply and which must be specially pleaded and proved.

2.5.3.2 Non-patrimonial loss

Loubser *et al.* (2015:250) define non-patrimonial damage as “the detrimental impact (change in or factual disturbance of) personality interests deemed worthy of protection by the law and which does not affect the patrimony”. Non-patrimonial damage thus focuses on interests of personality. As Loubser *et al.* (2015:251) reiterate, non-patrimonial loss centres on the idea of an impairment of interest or personality that leads to a decrease in their quality. Oosthuizen (2003:96) further depicts non-patrimonial loss as “damage that results (resulting) from infringement of physical or mental bodily integrity”. Loubser *et al.* (2015:251) mention the following personality rights: physical-mental integrity; liberty; reputation; dignity; privacy; identity; and feelings.

Loubser *et al.* (2015:253) claim that “a distinction is made between physical and psychological aspects of the human body”. Nonetheless, physical and psychological processes are connected through various areas in the brain and central nervous system. Pain and suffering is a common form of injury to the rights of personality, where a plaintiff may request compensation for all the anguish, distress or discomfort resulting from the injury in both the past and the future (Loubser *et al.*, 2015).

Consequences of emotional shock may be similar to the concept of pain and suffering, but may lead to further impairment, such as mania, insomnia, and anxiety problems. Emotional shock of a moderately serious nature is unlawful, whereas shock of short duration, which has no considerable effect on the well-being of a person, is not.

Disfigurement entails all forms of facial and physical deformity, including loss of a limb, scars, and all facial or bodily deformation. Loss of the amenities of life refers to any debility, including physical or mental, whether temporary or permanent, which reduces the enjoyment of life as the person experienced it before the unlawful act. Lastly, shortened life expectancy can also be seen as a form of harm for which damages may be granted.

2.5.4 Causality

To be held delictually liable, one needs to prove whether a causal link can be established between the act and the damage – in other words, the act caused the damage (Neethling & Potgieter, 2010:185). Cloete (2005:116) explains that “this requirement is often problematic since one act can have innumerable consequences”. A teacher sport-coach cannot be held delictually liable if his or her conduct did not cause the ensuing damage. Loubser *et al.* (2010) is of the opinion that, in order for a defendant to be held delictually liable, the plaintiff

should prove beyond reasonable doubt that the damage they had suffered was directly caused by the conduct of the defendant. Kleyn and Viljoen (2010:143) describe causality as a link between the defendant's conduct and the plaintiff's damage. Causality can be established by posing whether the damage would still have transpired if the unlawful act had not been committed (Cloete, 2005:117). If the answer to this question is yes, then causality can be proven, whereas, if the answer is no, causality cannot be proven beyond reasonable doubt (Cloete, 2005:117).

2.5.4.1 Forms of causality

To determine a causal link between a specific act and the ensuing damage, an investigation takes place, representing two distinguishable components of causality: factual causality refers to a factual investigation, and juridical causality refers to a juridical investigation.

2.5.4.2 Factual causality

Loubser *et al.* (2015:183) claim:

the question of whether there is a nexus in a particular case is a question of fact that must always be answered in light of the available evidence and relevant probabilities and that may in suitable instances be dealt with first in the course of a trial.

According to Loubser *et al.* (2010), to determine if a factual link exists between the defendant's conduct and the damage, the liability of the defendant should be established. Rossouw (2006:47) asserts that the most commonly accepted theory regarding factual causality is the *conditio sine qua non* theory, also known as the "but for" test. Rossouw (2006:47) explains that, in this theory, "an act that has caused damage when the act cannot be ignored without the damage simultaneously disappearing". Courts accept the *conditio sine qua non* theory as the simplest and most comprehensible method of justifying the existence of a causal link (Loubser *et al.*, 2015:185). Van Oosten (1982) stresses that the *conditio sine qua non* theory is not merely a factual test for causality but also a legal test.

In the case of *Pinchin v Santam Insurance Co Ltd*, a pregnant woman suffered injuries following an automobile accident. The baby was born with cerebral palsy and subsequently, the father claimed damages from the negligent driver on behalf of the child. The court found that the claim for injuries was reasonable, but in this case, it could not be proved on a balance of probabilities that the cerebral palsy was not directly initiated by the accident.

2.5.4.3 Juridical causality

Loubser *et al.* (2015:197) emphasises that “no legal system holds a wrongdoer liable without some limitations for the endless chain of harmful consequences which his act may have caused”. In other words, some limitation should be found concerning the wrongdoer’s liability. Juridical causality will typically come to pass where it is alleged that a defendant cannot be held liable for all the consequences related to the act.

Neethling *et al.* (2010:218) explain two theories that are typically used to determine juridical causality. *Novus actus interveniens* can be described as an event that is unconnected to the initial act and occurs following the act caused by the perpetrator. For example, Y shoots and injures X. The ambulance transporting X is then involved in an automobile accident due to the negligence of the ambulance driver, resulting in the death of X. According to the *novus actus interveniens* rule, Y cannot also be held liable for the damage caused by the automobile accident.

Another theory frequently used in establishing juridical causality is called the *talem qualem* rule, also known as the “thin-skull” rule. The *talem qualem* rule involves the victim experiencing more severe damage due to some or other physical weakness as opposed to the victim not suffering from the aforementioned weakness. In *Mountford v Newlands School*, a rugby player was injured after a tackle executed by an opponent older and twice the weight of the victim. As it is not against the law for learners of different sizes to play against each other, the principal of the older boy’s school was not held liable for the resultant damage. The *talem qualem* rule cannot be employed when the boys differ in size. However, it is relevant where a player had suffered a concussion, but was then allowed by the teacher sport-coach to participate in the following fixture, leading to a more serious head injury.

2.5.5 Fault

To be held delictually liable, it is not sufficient to only demonstrate that damage was caused unlawfully (Loubser *et al.*, 2010:101). Defendants should also be found to be at fault. Two forms of fault can be distinguished, namely intention (*dolus*), and negligence (*culpa*). Loubser *et al.* (2015:129) mention that “these terms generally refer to the legal blameworthiness of the reprehensible state of the mind or conduct of someone who has acted wrongfully”. Fault can therefore be seen as a subjective component of the law of delict as it is affected by a person’s attitude or temperament (Loubser *et al.*, 2015:129). Before intent or negligence can be determined, it should be ascertained if the person is accountable

for his or her actions. Loubser *et al.* (2015:131) believe a person is “accountable if he has the necessary mental ability to distinguish between right and wrong and if he can also act in accordance with such appreciation”. If the defendant cannot be held accountable for his or her conduct, delictually liability cannot be established.

2.5.5.1 Intent

The basic conception is that a person is at fault when he or she intends to cause damage to another, knowing it is wrong to act in such a manner (Loubser *et al.*, 2010:108). Intent is subjective considering that courts need to determine what the accused was thinking at the time of committing a wrongful act.

Three forms of intent are described by Loubser *et al.* (2015:133):

- Direct intent (*dolus directus*): the wrongdoer actually desires a particular consequence of his conduct;
- Indirect conduct (*dolus indirectus*): the wrongdoer directly intends one consequence of his conduct but at the same time knows that another consequence will unavoidably also occur;
- *Dolus eventualis*: the wrongdoer, while not desiring a particular result, foresees that he or she may cause the result and reconciles himself or herself to this fact.

Another requirement of intent specifies that it is not sufficient for the wrongdoer to simply direct his or her will at initiating a specific outcome, as it is also a necessary condition for him or her to know or at least foresee the likelihood that the conduct may be unlawful (Loubser *et al.*, 2015:135). It should therefore be proved beyond reasonable doubt that an act was committed with the intention of being unlawful and not just a mistake of some sort. This requirement, known as the knowledge of wrongfulness, is a necessary requirement to be held delictually liable under the law of delict.

2.5.5.2 Negligence

According to Loubser *et al.* (2015:137), negligence can be ascertained if “a person is blamed for an attitude or conduct of carelessness, thoughtlessness or imprudence because, by giving insufficient attention to his actions, he failed to adhere to the standard of care legally required of him”. For negligence to be established, it should be determined if a person had a duty of care to the victimised party. The reasonable person test, also known as *bonus*

paterfamilias, is the criterion typically employed to determine if an act can be construed as negligent (Loubser *et al.*, 2015:137).

The reasonable person is a fictional or abstract concept that determines the standard for which the reasonableness of an act committed by a defendant may be measured (Loubser *et al.*, 2010:116). The reasonable person test should be reliable and consistent as well as sensitive to reflect a society where citizens possess different skills and differ in terms of intellect and age (Loubser *et al.*, 2010:116). The reasonable person represents an average person who takes regular risks and plans to take reasonable precautions to protect their interests and who ultimately expects the same of others (Loubser *et al.*, 2010:116). A person should therefore act in the same fashion as what would be expected of a reasonable, average citizen in the community.

Two pillars form the foundation on which to test negligence: the foreseeability of damage, and the preventability of damage. For an act to be negligent, it should be determined if the damage could have been foreseen by the person who had a duty of care to uphold. If damage is foreseeable, it should be prevented. Preventability relates to the individual who foresees negative consequences to act accordingly (as is expected of a reasonable person) so as to prevent this foreseeable damage from occurring.

A teacher is viewed as a professional and is therefore expected to uphold a higher standard of care than the reasonable person (Oosthuizen, 2009:197-198). Teacher sport-coaches' duty of care should consequently be measured on the reasonable-teacher standard as more care should be provided by a more knowledgeable teacher. Teacher sport-coaches who coach young athletes are more knowledgeable about potential harm that may occur on the sports field and are therefore expected to act in accordance to this higher standard of care in order to safeguard their athletes from any potential damage.

The following factors can be seen as requirements to ensure the duty of care (Loubser *et al.*, 2010:129-131):

- General practices

These general practices usually proclaim suitable models of behaviour as can be seen with the school code, which clarifies what method of conduct is acceptable for teachers and learners.

- Sufficient presumption of the reasonable conduct of others

Individuals will act in a reasonable manner and also expect others to uphold this criterion – for example, teacher sport-coaches coaching their athletes to obey the rules of the sport and expecting their opponents to adhere to the same rules.

- Immediate danger and error in judgement

In an emergency, it is expected that people will not always act in a lucid and logical manner. However, it is still expected of an individual to adhere to the requirements of the reasonable person standard, namely that the situation should have been one of imminent danger, the situation was not initiated by a negligent act on the part of the individual, and the necessary precautions were taken to not act unreasonably in the emergency situation.

- Not acting in accordance to a statutory provision

Teacher sport-coaches should adhere to all statutory regulations or promulgations.

- Handling of objects, people or circumstances deemed as dangerous

Teacher sport-coaches who coach a contact sport, such as rugby, should be aware of the potential dangers of the sport and should thus safeguard their athletes from any possible situation that may lead to serious harm or injury.

- Danger for children or people suffering from disabilities or any deficiency

Children and people with disabilities must not be placed in a situation that they are not able to handle appropriately.

One defence commonly employed in sport, especially in contact sport, is the *volenti non fit iniuria* principle. According to this principle, a person consented to the possibility of injury and therefore the wrongdoer is not liable. This principle is only relevant to situations where the injury took place within the rules of the sport and still incorporates the basic principle of reasonableness.

2.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the legal determinants that regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching were discussed. First, a brief introduction was provided on how the South African legal system originated and what it constitutes today. Three sources of law, namely legislation, common law and case law, were examined with the purpose of obtaining a legal framework. The Constitution was considered as it seen as the 'supreme law' of South Africa. Original and subordinate legislation were then discussed in accordance to relevant rules

and regulations pertaining to emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Common law principles were then explored, focusing on the law of delict and how it pertains to the delictual liability of teacher sport-coaches. In conclusion, relevant case law was integrated as pertinent court cases related to the phenomenon of emotional abuse in school sport coaching were considered.

CHAPTER 3

A PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE ON EMOTIONAL ABUSE IN SCHOOL SPORT COACHING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the psychological perspectives on emotional abuse in school sport coaching. In the first section, the key concepts of this study are described. The three elements of emotional abuse in sport are then elaborated upon. Thereafter, the three forms of emotional abuse in school sport are described. Next, the different contexts for emotional abuse in school sport are discussed. This includes both the elite sport and school sport contexts. Thereafter, the causes of emotional abuse in sport are discussed as well as the consequences of emotional abuse on athletes. Lastly, theories related to the concept of emotional abuse in school sport coaching are discussed.

3.2 KEY CONCEPTS

3.2.1 Emotional abuse in sport

Emotional abuse in the school sport context is the main phenomenon under investigation in this study. It is therefore imperative to grasp exactly what this concept entails. Stirling and Kerr (2014:117) provides a definition, describing emotional abuse as “a pattern of deliberate noncontact behaviours experienced directly by an individual within a critical relationship role that has the potential to be harmful to the individual’s emotional well-being”. Stirling and Kerr (2008:178) believe that emotional abuse, specifically athletes’ experiences of such behaviour, can be categorised as continuous and recurrent patterns of behaviour. Also, this behaviour should occur within a significant relationship (Stirling & Kerr, 2008:178). Lastly, the emotionally abusive behaviour should be exerted intentionally by the perpetrator (Stirling & Kerr, 2008:178). These elements will now be discussed in the following section.

3.2.2 Three elements of emotional abuse

3.2.2.1 Sustained and repetitive

According to Stirling and Kerr (2014:118), “there is a pattern of harmful behaviours in the coach-athlete relationship, and these behaviours occur on multiple occasions and over a period of time.” In other words, to be construed as emotional abuse, teacher sport-coaches

should emotionally abuse their athletes over a prolonged period of time. It therefore cannot be a single case of abuse that transpires as this could be construed to be the exception rather than the rule. In this study, teacher sport-coaches who, over time, employs emotionally abusive practices to demean, humiliate and ridicule their athletes, portray the notion that this abuse is part of their coaching practices and seen as a necessary part of instructing athletes. As is discussed later in this chapter, the sustained and repetitive use of emotionally abusive behaviour can have detrimental consequences for the victims.

3.2.2.2 Emotional abuse that occur within a critical relationship

According to Stirling (2011:68), emotional abuse is a “relational disorder and refers to a pattern of harmful behaviours that exist in a critical relationship role”. In sport, a critical relationship could be a relationship between an athlete and his or her parent, or an athlete and his or her coach (Stirling, 2011:68). Stirling (2011:68) suggests that for a coach-athlete relationship to constitute a critical relationship, it should resemble a parent-child relationship. In other words, the coach should have influence over the athlete’s life and should be responsible for the well-being of the athlete. It is a critical relationship when “the athlete must depend on the coach for his or her sense of safety, trust, and fulfilment of needs” (Stirling, 2011:68). Notably, it is this same model of behaviours arising within a critical relationship that represents abuse. A teacher sport-coach is the dominant person in the coach-athlete relationship. Furthermore, the coach-athlete relationship has been proven to be one characterised by a distorted sense of balance, with the coach holding power over the athlete due to factors ranging from age and knowledge to experience and access to sources and incentives (Tomlinson & Strachan, 1996). The power the coach holds over an athlete will be discussed in further detail in par. 3.4.3, which focuses on the causes of emotional abuse in sport.

3.2.2.3 The emotionally abusive behaviour should be exerted intentionally by the perpetrator

In cases of emotional abuse, while the emotionally abusive behaviours may not be employed with the intent to cause harm, the behaviour that causes harm is performed intentionally. Emotionally abusive behaviours in a coach-athlete relationship might include disparaging comments, mockery, belittlement, name-calling, embarrassment, threatening the athlete with physical violence and deliberately ignoring an athlete, for example. In the context of this study, teacher sport-coaches may not intentionally emotionally abuse their athletes but

may intentionally employ emotionally abusive practices that are seen as part of sport participation.

3.2.3 Three forms of emotional abuse in sport

Stirling and Kerr (2008) conducted interviews with 14 elite female swimmers. Findings of the study revealed that emotionally abusive behaviour in sport occurred in the following three ways: physical behaviours; verbal behaviours; and denial of attention and support (Stirling & Kerr, 2008:175).

3.2.3.1 Physical behaviours

According to Stirling and Kerr (2008:175), physically abusive acts include aggression, such as punching and throwing articles at the athlete or in the company of the athlete. The athletes in Stirling and Kerr's study reported that these acts of throwing objects occurred after the coach deemed the performance as inadequate. The athletes further stated that the items thrown by the coach included drinks, flag poles, chairs, water bottles and erasers. These physical behaviours can be seen as a form of intimidation. Weinberg and Weinberg (2007:54) define intimidation as "an ancient pattern of behaviour used by one group to control another". Intimidation can therefore be seen as a method employed by teacher sport-coaches to control their athletes and to let them know that they are being controlled. Throwing and punching objects can also be seen as an outlet for frustration caused by unachieved goals.

3.2.3.2 Verbal behaviours

The next category, verbal behaviours, include yelling and screaming at athletes or groups of athletes, shaming, humiliating, and using degrading and disparaging comments (Stirling & Kerr, 2008:175). An abusive coach would usually yell and scream during training sessions and matches. These verbal behaviours were also found by Gervis and Dunn (2004), whose sample of elite athletes voiced key behaviours linked to emotional abuse. These behaviours included belittling, scapegoating, humiliating, and ignoring. Ignoring will be dealt with in the next section on the coach's denial of attention.

Firstly, belittling is the deliberate act of causing someone to feel insignificant, worthless, and rejected (Brown, 2008). Belittling can be seen as a form of abuse where language is used in a prejudiced, criticising and vilifying fashion (Brown, 2008). Typically, belittling involves statements or words that are personally demeaning to the victim of such abuse (Brown, 2008). It can create a sense of insignificance and desolation in many individuals falling victim

to this form of psychological abuse. When someone belittles a person, he or she is often unconcerned with the personhood of the other (Brown, 2008). Belittling can have a devastating impact on the life of a child (Brown, 2008). Similarly, as Goodwin (2012) points out, belittling, like most forms of psychological abuse, leaves no observable or distinguishable bruises. This leads to obvious concerns identifying, combatting and preventing this form of psychological abuse. In the context of this study, teacher sport-coaches might belittle an athlete by name-calling, usually in the presence of other athletes. Teacher sport-coaches employ this form of emotional abuse as punishment due to an unfulfilled goal or objective.

Scapegoating can be defined as “the act of blaming and often punishing a person or group for a negative outcome that is due, at least in large part, to other causes” (Rothschild, Landau, Sullivan & Keefer, 2012:1148). Rothschild *et al.* (2012:1148) propose a model that serves two objectives when it comes to describing scapegoating. Firstly, scapegoating serves to “[maintain] perceived personal moral value by minimising feelings of guilt over one’s responsibility for a negative outcome” (Rothschild *et al.*, 2012:1148). Also, scapegoating can help maintain apparent personal control by gaining a clear description for a seemingly incomprehensible negative result that is otherwise problematic to justify or regulate (Rothschild *et al.*, 2012:1148). Douglas (1995) suggests that scapegoating can be seen as a strategy that individuals use to lessen feelings of guilt over their accountability for a specific negative consequence by reprimanding another individual or group for that outcome.

In the context of this study, teacher sport-coaches would employ scapegoating when an athlete is blamed for a loss due to an inadequate performance. As is mentioned above, teacher sport-coaches would blame the athlete for failure of achieving a specific objective, leading to emotional abuse. As is seen with the description of scapegoating, a teacher sport-coach would underrate his or her involvement in the failure of some perceived goal, while putting all the responsibility on the shoulders of the athlete(s).

Furthermore, humiliation is usually noted as having the same meaning as embarrassment, indignity or being dishonoured (Leask, 2013:131). Humiliation is an act that initiates a transformation for the worse in sufferers and in their outlook about themselves and their connection to the world (Leask, 2013:131). It is clear from this description that humiliation is an extremely detrimental form of emotional abuse, with the victim’s sense of self altering and becoming more negative. As Leask (2013:131) postulates, the key factor in humiliation

is power. Leask (2013:131) suggests that “the victim of an act of humiliation can be described not as feeling but as being humiliated, as the victim of an act of power”. The act of humiliation is executed actively by one individual to another, even if it occurs through organisations or is aimed in principle at groups (Leask, 2013:131). As Leask (2013:131) asserts, “it is a demonstration of the capacity to use power unjustly with apparent impunity”. Teacher sport-coaches who humiliate their athletes utilise their power they possess over their athletes to get them to perform adequately. It can be seen as a form of abuse that happens unpredictably, with the teacher sport-coach who suddenly and without being provoked, humiliates the athlete.

3.2.3.3 Denial of attention and support

The third form of emotional abuse exhibited by coaches is the denial of attention and support. This involves, for example, paying no attention to athletes or omitting them from sport practices or matches (Stirling & Kerr, 2008:176). Athletes are often in awe of their coaches. They view their coaches as knowledgeable and an integral part of succeeding in a particular sport. In their study, Stirling and Kerr (2008:176) mentioned that a coach who denied athletes attention or support had the most damaging effect on the athletes. Purdy (2017:122) believes that a reason for the athletes’ difference in opinion regarding the severity of the three forms of emotional abuse could be correlated to the athlete’s self-esteem that is being threatened by the denial of attention. Purdy (2017:122) goes on to assert that the denial of attention executed by coaches could lead to the termination of the coach-athlete relationship. The denial of attention and support is a reason why many athletes believe they should be punished in this manner as they are not worthy of the coach’s attention. It is obvious how the negative effects of this could even potentially lead to athletes ending their participation in a certain sport. Emotional abuse may ensue due to the coach’s effort to advance the athlete to a higher level of participation and then, ultimately, loses control over his or her emotions (Stirling & Kerr, 2013:93).

3.3 SCHOOL SPORT CONTEXT

Emotional abuse in sport can be categorised into two sporting contexts, namely emotional abuse in elite sport, and emotional abuse that occurs in school sport. These two contexts are discussed next.

3.3.1 Elite sport

Stirling and Kerr (2014:92) describe a person involved in elite sport as “an athlete who competes or trains at the national and/or international level(s)”. In the quest for sporting success, a high demand is put on elite athletes to perform (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:215). This pressure is put on the shoulders of young athletes between the ages of 8 and 16 years (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:215-216). According to Donnelly (1997), the pressures of performing at a high level lead to these athletes training for lengthier times and being driven in practise to more strenuous sessions. Consequently, an increased emphasis on winning leads to athletes devoting more and more time to their coaches (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:216). Gervis and Dunn (2004:216) state that the “relationship between them could be the most significant relationship that a child has with an adult”. MacAuley (1996:275) believes that these elite athletes may view their coaches as more influential than their parents. As the child moves up the sporting ranks, the relationship the coach has with the athlete becomes even more noteworthy because the coach has control and power over the child’s athletic career (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:216). Coaches who coach elite athletes have a lot vested in these athletes’ performances. It is not unheard of for coaches to be awarded lucrative rewards or incentives for winning a league or championship. Some coaches view the athletes they coach as vehicles to a successful career, and therefore they might push or pressure athletes to train harder to become mentally and physically tougher as a means of accomplishing their own career goals and objectives.

Gervis and Dunn (2004:216) believe that “in order to appreciate the role of the coach in the production of world-class performances, there is a need to understand what it takes to achieve excellence in sport”. These authors go on to state that, for athletes to compete at elite levels of their sporting codes, various sacrifices need to be made (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:216). Elite athletes train for several hours a day. It is common for athletes to be pushed to the extremes in order to gain positive results. The sport dictates their entire life and often isolates them from friends and family (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:216). Gervis and Dunn (2004:216) claims that emotional abuse in elite sport occurs as a result of the following:

If an elite child athlete trains 6 days a week for several hours a day, there is very little time left for anything else except school, sleeping and eating. Athletes also travel abroad to compete and can spend even more time with their coaches than with their parents. The coach is therefore in a position of considerable influence, which makes the elite child athlete very vulnerable if this is misused.

Due to the close proximity of coaches to their athletes and the level of commitment sought by coaches, elite athletes could easily fall prey to emotionally abusive practices (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:216). Coaches spend considerable time with their athletes and in doing so, get to know their athletes on a personal level (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:216). As the success of an athlete's career, in part, relies on the expertise of the coach, the coach is seen as an expert who could potentially take an athlete's career to newer heights (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:228). This often leads to unfair balance in the relationship between coach and athlete. The coach is 'in charge' and this implies that the coach should be respected and never be questioned (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:228).

Children who take part in sport would not in usual circumstances be considered 'at risk'; therefore, researchers have not previously recognised them as being a vulnerable population (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:217). Elite athletes must deal with stresses of practices, long hours, and participating at the highest level in an atmosphere of continued attacks on their self-esteem at a time in their lives when they are most vulnerable (Gervis & Dunn, 2004). Erikson's fourth stage in psychosocial development involves industry versus inferiority (McLeod, 2018). This stage determines the self-esteem of the child and is therefore necessary in developing a positive self-image (McLeod, 2018). If a coach emotionally abuses a child, inferiority might be the result. Erikson's fifth stage of psychosocial development further involves identity formation versus role confusion (McLeod, 2018). Accordingly, during this stage (12-18 years of age), children are searching for their true sense of self (McLeod, 2018). When applied to this study, the true identity of the athletes may be thwarted by coaches who may have their own interests at heart, which may lead to athletes developing a negative identity. Athletes stated that their encounters of emotional abuse changed as their careers advanced (Stirling & Kerr, 2014:123). Additionally, these experiences were linked to their perceptions of their athletic accomplishment and their socialisation into the culture of elite sport.

3.3.2 School sport

A considerable number of children that partake in school sport in South Africa as either elite or simply recreational athletes. According to Stafford, Alexander and Fry (2013:122), the majority of literature takes a sport sciences-, sport welfare- or sociology of sport perspective often concerned with young elite athletes and focus on maltreatment by coaches instead of harm occurring between young people. Fewer studies have addressed gaps in the literature regarding emotionally abusive behaviours experienced by young people who participate at

all levels of sport (Stafford *et al.*, 2013:124). Using a large sample size and both quantitative and qualitative data, Stafford *et al.* (2013) were the first to explore the emotional harm experienced by young adults in organised sport. In their (Stafford *et al.*, 2013) surveys, participants described a range of emotionally abusive experiences, with roughly 75% describing experiencing at least one emotionally harmful behaviour in sport they participated in. The most frequent abusers in school sport contexts were found to be peers abusing their counterparts (Stafford *et al.*, 2013:128). Being criticised for performance-oriented actions was the most frequently reported emotionally abusive behaviour in the questionnaire, conveyed by 75% of the respondents (Stafford *et al.*, 2013:128). Two key findings emerged from the study (Stafford *et al.*, 2013:134):

- the presence of an emotionally abusive, negative sporting culture which is prevalent and occurs at all levels of sport;
- the occurrence of extensive emotional bullying behaviours at all levels of sport committed by other children and young people, which may seriously influence children's ability to enjoy sport.

Coaches at school sport level (much like coaches at elite level) were often accountable for making, upholding and tolerating a negative sporting culture through unconstructive criticism of athletes' performances, yelling and swearing, and using different emotionally destructive behaviours to humiliate or shame young people (Stafford *et al.*, 2013:131). However, most young athletes in the study mentioned conditions where criticism of performance was unconstructive, inconsistent and in some cases, not productive. Similarly, criticism of performance occurred due to a pattern of degradation that is part of the coaching culture. In team sport, humiliation by coaches would be so harsh that athletes were frequently brought to tears and this was aggravated when criticism occurred in the presence of other peers (Stafford *et al.*, 2013:131).

Participants in the study also described the presence of extensive emotional bullying behaviours committed by peers in ways that could gravely impact their ability to enjoy their sport (Stafford *et al.*, 2013:133). Again, this was reported as occurring at all levels of sport. Peers were often seen as the main cause of criticism of performance. The participants described being upset about the attitude of their peers with regard to mistakes they made during practice and contests (Stafford *et al.*, 2013:133).

3.4 CAUSES OF EMOTIONAL ABUSE IN SPORT

In this section, the causes of emotional abuse in sport are discussed. First, a competitive climate of sport is considered as a reason why emotional abuse in sport arises. Moreover, athletes who reach an elite level are considered as a cause of emotional abuse. Thereafter, the power coaches exhibit is described as a cause. Next, the normalisation of an abusive sporting environment is discussed. Lastly, mental toughness as a possible cause of emotional abuse is explored.

3.4.1 The competitive environment in sport

The aspiration to realise sporting excellence can ultimately lead to young athletes being driven to their physiological and psychological limits and beyond (Gervis, Rhind & Luzar, 2016:773). Consequently, the lines between training and maltreatment of athletes are distorted (Gervis *et al.*, 2016:773). Stirling (2011:26) posits that “one of the greatest criticisms of children’s participation in sport has been the prevailing climate of competition that characterizes the majority of organized youth sports”. Even as far back as the 1970s, studies done on sport participation reported that a winning motive in youth sport decreases the enjoyment of child participants (Orlick & Botterill, 1975). Pooley (1986) later asserted that, in the competitive sport model, the ordinary or modest athletes are victimised, skill development is impeded, and too much of an early focus on winning creates pressure, which, in conjunction with competition, leads to burnout and withdrawal from sport. Thus, this pressure may also manifest psychologically. As Stirling (2011:27) claims, “the increasing emphasis on winning performances has also been criticized for the many consequences it can have on the athlete’s psychological well-being”.

Cook and Cole (2001) emphasise the specific manners in which competitive sport make young athletes susceptible to abuse when the goal of winning surpasses other purposes for participating in sport – the child instantly becomes an instrument of status to be instructed and ordered in order to fulfil a role within the field of sport. Stirling (2011:28) views an athlete in such a situation as no longer “an individual with personal needs and rights, but rather as a tool simply to be used in the pursuit of sporting success, therefore placing the athlete in a position of vulnerability to abuse”.

3.4.2 Elite child athletes

Sport has become an occupation for the professional sportsperson. With this comes a sporting career that starts from an early age. Children are being introduced to sport earlier

and this also leads to early specialisation. The tendency is to move towards early athlete development and the rigorous partaking of children in competitive sport (Coakley, 2001). These athletes spend considerable time with their coaches, making them more vulnerable to abusive practices. With this in mind, Stirling (2011:31) highlights the concern that has been expressed to safeguard children in the process of initial talent recognition and elitist development.

3.4.3 The power of the coach

Stirling and Kerr (2009:228) assert that “examination of the potential ways in which the power of the coach in the coach-athlete relationship may contribute to an athlete’s vulnerability to abuse is warranted”. Furthermore, much of the research conducted in sport abuse recently has implied that the power of the coach is a contributory factor in abuse among athletes.

According to Stirling and Kerr (2009:228), coaches may have power over athletes in terms of age, gender (especially in the context of male coaches over female athletes), their knowledge and access to resources, their authorisation to make choices and to reward and reprimand, as well as their previous accomplishments. Coaches may hold power over athletes because these athletes need to acquire specialised knowledge in and skills of a sport and so develop a dependency on their coaches as obtaining these resources are necessary to become a successful athlete. Tofler, Stryer, Micheli and Herman (1996) state that it is common in the sporting context for an elite athlete to be in awe of his or her coach, as the coach holds the key to future success in the sport. The power coaches hold over their athletes is significant and should not be taken lightly (Tofler *et al.*, 1996). Brackenridge (1997:120) compared the power coaches have over athletes to that of a priest whose unequivocal knowledge is never doubted or opposed. These powers are reinforced due to the common perception that coaches could advance and sustain the sporting success of the athlete (Brackenridge, 1997:120). As a child progresses in sport, the coach’s role may change over time. A coach will assume more power because, as Stirling and Kerr (2009:228) suggest, “coaches often play the roles of dietician, physiologist, medical expert, counsellor or psychologist, and present themselves as knowledgeable in these areas”. The coach becomes the most influential person in the athlete’s life, initiating opportunity for abusive practices. Another important issue regarding power in the coach-athlete relationship is that coaches rely on athletes’ performances to further their careers (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:228). Even though the power and control a coach has over the athlete may not be premeditatedly

applied, pressures on the coach to prosper may lead to decisions that stand in stark contrast to the well-being of the athlete.

The closeness of the coach-athlete relationship could be a reason why some coaches abuse athletes. Stirling and Kerr (2009:231) believe that “athletes spent a significant amount of time with their coach and compared their relationships to that of a father-daughter or mother-daughter relationship”. With these close relationships, coaches tend to know more about the lives of their athletes than the athletes’ parents do. Coaches could know what is happening at school, who their athletes’ friends are, and may even instruct them on what to eat and what hobbies to pursue. Coaches know everything about their athletes. This closeness is needed to a certain extent, but as a participant in Stirling and Kerr’s (2009:232) study explained, “coaches shouldn’t get that close to their athletes”. Participants reported particular behaviours of coaches, including being too closely involved in social excursions, physical touching like hugs and kisses, frequent phone calls, and very private discussions not relevant to the athletes’ sport involvement (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:232). Coach-athlete relationships that are too close can be seen as crossing the line, taking away the freedom of the child athlete as the coach is viewed as a controlling figure within the athlete’s life (Stirling & Kerr, 2009).

It is acknowledged that coaches need to be respected by the very nature of their stance in the community and their proficiency (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:232). Coaches hold an esteemed position in communities and are revered and admired by their athletes. However, they are also feared as coaches and are perceived as omniscient (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:232).

3.4.4 Normalisation of an abusive environment

Research on athletes’ experiences of emotional abuse in coach-athlete relationships have shown that emotional abuse is normalised within the realm of sport (Stirling, 2011:29). In addition, athletes appear to be hesitant to report abusive encounters involving their coaches (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:234). Stirling and Kerr (2014:123) found that parents, other athletes, and assistant or opposing coaches are often present while these harmful practices occur. Emotional abuse is distinct from other more overt forms of abuse. According to Stirling (2011), emotional abuse is sinister in nature. Additionally, the context of emotionally abusive relationships is believed to be rather different compared to other forms of abuse, as this destructive behaviour can occur in the public eye (O’Brian & Lau, 1995). Investigations into athletes’ recollections of emotional abuse depict that this behaviour may be perpetrated by several coaches across these athletes’ careers (Stirling & Kerr, 2014:127). Stirling and Kerr

(2014:127) reiterate that this “pattern of emotional abuse experienced by the athletes from different coaches across the athletes’ careers also exemplifies the culturally pervasive nature of emotional abuse in sport”. Emotionally abusive behaviours are employed in a purposeful manner (Stirling & Kerr, 2014:128). However, unlike cases of sexually abused athletes, athletes claimed that their coaches did not willingly aspire to emotionally abuse their victims (Stirling & Kerr, 2014:128). Coaches seek to enhance performance and motivation and in doing so, inadvertently emotionally abuse their athletes. Athletes believed their coaches were performing in the best interests of their athletic growth, sustaining the notion that emotional abuse could be linked to aspirations and viewpoints of athlete development (Stirling & Kerr, 2014:128). Inevitably, athletes and the sports community as a whole accept emotionally abusive coaching practices as a required part of athlete development and in many cases, such coaching practices are viewed as well-intended. This is emphasised by Cense and Brackenridge (2001:71), who state that with emotional abuse, there are usually no incidences of harassment following the end of the coach-athlete relationship as opposed to what has been reported in cases of sexual abuse in sport.

3.4.5 Mental toughness as a disguise for emotional abuse

Mental toughness as a concept has attracted substantial interest in sport, with numerous studies showing a positive impact on the sporting performance of athletes (Jones, Hanton & Connaughton, 2007:244). Characteristics of mental toughness include the following (Crust & Clough, 2011:153):

- believing in your ability to achieve success (i.e., self-belief);
- focusing on what is relevant while minimising irrelevant information (i.e., attentional control);
- capacity to persevere through difficult times and bounce back from setbacks (i.e., resilience);
- the aspiration to achieve success and acting upon such thoughts;
- the tendency to expect positive outcomes in the future and to view oneself in a positive manner (i.e., optimistic thinking);
- an awareness of and ability to use emotions to facilitate optimal outcomes (i.e., emotional awareness and regulation).

In view of these findings, it is logical that coaches would be very interested in developing mental toughness in their athletes (Owusu-Sekyere & Gervis, 2016:5). Some research into the development of mental toughness in athletes concluded that in coach-athlete relationships, trust should be built and coaches' philosophy that highlights player development should be envisaged, crafting challenging training surroundings and generating player-specific challenges (Gucciardi, Gordon, Dimmock & Mallett, 2009). Moreover, the most basic understanding of mental toughness is that it subjects the young athletes to harsh behaviours and environments (Weinberg, Butt & Culp, 2011).

Elite coaches tend to stress the innovation of 'intense' exercise regimes as essential to the development of mental toughness as they motivate and assist young athletes to push back their emotional and physical boundaries (Weinberg *et al.*, 2011). This is also supported by Gucciardi and Mallett (2010), who define mental toughness as a buffer against physical and emotional adversity. This further fosters the assumption that, in order to advance this buffer, elite youth coaches must produce the type of hardship that they would like the young athlete to be impervious to, which will offer experiences of preventing such difficulty and a normalisation to it (Owusu-Sekyere & Gervis, 2016:6-7). Although developing mental toughness necessitates revealing the demanding situations as reasonable, it is also worrying on many levels (Owusu-Sekyere & Gervis, 2016).

3.5 CONSEQUENCES OF EMOTIONAL ABUSE IN SCHOOL SPORT

According to Shumba (2002:784), emotional abuse is particularly destructive to a child's well-being due to the incapacitating developmental effects and implications that could ultimately occur throughout the victim's life. Stirling (2011:20-21) summarises the following negative effects of emotional abuse: 1) interpersonal feelings, thoughts, behaviours, which include a low sense of self, negative affect and life outlook, as well as symptoms of anxiety, depression, and suicide; 2) emotional difficulties, which include emotional insecurity, lack of interest, difficulties in impulse control, anger, self-mutilation, eating disorders, and substance abuse; 3) social and antisocial behaviour, which include attachment difficulties, a reduced sense of sympathy and empathy, sexual disturbances, dependence, aggression and violence, as well as delinquency; 4) learning problems, impairments in learning, as well as compromised moral reasoning; and 5) physical health problems, which include failing to succeed, somatic complaints, poor health in adulthood, and a higher mortality rate.

3.6 THEORIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL ABUSE IN SCHOOL SPORT COACHING

3.6.1 Social learning theory

Fiske (2010:415) summarises social learning as a theory that “teaches people how and when to aggress through modelling of imitative aggression and vicarious learning of sanctions”. Social learning theory (SLT) can be seen as the first theory to propose that aggression is a learned behaviour instead of an inherent characteristic (Snethen & Van Puymbroeck, 2008:347). This theory suggests that people who experience abuse and neglect at a young age are more probable to abuse their own children than others who have not suffered maltreatment during childhood (Clark, Clark & Adamec, 2007:xviii). It can therefore be inferred that violence and aggression in any form is a learned response (Clark *et al.*, 2007:xviii). In the context of this study, sport is a breeding ground for violence. In contact sport, such as rugby, an aggressive temperament is encouraged and considered part of the skillset of a talented rugby player. Teacher sport-coaches justify violent and aggressive behaviour by stating that it is indeed part of the game. Abusive practices are thus normalised as part of the sporting culture and is seen as standard practice in any competitive sport. A key determinant of the SLT is that, not only is violent behaviour learned, but it also becomes justified as warranted (Clark *et al.*, 2007:xviii).

Another assumption of the SLT is that abusive behaviour is learned through modelling. Teacher sport-coaches are seen as role models by many aspiring athletes. This role embodies the worth of coaches in the sporting career of these athletes. Being young and impressionable necessitate an environment where all the negative effects of these abusive practices are overlooked and seen as necessary to achieve success. When these young athletes grow up and become teacher sport-coaches themselves, their coaching styles may thus be similar to that of the teacher sport-coaches they looked up to in the past. These abusive practices are therefore replicated and normalised. The SLT considers the modelling of abusive behaviour as a sign that experience of learning can consequentially occur through direct observation or from seeing the aggressive behaviour of others (Anderson & Bushman, 2002:31). Athletes view teacher sport-coaches as abusive and through justifying and rationalising the behaviour, model this behaviour later in life, with obvious negative consequences. As Hart and Kritsonis (2006:3) assert, people learn by observing and imitating abusive behaviours of living models who demonstrate abusive behaviour.

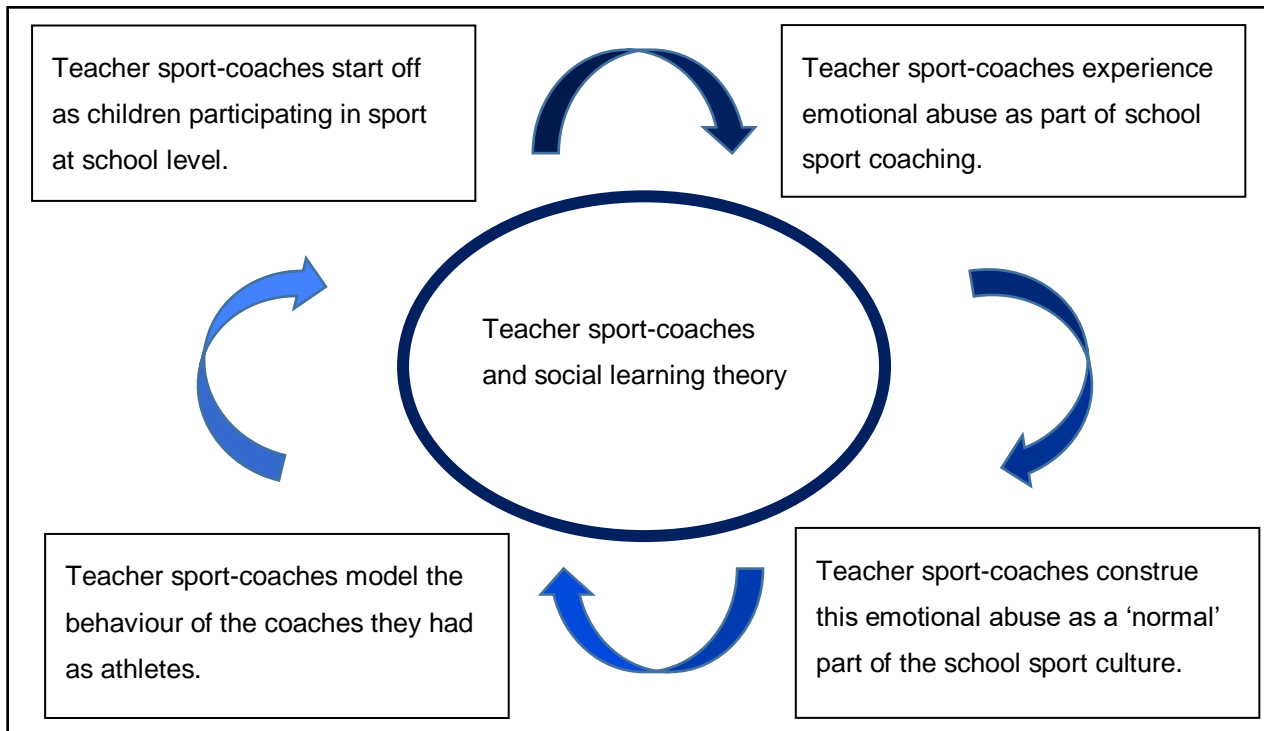


Figure 3.1 Social learning theory and how it is related to emotional abuse in school sport coaching

3.6.2 Cognitive neo-association theory

According to the cognitive neo-association theory, unpleasant events produce a negative outcome (Botha, 2012:155). Moreover, according to Botha (2012:155), “the associated negative feelings have the possibility to activate and instigate aggressive tendencies”. This ensues due to associations in memory that, with identical or related experiences, aggression is initiated (Fiske, 2010). Priming also occurs in cognitive neo-association theory, as is illustrated by Fiske (2010:410), who explains that if a person sees a name or an image of a weapon, he or she is more inclined to “identify aggression-related words”, which suggests that “weapons make aggressive thoughts more accessible”. In terms of this study, negative experiences suffered by teacher sport-coaches around the sporting context may result in negative thought patterns and aversive affect. The normalisation of abuse in sport adds to these experiences as teacher sport-coaches believe that aggressive tendencies are accepted behaviour and that it is reinforced by all parties involved in sport.

3.6.3 Drive theory

Hsiao (2013) describes drive as a state guided by an animal's need to ease pressure or to seek an objective. Drive theory is related to the nature of inner power that induces the animal's behaviour (Hsiao, 2013). According to Hsiao (2013), a drive has at least two noticeable functions in relation to behavioural stimulation. In the absence of drive, there is no reinforcement and therefore no learning ensues, because a decrease in drive is the reinforcement (Hsiao, 2013). Likewise, in the absence of drive there are no responses as drive activates behavioural capabilities into performance (Hsiao, 2013). This theory resonates with this study as our inner drive to succeed is seen as a very important motivator of behaviour. According to this theory, teacher sport-coaches would be under pressure to perform from external sources – such as schools, parents and the community – and would therefore be determined to relieve this stress by any means necessary. This includes utilising emotionally abusive practices to achieve desired outcomes.

3.6.4 Frustration-aggression hypothesis

Fiske (2010:415) describes the frustration-aggression hypothesis as follows: “[F]rustration typically leads to aggression in some form, and all aggression results from frustration of some kind.” This theory depicts frustration as an obstacle of any goal-directed system or behaviour (Fiske, 2010:415). According to the frustration-aggression hypothesis theory, anger facilitates the effects of frustration on aggression (Fiske, 2010:415). In the context of this study, teacher sport-coaches may experience frustration if certain goals or objectives were not met. Winning is a central component in sports participation. Therefore, losing may invoke frustration which then, according to the frustration-aggression theory, may lead to aggressive behaviour that includes emotional abuse. Breuer, Scharrow and Quandt (2015:127) affirm this by stating that “although competition can also be fun and rewarding, the possibility of losing to a competitor introduces the risk of aversive emotional experiences”.

3.7 SUMMARY

This chapter set out the psychological perspectives of this study. In the first section, key concepts of this study were described. I discussed three elements of emotional abuse in sport. Thereafter, three forms of emotional abuse in school sport were explored. Next, the different contexts in which emotional abuse in school sport can occur, were discussed. These included elite sport and school sport contexts. The causes of emotional abuse in sport

were also highlighted, and the consequences of emotional abuse on athletes were discussed. Lastly, theories related to the concept of emotional abuse in school sport coaching were examined.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the research design and methodology used in this study are discussed. This includes the data-collection strategy, method of data analysis and the measures used to ensure trustworthiness. The ethical requirements relevant to this study are also discussed.

4.2 EMPLOYING A SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVIST PARADIGM OF INQUIRY

Research seeks to understand the world we live in (Holloway & Wheeler, 2013). The way we view the world shapes our understanding of our surroundings and what we consider to be the truth (Holloway & Wheeler, 2013). It is therefore important to reflect on one's own worldview before embarking on a research endeavour of any kind. A paradigm is "a fundamental model or frame of reference we use to organize our observations and reasoning" (Babbie, 2015:32).

The social constructivist paradigm was employed to guide and direct this study. This paradigm presumes that reality is socially constructed by participants actively engaging in research (Mertens, 2014). Kim (2014:542) further asserts that this paradigm "focuses on the construction of joint intersubjective experiences created during the research process". As the researcher, I intended to make sense of the complexities of the social perceptions of the participants with regard to emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

Ontology (as an aspect of worldview) refers to "the nature of reality and its characteristics" (Creswell, 2013:20). In other words, ontology is the way in which we obtain and describe knowledge about truth. Individuals will attempt to answer research questions based on how they deem reality. The explorative nature of this study (i.e., seeking answers from the participants' point of view) has been influenced by relativist ontology. Relativist ontology means that meaning is shaped by the context and that multiple realities exist within the realm of reality.

Epistemology as another aspect of worldview that "relates to how things can be known" (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:67). Epistemology strives to determine how truths or facts can be obtained or revealed (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:67). The relationship between the knower and the known is significant. With the researcher's ontological viewpoint influencing his or her

epistemological beliefs, I believe that research is an interactive process in which findings are negotiated between the researcher and the research participants. The participants' frame of references were emphasised to achieve an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

4.3 CHOOSING A QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

The study was exploratory and descriptive in nature, and therefore a qualitative research approach and strategies were employed. Qualitative research is defined by Klenke (2016:6) as "a process of naturalistic inquiry that seeks in-depth understanding of social phenomena within their natural setting or context". Berg (2007:7) further states that "qualitative research properly seeks answers to questions by examining various social settings and the individuals who inhabit these settings". Furthermore, qualitative research makes use of open-ended, exploratory research questions, which pursue greater knowledge of phenomena (Elliot & Timulak, 2007). In this study, a qualitative research approach ensured that the findings provided a fresh outlook on emotional abuse in school sport coaching. This outlook could only be achieved by exploring the phenomenon through the viewpoint of the participants (i.e. teacher sport-coaches).

4.4 RESEARCH SITE, SAMPLE, AND SAMPLING STRATEGY

This section explains the sampling process and why the specific sampling strategy was chosen. The participants were secondary school teachers who coached school sport as an extramural activity. These teachers were selected from secondary schools in North West province (Dr Kenneth Kaunda District). The secondary schools were purposefully sampled, as a requirement of the study was that the participants should be representative of secondary schools in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda District.

Firstly, permission to conduct the study was attained from the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences of the North-West University. The North West Department of Basic Education was contacted via e-mail, requesting permission to conduct interviews at secondary schools in the designated area. After permission was granted by the North West Department of Basic Education, permission from various school principals in the district was obtained. Principals were contacted telephonically to arrange a meeting to discuss the details of the proposed interview process. After the principals accepted my invitation, permission was then obtained from the school and convenient times were discussed to arrange possible interviews with some of the teacher sport-coaches. The next step involved

coordinating specific times teacher sport-coaches at these schools were available for interviewing. The teacher sport-coaches were purposefully sampled on the principle of availability and voluntary participation. They were interviewed at the particular school where they were employed, as this was the most convenient setting for the participants. Care was taken to ensure that privacy was guaranteed. The interviews were conducted one-on-one in a quiet office, because this created a safe and secure environment for the participants.

The first step in the interview process included a description of the study, where I detailed some of the main areas I was setting out to explore and describe. Next, each participant was given the assurance that he or she could discontinue the interview at any time and that everything discussed in this process would be kept confidential. After the interviews, the participants were thanked for their participation and reminded that a psychologist would be available on their request should they feel the need to speak to such a professional. Data saturation was reached after the 12th interview.

4.5 DATA GENERATION

4.5.1 Individual semi-structured interviews

In this study, data were collected by means of individual semi-structured interviews. Although individual one-on-one interviews are time consuming and costly, they are a very popular data-collection technique in education research (Creswell, 2012:218). Creswell (2012:218) defines a one-on-one interview as “[a] data collection process in which the researcher asks questions to and records answers from only one participant in the study at a time”.

A semi-structured interview can further be defined as an approach where a standard set of questions or schedule is used (Gratton & Jones, 2010:141). Semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to adopt a flexible method of data generation as well as varying the order of questions or probing for more information with supplementary questions (Gratton & Jones, 2010:141). Interviews are the most widely used method of data collection in qualitative research (Bryman, 2012:209). The following characteristics encapsulate a qualitative interview (King & Horrocks, 2010:3):

- it is flexible and has an open-ended style;
- it tends to focus on people’s actual experiences more than general beliefs and opinions;

- the interviewer-interviewee relationship is crucial to the method.

A qualitative interview is a conversation in which the interviewer determines a general direction for the discussion and follows specific topics mentioned by the participant (Babbie, 2015). Rubin and Rubin (2012:3) state that, through qualitative interviews, “researchers explore in detail the experiences, motives and opinions of others and learn to see the world from perspectives other than their own”. In this study, teacher sport-coaches’ perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching were explored and described through the use of qualitative interviews. Qualitative interviews assist the researcher in reconstructing events he or she has never experienced (Rubin & Rubin, 2012).

There are several differences between quantitative and qualitative interviews (Table 4.1, adapted from Bryman, 2012:470):

Table 4.1 Differences between quantitative and qualitative interviews

| Quantitative interviews | Qualitative interviews |
|---|---|
| The approach is structured to maximise reliability and validity. | The approach tends to be less structured. |
| The interview reflects the researcher’s concerns. | A greater emphasis is put on the interviewee’s point of view. |
| Departing from the interview guide or schedule is not allowed as this will compromise the standardisation of the interview process. | The interviewer may depart significantly from any schedule or guide as this exploration will lead to rich, detailed data. |
| Typically inflexible because of the need to standardise the interview. | Typically flexible as it responds to the direction of the interviewer. |
| Quantitative interviews seek to generate answers that can be coded and processed quickly. | Qualitative interviews want rich, detailed answers. |

4.5.2 Advantages of qualitative interviews

There are several benefits to employing qualitative interviews. Qualitative interviews offer practical information when it is not possible to directly observe respondents (Creswell, 2012:218). Also, interviews allow participants to provide detailed personal information (Creswell, 2012:218). Another advantage of qualitative interviews, according to Creswell (2012:218), is that “the interviewer also has better control over the types of information received, because the interviewer can ask specific questions to elicit this information”.

4.5.3 Disadvantages of qualitative interviews

Firstly, a disadvantage of qualitative interviews is that they offer only data “filtered” through the opinion of the interviewers. In other words, the interviewer condenses participants’ views in the research report (Creswell, 2012:218). Similarly, comparable to observations, interview records may be misleading and may supply the perspective the interviewee wants the researcher to receive (Creswell, 2012:218). Another disadvantage is that the mere attendance of the interviewer may affect how the participants reply (Creswell, 2012:218). Moreover, participants’ replies may likewise not be coherent, insightful or clear (Creswell, 2012:218). In addition, equipment issues may be problematic, and the researcher needs to organise recording and transcribing equipment (if used) in advance before conducting interviews. During the interview, the researcher needs to give some consideration to the conversation with the participant. This attention may require saying little, handling emotional outbursts, and using icebreakers to encourage individual participants to talk. Figure 4.1 (adapted from Creswell, 2012:220-221) illustrates the steps that were taken to conduct interviews in this study.

4.6 ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER

I have experience in both participating in school sport and as a teacher sport-coach. However, I am currently a teacher in the Republic of Korea¹ and have not been involved in school sport coaching for some time. I believed that this absence would provide the necessary ‘distance’ to promote objectivity. The ultimate goal of this study was to explore and describe the participants’ perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Reflexivity was adopted in this study. Berger (2015:220) describes reflexivity as:

¹ Data collection was conducted in person, as I returned to South Africa prior to initiating the process.

turning of the researcher lens back onto oneself to recognize and take responsibility for one's own situatedness within the research and the effect that it may have on the setting and people being studied, questions being asked, data being collected and its interpretation.

Reflexivity was therefore utilised to increase the trustworthiness of the study by accounting for my values, knowledge, attitudes and prejudices as a researcher.

4.7 PREPARING FOR THE INTERVIEW

The data-generation process – thus, the steps that were taken to conduct the interviews in this study – is illustrated below in figure 4.1 (adapted from Creswell, 2012:220-221):

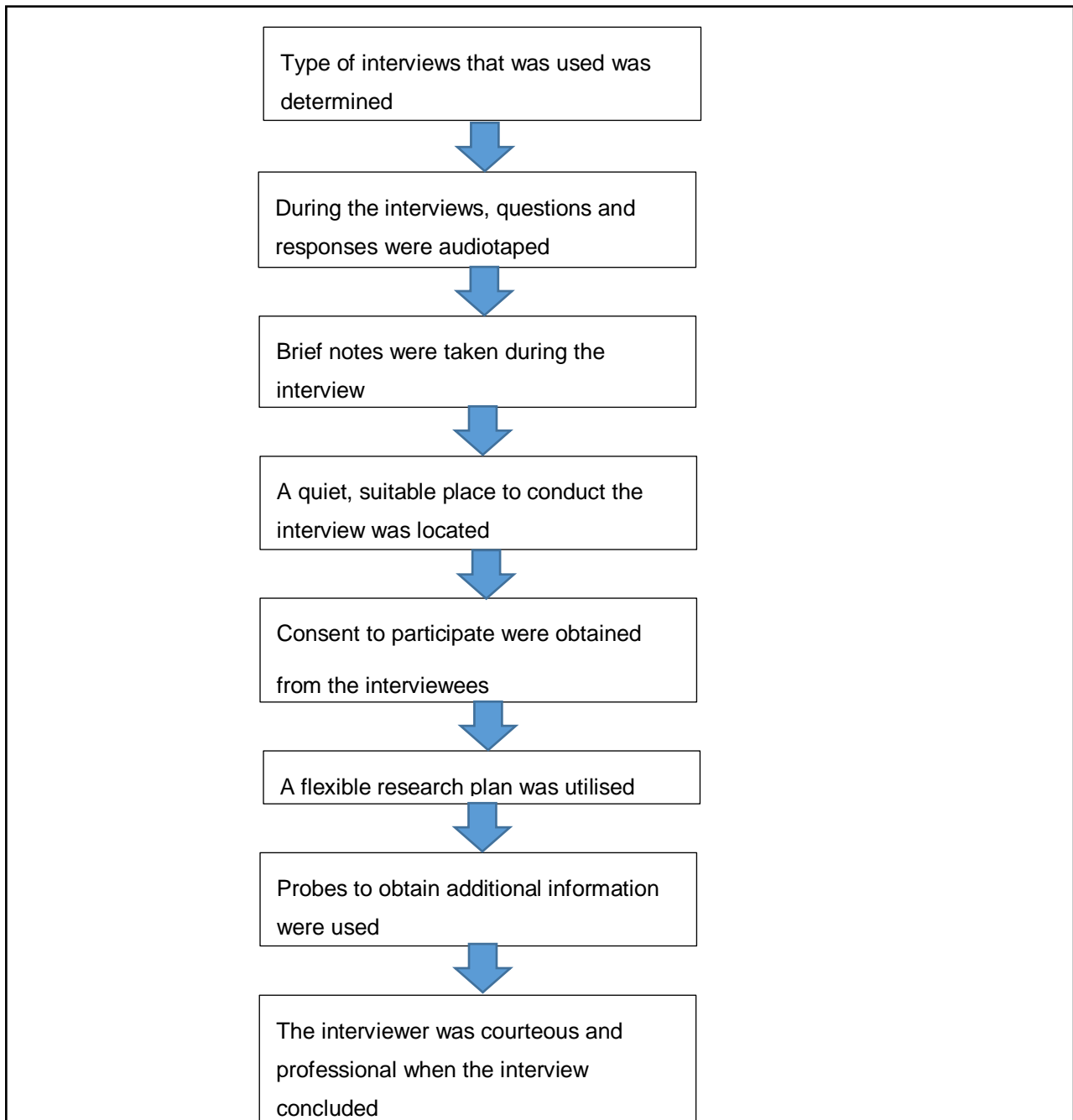


Figure 4.1 Process of data generation

According to Flick (2014:370), analysing qualitative data generally occurs as a stage in a series of stages during the research process. Nieuwenhuis (2016:109) describes qualitative data analysis as an “on-going and iterative process”. Data analysis occurs after access has been granted by the gatekeepers, sampling techniques have been established, the data collection has been completed and data have been recorded and transcribed (Flick, 2014).

In this study, the researcher only started to analyse the data after the data-generation process.

Further, data were analysed by means of qualitative content analysis. Stemler (2001:137) defines content analysis as a systematic, repeatable method for condensing voluminous amounts of words in text into fewer groupings centred on clear rules of coding. A significant feature of qualitative content analysis is that it is decidedly systematic. Flick (2014:430-431) believes that this technique urges a researcher to examine every part of the transcripts that is in any way related to the research question. This may counteract the view that the material was only looked at from a single perspective. Content analysis can be easily mistaken for other data-analysis techniques (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Grounded theory and phenomenology are examples of two methods with similar characteristics, although they go beyond the parameters of content analysis to develop theory or to provide a holistic understanding of a specific phenomenon (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

According to Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011:232-233), the traditional approach to content analysis is restricted in theory development and depictions of lived experiences, because both sampling and analytic procedures make the theoretical relationship among terms challenging to deduce from the findings. Qualitative content analysis is therefore the preferred method to employ when undertaking qualitative descriptive studies (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011:232-233). Another pertinent issue that needs to be considered when carrying out qualitative content analysis, is concentrating on either manifest or latent content (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). In this study, the researcher focused on latent content, as interpretation of the underlying meaning of the text was sought.

Nieuwenhuis (2016:114-115) proposes four general steps in qualitative data analysis, namely describing your sample and participants, organising your data, transcribing your data, and getting to know your data. Each of these steps are discussed below.

4.7.1 The process of data analysis

Preparing your data for analysis is a vital stage in the qualitative data-analysis process. Furthermore, analysis must be methodical and systemised so as to assist the researcher to easily locate data in the dataset. Since both data-generation and data-analysis strategies are interactive processes, it is of great importance to trace temporary results of the analysis back to the data.

4.7.1.1 Describing your sample and participants

Forms of qualitative data vary greatly in terms of the sources and what data are produced. Data could be collected through open-ended questions, transcripts of focus group dialogues, diary notes, or even the researcher's field notes. Data may further originate from several people, a few individuals in a specific context, or even a single case study. Therefore, as Nieuwenhuis (2016:114) asserts, it is important to give a full and detailed description of the participants, specifically with regard to how they were selected, relevant background information (e.g. age, gender, marital status and education) and to provide an in-depth discussion on the context of the study.

4.7.1.2 Organising your data

Data analysis could be very overwhelming if not approached in a highly organised manner. Moving through a sizeable amount of words to a final summarised report necessitates a method for organising and keeping track of data. Nieuwenhuis (2016:115) believes that different datasets should be kept separately. Labelling material is a good way to organise the data and facilitates easy retrieval and checking the data back and forth through the data-analysis process. Nieuwenhuis (2016:115) also suggests that pseudonyms for participants be used so as to increase identification of data.

4.7.1.3 Transcribing the data

All audio-recorded data (interviews) should be transcribed. It is suggested that the researcher conducting the interviews also transcribes his or her own interviews, because non-verbal cues will be missed if an outsider transcribes the interviews. Audio recordings should be transcribed verbatim as this will eliminate any bias of the researcher should he or she only summarise the audio recordings.

4.7.1.4 Getting to know the data

Once the data is transcribed, the researcher needs to know it inside out. The data should be read and re-read to encourage a thorough understanding thereof. The transcribed interviews should be listened to several times. Impressions should then be written down in a process called 'memoing'. Memoing is a self-reflective journal on what the researcher has learned from the data.

4.7.2 Data saturation

In this qualitative study, the number of participants was not established beforehand, but sampling continued until data saturation was reached. Data saturation suggests “that point where all the themes and categories have been saturated and no new data are generated” (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:84). According to Ryan and Bernard (2004), the moment data saturation may be reached will depend on the number and intricacy of the data, the researcher’s experience and energy levels, as well as the number of analysts. In this respect, Guest *et al.* (2006:77) assert that “saturation is reliant on researcher qualities and has no boundaries”. In this study, data saturation occurred after the 12th interview as no new information (data) emerged.

4.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Due to atrocities involving human subjects used in research during the last century, a very high demand has been put on ethical research practices (Bless *et al.*, 2013). When it comes to ethical research, two fundamental questions are asked by Kitchener and Kitchener (2009:6): “[w]hat is the ethically proper way to collect, process, and report research data?” and “[h]ow should social scientists behave with respect to their research subjects?” It is therefore of the utmost importance to ensure that the criteria for ethical data collection are borne in mind. The following ethical considerations were important in this study. First, a proposal was submitted to the Ethics Committee of the North-West University (Potchefstroom). Permission to conduct research was further obtained from gatekeepers, such as the North West Department of Basic Education, school principals as well as the SGBs. Access was requested by telephone or e-mail. The gatekeepers were informed about the details surrounding the study, including the sensitive nature of the study. Care was taken to ensure the gatekeepers of the ethical considerations of the study (e.g. confidentiality) and that secondary schools were chosen conveniently and without suspicion of any abusive practices by the schools’ teacher sport-coaches.

4.8.1 Voluntary participation

According to Rubin and Babbie (2009:257), “a major tenet of research ethics is that participation must be voluntary”. In other words, “no one should be forced to participate” (Rubin & Babbie, 2009:257). Participation in this study was voluntary and participants could withdraw their involvement at any time during the process without being penalised in any way.

4.8.2 Non-maleficence and beneficence

Beneficence can be seen as doing something good or benefiting others (Kitchener & Kitchener, 2009:13). This study sought to explore and describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching. The participants (i.e. teacher sport-coaches) had a chance to reflect on their own perceptions of emotional abuse as well as their coaching practices. This study strove to explore and describe the psychological dynamics that may cause emotional abuse in school sport coaching. It also attempted to provide strategies that can be put in place for teacher sport-coaches to curb emotional abuse in school sport from a juridical-psychological perspective. These strategies can assist teacher sport-coaches in altering negative coaching behaviours and providing knowledge of a legal perspective that are of importance to teacher sport-coaches.

Referral services were put in place for those participants who may experience any form of discomfort during or after the interview process. Discomfort may have been experienced because of disclosing potentially upsetting recollections of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. A psychologist at the North-West University was available to assist by implementing therapeutic interventions during and/or after the interview processes if the need arose. The participants were provided the details of the psychologist, whom they could have contacted at any time should they have had the need for such services during and/or after the data-generation process (Addendum H).

4.8.3 Informed consent

Bless *et al.* (2013:32) emphasise that “participants have the right to know what the research is about, how it will affect them, the risks and benefits of participation, and the fact that they have the right to decline or to discontinue their participation at any time during the process if they choose to do so”.

In this study, the participants were informed beforehand about: the nature and aims of the study; what participation in the study entailed; that participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time without any penalty; as well as the benefits of participating in the research (Addendum E).

4.8.4 Right to privacy and confidentiality

It is crucial that participants feel secure/safe when being interviewed, knowing that the information regarding their perceptions of the phenomenon under study would not be used against them in any way other than for the purposes of the study. Strydom (2011:119)

asserts, “every individual has the right to privacy and it is his or her right to decide when, where, to whom, and to what extent his or her attitudes, beliefs and behaviour will be revealed.” In this study, care was taken to safeguard participants by using pseudonyms for each, which provided anonymity and therefore protected their identities. The individual interviews were conducted at the school, in a quiet office, in order to ensure privacy. Moreover, all identifiable information was removed from the transcripts. Audio-recorded data will be stored in a safe place, prohibiting anyone other than the researcher and supervisor from accessing it.

4.9 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Holloway and Galvin (2016:309) define trustworthiness in qualitative research as “methodological soundness and adequacy” and posit that researchers make “judgements of trustworthiness possible through developing dependability, credibility, transferability, and confirmability”. Table 4.2 (adapted from Lincoln & Guba, 1985:289-290; Krefting, 1991:214-222) provides criteria and strategies that were utilised in this study to ensure and enhance the trustworthiness.

Table 4.2 Trustworthiness criteria and strategies

| CRITERIA | STRATEGIES |
|---------------|-----------------|
| TRUTH VALUE | Credibility |
| APPLICABILITY | Transferability |
| CONSISTENCY | Dependability |
| NEUTRALITY | Confirmability |

4.9.1 Truth value (Credibility)

Credibility is closely related to the concept of internal validity (Holloway & Galvin, 2016:309). This indicates that “the participants recognise the meaning that they themselves give to a situation or condition” (Holloway & Galvin, 2016:309). According to Van Huyssteen (2014), credibility refers to an approach that ensures that the research is conducted in a way that the topic of investigation is appropriately identified and explained. Credibility in this study was achieved by establishing rapport with the participants (i.e. teacher sport-coaches)

during the semi-structured interviews. Peer examination was included in order to yield information-rich data on people's attitudes and motivations.

4.9.2 Applicability (Transferability)

According to Krefting (1991:216), "applicability refers to the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts and settings or with other groups; it is the ability to generalize from the findings to larger populations." In this study, transferability was made possible by obtaining data until data saturation was reached and no new information could be acquired.

4.9.3 Consistency (Dependability)

The term dependability is synonymous with reliability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:299). A qualitative study is dependable when the findings are consistent and accurate (Holloway & Galvin, 2016). The researcher can ensure dependability by following a logical, well-documented research procedure and including an audit trail (Holloway & Galvin, 2016; Van Huyssteen, 2014). To facilitate dependability in this study:

- the researcher presented a detailed account of the data-collection process;
- detailed descriptions of the research methodology were included regarding the execution of the study; and
- data collected in this study were coded correctly in order to provide accurate results.

4.9.4 Neutrality (Confirmability)

According to Holloway and Galvin (2016:309), confirmability "has taken the place of the term objectivity". Confirmability entails that findings in the study should be free of both prejudice and bias from the researcher and should be objective (Buchanan, 2015:18). A term used frequently in phenomenology is bracketing, in which a researcher must set aside his or her knowledge and/or previous experiences of the phenomenon under investigation so as to attain a clear, unbiased perspective on the topic (Creswell, 2013). However, in this study, reflexivity was employed to increase the accuracy of the research and credibility of the outcomes by accounting for my (the researcher's) values, knowledge, attitudes and prejudices (Berger, 2015:221).

4.10 SUMMARY

This chapter offered an in-depth discussion on the research design, methodology and approach used in this study to explore and describe teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. The data were collected by means of semi-structured interviews. Qualitative content analysis was further employed to analyse collected data. The chapter also explained the criteria applied to ensure trustworthiness as well as the steps taken to meet ethical requirements. The next chapter presents the findings that emerged from the data, specifically teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the findings that emerged from the data. Cross-references to the literature are also made to substantiate the findings.

5.2 BIOGRAPHICAL PROFILE OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Selection of the participants was discussed in par. 4.4. Data saturation occurred after the twelfth interview. The group of 12 participants consisted of 10 male and two female teacher sport-coaches. Furthermore, the participant group comprised 11 white teacher sport-coaches and one black teacher sport-coach, all of whom were Afrikaans-speaking and coaching sport at secondary schools in North West, South Africa.

5.3 DATA ANALYSIS

Data were analysed by means of qualitative content analysis. Data were analysed inductively as no predetermined theoretical framework was used during the data-analysis process. Data analysis was based on the data gathered from teacher sport-coaches sharing their perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

5.4 DISCUSSION: TEACHER SPORT-COACHES' PERCEPTIONS OF EMOTIONAL ABUSE IN SCHOOL SPORT COACHING

This section describes each of the themes and categories that emerged from the data. Verbatim quotes (the original words of the participants) and relevant literature are used to support the themes and categories. According to Corden and Sainsbury (2006:98), "including verbatim quotations from research participants has become effectively standard practice in much qualitative applied social research reporting". Griffin and May (2012:453) emphasise the importance of incorporating verbatim quotes when presenting analysed data, as this illustrates the significance of participants' voices. Codes were assigned to each of the verbatim quotations, as this guaranteed anonymity of the participants in the study.

Table 5.1 Identified themes, categories and sub-categories

| | |
|----------------|-----------------------------------|
| THEME 1 | VIEWS OF EMOTIONAL ABUSE |
| | Category 1.1 Bullying |
| | Category 1.2 Humiliation |
| | Category 1.3 Unfairness |
| THEME 2 | FORMS OF EMOTIONAL ABUSE |
| | Category 2.1 Verbal |
| | Sub-category 2.1.1 Indirect |
| | Sub-category 2.1.2 Direct |
| | Category 2.2 Physical |
| THEME 3 | CAUSES OF EMOTIONAL ABUSE |
| | Category 3.1 Teachers |
| | Sub-category 3.1.1 Ignorance |
| | Sub-category 3.1.2: Frustration |
| | Sub-category 3.1.3 Power |
| | Sub-category 3.1.4 Performance |
| | Category 3.2 Learners |
| | Sub-category 3.2.1: Peer pressure |
| | Category 3.3 External |
| | Sub-category 3.3.1 Competition |

| | |
|----------------|--|
| | Sub-category 3.3.2 School culture |
| | Sub-category 3.3.3 Pressure |
| THEME 4 | EFFECTS OF EMOTIONAL ABUSE |
| | Category 4.1 Psychological |
| | Sub-category 4.1.1 Depression |
| | Sub-category 4.1.2 Low self-esteem |
| | Category 4.2 Personal |
| | Sub-category 4.2.1 Quitting sport |
| | Sub-category 4.2.2 Undeveloped potential |
| THEME 5 | KNOWLEDGE OF LEGAL REGULATION |
| | Category 5.1: Geborgenheit |
| | Sub-category 5.1.1 Vulnerability |
| | Sub-category 5.1.2 Protection |
| | Category 5.2 Legal sources |
| | Sub-category 5.2.1 Liability |
| | Sub-category 5.2.2 Human rights |
| | Category 5.3 Sport qualification |
| | Sub-category 5.3.1 Rules and regulations |
| | Sub-category 5.3.2 Physical injury |

| | |
|----------------|--|
| THEME 6 | TEACHERS' SUGGESTED STRATEGIES TO CURB EMOTIONAL ABUSE |
| | Category 6.1 Training and development |
| | Sub-category 6.1.1 Extending knowledge of emotional abuse in sport |
| | Sub-category 6.1.2 Coaching methods |
| | Category 6.2 Rapport |
| | Sub-category 6.2.1 Mutual Respect |
| | Sub-category 6.2.2 Constructive criticism |
| | Category 6.3 Sport policy |
| | Sub-category 6.3.1 Code of conduct |
| | Sub-category 6.3.2 Parents' involvement |

5.4.1 Theme 1: Views of emotional abuse

Theme 1 covers the participants' views on emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Three categories emerged during data analysis, namely bullying, humiliation, and unfairness.

5.4.1.1 Category 1.1: Bullying

The participants were of the opinion that bullying is a prominent form of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. One participant stated: [P1] "*It is just bullying, if I have it right*", while another pointed out the degrading element of bullying [P4]: "*... that instead breaks down rather than build up the child ...*"

A third participant also referred to the degrading element and also indicated that this form of abuse may increase through time: [P12] "*... I will say that if you bully the child now ... he actually comes more ... to learn more and you actually do not want to teach him ... you just bully him more and more and more ...*"

Some coaches, despite being teachers, showed a lack of educational inclination and professionalism: [P7] “... *you bully him and ... do not emphasise his good points but to constantly belittle him and to compare him with athletes of the same age group ...*”

The above verbatim quotations illustrate the participants' views that emotional abuse, because of its degrading nature, entails bullying the athlete rather than developing his or her character. Olweus (1993:48) defines bullying as “aggressive, intentional acts carried out by a group or an individual repeatedly and over time against a victim who cannot easily defend him or herself”. In other words, teacher sport-coaches can bully athletes because they have power over their athletes as the authority figures. Twemlow, Fonagy, Sacco and Brethour (2006:191) further elaborate by defining bullying by a teacher as actions meant “to punish, manipulate or disparage a student beyond what would be a reasonable disciplinary procedure”. Three conditions are pertinent to define behaviour as bullying: (1) recurrence, (2) intentionality, and (3) a disparity of power (Menesini & Salmivalli, 2017). Datta, Cornell and Huang (2017:336) explain that “students bullied by teachers exhibited lower school engagement and academic performance, as well as more involvement in high-risk behaviours”. This is in contrast to bullying amongst peers, as no authority figures are involved. Learners bullied by their teachers acquire a negative outlook of their school and they would come to understand discipline as being one-sided and their teachers as being uncooperative (Datta *et al.*, 2017:336).

Furthermore, according to one of the participants, belittling entails focusing on the mistakes made by the athlete: [P12] “*In a way you will bully him more ... but you will give him more trouble for something he did wrong ...*” A teacher sport-coach thus gives negative feedback aimed at hurting the athlete personally. Belittling is used as a technique by teacher sport-coaches to bully athletes. Referring to belittling in elite sport coaching, Gervis and Dunn (2004:220) assert that “the consequences of this are felt long after the involvement is finished”. They (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:221) describe the subsequent feelings athletes reported after experiencing abusive behaviour by their coach, which included feeling stupid, insignificant, disappointed, angry, depressed and lacking in self-confidence. These feelings can be described as low self-efficacy, which inevitably leads to performance impairments and, in turn, increases

abusive behaviour as the coach's expectancies are not met (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:221).

The data concur with the literature consulted in previous chapters; specifically, that bullying seriously infringes upon the fundamental rights of athletes to freedom and security (see par. 2.3.1.4). The intentional nature of belittling was explained in par. 3.2.2.3, which is consistent with what was found in the data.

5.4.1.2 Category 1.2: Humiliation

Some of the participants referred to humiliating acts as an indication of emotional abuse occurring on the sports field. One participant mentioned that some teacher sport-coaches use degrading comments that would humiliate the athlete: [P8] *"... there is maybe sometimes especially in a match situation maybe where a coach or coaches ... could make degrading comments or say something in a way where a child maybe ... make him feel bad or maybe hurt ..."*

One participant explained that degrading comments made by teacher sport-coaches follow performances by the athletes deemed as unsatisfactory, leaving the athletes feeling humiliated: [P2] *"... you tell him listen here you are stupid ... why did you do that ... don't you have any skills ... can't you see the ball ..."* Another participant reiterated the latter, stating that teacher sport-coaches would often say: [P12] *"... why did you drop the ball again for the fiftieth time again today..."*

A teacher sport-coach would even use foul language as a way of humiliating their athletes: [P4] *"...the coach personally comes down on you and say why the (expletive) did you do that and that and that ..."*

The comments listed above are examples of degrading comments that humiliate athletes. According to Van der Rijt (2016:488), the core of humiliation is a tendency in "making low". In other words, the individual is seen as lesser or lower in some form or the other (Van der Rijt, 2016:488). Participants voiced that athletes could feel inferior when they are emotionally abused, which describes the feelings associated with humiliation. The key here is that this occurs in a match situation in front of possible spectators, opponents' parents, and peers. One aspect of humiliation highlighted by Van der Rijt (2016:488), is a public, or at least an interpersonal, dimension.

Considering that emotional abuse in school sport occurs in a public domain (i.e. on the sports field), this “making low” aspect of humiliation lies at the root of this phenomenon (i.e. emotional abuse). As is illustrated in the above quotations, humiliation mainly transpires during match situations.

Additionally, as Datta *et al.* (2017:335) assert, “teachers and other adults in school have legitimate power over students and often criticize and discipline them in certain situations”. However, as Van der Rijt (2016:489) explains, identifying and perceiving our fundamental moral status as equals is a quality that any self-respecting individual would be concerned about and here it is something we should deeply care about. Leask (2013:135) believes that the consequences of humiliation can have life-changing effects on victims. These consequences involve feelings of helplessness that could escalate into rage and revolt, ultimately ending up in despair and self-destruction (Leask, 2013:136). Furthermore, humiliation includes a sense of powerlessness among victims, which can lead to distrust, misery or depression. These empirical findings coincide with the literature cited in chapter 2 (see par. 2.3.1.4), which stated that all inhabitants of South Africa have the right to freedom and security of their person and not to be humiliated in any form. Humiliation in the sporting context was also discussed in chapter 3 (see par. 3.2.3.2).

5.4.1.3 Category 1.3: Unfairness

Furthermore, unfairness was also noted by participants. The following statement by a participant illustrates how emotional abuse can also occur in school sport coaching by treating the child unfairly: [P6] “... *that he is not granted a chance to achieve his goals ... either through acting unfairly towards the child or to withhold him from benefits to reach his maximal goal ...*”

One of the first complaints some children express to their parents is that something is unfair (Axt & Oishi, 2016:243). Fairness can be defined as a “match between what an individual receives and what he or she believes they deserved” (Axt & Oishi, 2016:243). In fair situations, there is a harmonious relationship to what individuals get and what they believe they have earned (Axt & Oishi, 2016:243). Contrariwise, in unfair situations, there is a disparity between what individuals get and what they believe they have earned (Axt & Oishi, 2016:243). Unfairness has numerous negative

outcomes. Prior research has shown that experiencing even slight unfair treatment can decrease positive emotions and intensify negative emotions, which could lead to less cooperative behaviour (Axt & Oishi, 2016:243).

The participant goes on to provide examples of how unfairness can arise by mentioning the non-selection of a player based on prejudices, which is a clear example of unfair coaching practice: [P6] “... quite possibly for example that he is good enough to be included in the team ... but ... in terms of my preferences and everything that I do not allow him to play in that specific position ... that I may as a person hold a grudge over this boy and then withhold a benefit from him ...”

Emotional abuse, according to this participant, is when the teacher sport-coach knowingly treats an athlete unfairly by not including him or her in a team, even though the athlete deserves to be in the team. This participant believed that this exclusion is so devastating that the child feels that he or she is being discriminated against.

Social exclusion can take on various forms, with children describing experiences such as being deliberately excluded from a group to having stories spread about them, name-calling, and being embarrassed on purpose (Cross, Shaw, Hearn, Epstein, Monks, Lester & Thomas, 2009:19). Social exclusion essentially entails a lack of connectedness from a peer group (Cross *et al.*, 2009:25). The participant mentioned that an athlete would be excluded from the team, keeping him or her from partaking in a team environment and forcing him or her to not feel connected to his or her peers.

DeWall, Deckman, Pond and Bonser (2011:979) reiterate that “the need to belong is among the most fundamental of all personality processes”. Social exclusion has negative consequences, ranging from a lowered immune function, a decrease in sleep quality, reduced ability to remain calm when in distress, lowered self-esteem, and feelings of anxiety, depression and aggression, which have all been detected in children who have been ostracized (DeWall *et al.*, 2011:979). As was mentioned in chapter 2 (see par. 2.3.1.2), everyone is equal before the eyes of the law and therefore, unfairness is in stark contrast with the right of equality.

5.4.2 Theme 2: Forms of emotional abuse

Forms of emotional abuse include verbal and physical abuse. Verbal abuse can be indirect and direct. Indirect abuse constitutes abuse where the teacher sport-coach is

not involved in the abusive action. In contrast, direct verbal abuse entails the teacher sport-coach's involvement in emotionally abusive practices.

5.4.2.1 Category 2.1: Verbal abuse

According to Geiger (2017:96), verbal abuse is a concept “commonly used to refer to a constant and recurring pattern of negative behaviours” aimed at an individual. Geiger (2017:97) defines verbal abuse by teachers in the classroom as behaviours that include “putdowns, name-calling, yelling, and scapegoating engaged in by teachers when attacking students for their deficient scholastic abilities, work habits, and achievements”. Similarly, in this study, verbally abusive behaviours, as is described in the aforementioned citation, also occur in the school sport context.

5.4.2.1.1 Sub-category 2.1.1: Indirect

During the data-collection process, the participants said that not only teacher sport-coaches are responsible for emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Emotional abuse in school sport can also occur amongst peers. A participant stated the following regarding verbal abuse perpetrated by peers: [P3] “... *there is one person that knows that he is the best in a position and he will say bad things to the children that want to get into that position ...*” Competition amongst peers can therefore be seen as a possible cause of emotional abuse.

One participant [P5] mentioned that “... *making negative comments that some children will accept as the truth ...*” Children may be susceptible to emotional abuse as they construe what their peers say as fact. This is especially true in sport, which can be viewed as a harsh environment at times. When mistakes are made, peers are often the instigators of teasing, as is illustrated by the following verbatim quote: [P5] “... *where children ... are teased for making a mistake in a match or practice ...*”

Verbal abuse among peers can include cursing, name-calling and other mocking or insulting behaviour (Attar-Schwartz & Khoury-Kassabri, 2015:85). Aggressive behaviours of adolescents may increase because, as they transform from childhood to adulthood, they experience changes in their bodies, attitudes and social lives (Ayuwat, 2017:154). Consequently, aggressive behaviours in adolescence are currently critical, particularly verbal abuse, such as ruthless criticism, offensive

language, and making fun of other people's faults (Ayuwat, 2017:154). In this study, it was found that mistakes made by the victim were followed by degrading comments among peers. Additionally, verbal abuse can be even more damaging than physical abuse (Ayuwat, 2017:155). Verbal abuse can cause a lot of harm to a child's physical and mental health seeing that, if it is not prevented, it could have a negative effect on the victim's learning performance and other behaviours that may affect learning and teaching in school (Ayuwat, 2017:155). Section 2.3.3.1 describes the code of conduct of schools to which all learners should adhere. Verbal abuse is strictly forbidden in these rules and regulations.

5.4.2.1.2 Sub-category 2.1.2: Direct abuse

According to participants, teacher sport-coaches would often employ verbal abuse, which can be seen as emotionally abusive. The following verbatim quotation from a participant illustrates that teacher sport-coaches would scream and yell at their athletes for not excelling: [P4] "*... where the coach screams at the child when the child does not finish in first place in a hundred meter for example ...*" One participant described emotional abuse as only consisting of verbal abuse: [P8] "*... if I have to describe it I think it would probably be more verbal ...*" On the other hand, another participant believed that both verbal and physical abuse could be regarded as emotional abuse, stating that: [P1] "*Verbal or physical ... that is what you going to get on the sports field.*"

In the sporting context, Gervis and Dunn (2004) interviewed elite athletes on their perceptions of emotional abuse. The behaviour experienced most by all the athletes in the study was shouting. The coaches were found to habitually use shouting as a "coaching tool", which had a negative impact on all the athletes (Gervis & Dunn, 2004:220). As Gervis and Dunn (2004:220) suggest, "the verbal assaults that they (the athletes) had to endure created a climate of fear for the young athlete." Similarly, in this study, participants mentioned that shouting was employed when they did not achieve the goals set by the teacher sport-coaches. Verbal abuse by coaches was discussed in chapter 3 (see par. 3.2.3.2).

5.4.2.2 Category 2.2: Physical abuse

Physical abuse of children in sport occurs in the following ways (Alexander *et al.*, 2011:78)

- acts of assault imposed on the child athlete by adults or peers;
- involuntary overtraining, causing risk of injury;
- child athletes being compelled or motivated to train while injured or fatigued.

One participant said that fitness would be employed to show authority and that it was the time to focus: [P3] “... *I will take it over in fitness ... make them aware of ... listen here don't mess around now I don't have time ...*”

Fitness is often seen as a necessary practice to prevent injury, as was mentioned by the following participant: [P6] “... *and then they emphasise fitness because the argument is that the fitter the child is the less chance he has of getting hurt ...*”

However, as this participant stated, an athlete who is seen as troublesome or who is not performing adequately would be required to overtrain as a form of punishment: [P12] “... *more running than the other children when it comes to fitness ...*”

The abovementioned verbatim quotes illustrate how teacher sport-coaches would employ training as a form of physical abuse. Merrick (1999:14) defines overtraining as involving “chronic fatigue, emotional changes, and performance decline following an extended period of high intensity or high-volume endurance training”. It takes longer to recover from overtraining, and overtraining is not rectified by ceasing physical exercise or a change in diet (Merrick, 1999:14). When there is a disparity and training surpasses the rate of recovery, overtraining of the athlete is said to have occurred (Merrick, 1999:14). According to Merrick (1999:15), physical manifestations of overtraining include loss of strength, insomnia, muscle fatigue, and a lower immune function. Emotional manifestations of overtraining could lead to depression, altered mood states and a low self-esteem due to performance increments (Merrick, 1999:15). In chapter 3, physical abuse was discussed (see par. 3.2.3.1). However, the empirical findings of this study concluded that overtraining was employed as opposed to

punching and throwing objects. As was highlighted in chapter 2, the freedom and security of a person should always be of paramount importance (see par 2.3.1.4).

5.4.3 Theme 3: Causes of emotional abuse

Three causes of emotional abuse emerged from the data, namely the teacher sport-coach (internal causes), abuse caused by learners (peers), and external causes (the school, community, and parents).

5.4.3.1 Category 3.1: Teachers

Under this category, which involves causes related to the teacher sport-coach, three sub-categories emerged. The first sub-category deals with ignorance on the part of the teacher sport-coach, which would lead to emotionally abusive behaviour. Next, frustration as a sub-category is discussed. Third, power as a cause of emotional abuse is considered. Lastly, performance as a cause of emotional abuse is deliberated.

5.4.3.1.1 Sub-category 3.1.1: Ignorance

Ignorance was seen as a cause of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Frustration can occur as a result of ignorance due to an athlete not understanding the instructions of the teacher sport-coach who, in turn, lacks knowledge on dealing with such situations, as was depicted by the following participant: [P1] *“Ignorance in what way he as ... coach can bring to the child then he becomes maybe frustrated with the child and then because he gets frustrated with the child that cannot understand because of his ignorance will he start to ... bully him ...”*

Another participant stated that a lack of passion could also bring about emotional abuse, as teacher sport-coaches are not interested in gaining knowledge of a sport they have no interest in: [P6] *“... but out of ignorance or out of a lack of love for the sport can it have an influence at the end when it comes to the child’s performances ...”*

One participant believed that ignorance may play a major role as the teacher sport-coach feels incompetent coaching and therefore becomes emotionally abusive: [P9] *“... the teacher feels in herself actually incompetent because she does not know anything about coaching ...”* Another participant agreed with the previous quotation,

using the following example to illustrate this point: [P6] “... *you are forced for example to coach shot put but you have no knowledge of shot put ...*”

The abovementioned quotations illustrate that a lack of knowledge pertaining to a sport can lead to emotional abuse. It is commonly believed that a lack of knowledge suggests uncertainty in judgment and a threat that a decision was wrong (Edwards & Tversky as cited in Hansson, Buratti & Allwood, 2017:377). It is not possible to educate or develop people without them understanding the material being taught (Abraham, Collins, Morgan & Muir, 2009). According to Steward (2013:10), having good knowledge in coaching entails the following:

It involves knowledge of the technical and tactical aspects of sport; characteristics of athletes such as age, maturity, skill levels, and learning styles; the logistical constraints of the coaching position such as time allotments, facilities, and financial resources: as well as the coach's personal characteristics, motives, and aspirations.

In a study done by Steward (2013:10), students “reported coaches' lack of planning, disorganisation, use of repetitive or outdated drills and activities and an inability to change as examples of poor teaching.” A lack of proper coaching methods could lead to athletes' disinterest in the sport. This finding does not coincide with the causes of emotional abuse depicted in the literature (chapter 3).

5.4.3.1.2 Sub-category 3.1.2: Frustration

Frustration was mentioned as another cause of emotional abuse in school sport coaching, as the following quote illustrates: [P1] “... *if a child does not understand what the teacher is saying a person can quickly become frustrated.*” The athlete may not respond adequately to an instruction by the teacher sport-coach, and this would lead to a build-up of frustration.

Another participant believed that this frustration would ultimately lead to the teacher sport-coach emotionally abusing the child as his or her frustration threshold is overwhelmed by the athlete not performing as is expected: [P4] “...*it is just a thing of ... where the coach will take out his personal frustrations on the child.*”

The above participant also believed that frustration in a teacher sport-coach's personal life may spill over into their professional life: [P4] “... *this now is frustrations that the*

coach carries of certain stuff that they experienced maybe at home or maybe at work and then they bring this back now and take it all out on one person.”

Teacher sport-coaches are judged by their performances. With this notion comes hard work to succeed, and if this hard work is not realised, frustration and finally emotional abuse ensues, as is illustrated by the following statement: [P8] “*...and that frustration of we are trying so hard ... I am working so hard and I am not getting it right ...*”

In this study, the participants mentioned frustration as a precursor to emotionally abusive behaviour, as was also illustrated by the quotations above. Frustration can be defined as an emotional state that occurs when a person persists with an action in the anticipation of gratification of a desired outcome but does not ultimately attain this goal (Anderson & Bushman, 2002:37). Bierzynska, Marchewka, Debowska, Duszyk, Zajkowski, Falkiewicz, Nowicka, Strelau and Kossut (2016:1) assert that the consequences of a frustrating incident may lead to numerous negative emotional responses, such as stress, unwavering anger, unhappiness and rage. A theory often associated with violent behaviour and abuse is the frustration-aggression hypothesis. According to Fiske (2010:415), the frustration-aggression hypothesis supposes that “frustration typically leads to aggression in some of form and all aggression results from frustration of some kind”. Gasa (2005:26) stresses that “frustration is one of the aversive stimuli that may instigate aggression if suitable aggressive cues are present”. When it comes to teacher sport-coaches, aversive stimuli would instigate frustration, which could then lead to aggressive outbursts. Children not understanding instructions and teacher sport-coaches experiencing personal problems at home were mentioned in the above verbatim quotations as some of the triggers that cause frustration and ultimately lead to emotional abuse. Frustration as a cause of emotional abuse was not reported in the literature (chapter 3).

5.4.3.1.3 Sub-category 3.1.3: Power

Power exhibited by teacher sport-coaches is another way emotional abuse may transpire in coach-athlete relationships. Teacher sport-coaches would show they are in control by displaying dominance in coach-athlete interactions: [P1] “*...so that he ... can get dominance over a child so that he can understand maybe ... who is the boss in inverted commas ...*”

Teachers are in a position of power over their students. However, with the advent of the human rights era, teachers believe that they are relinquishing power. Therefore, some teacher sport-coaches believe that the only way to impose their superiority onto their athletes is by employing emotionally abusive practices to regain a sense of control: [P10] *“I think to take control ... to look like the bigger person I think that is why they will do that ... to say they are the boss ... to show authority ...”*

The power coaches hold over their athletes may influence the coach-athlete relationship and may add to an athlete's vulnerability to become a victim of emotional abuse (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:228). According to Stirling and Kerr (2009:228), coaches might hold power over athletes in terms of age, gender (especially in the context of male coaches over female athletes), their expertise of the sport, authority to give incentives or to punish, as well as prior experience in competing. As Tofler *et al.* (1996) state, the power coaches hold over their athletes are significant as they play many roles being the coach of an athlete (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:228). Due to constant travelling, coaches also spend considerable time with athletes, which could ultimately lead to a power shift as the coach is the adult and is responsible for the well-being of the child in the absence of the parents (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:231). This finding aligns with the literature (see par. 3.4.3).

5.4.3.1.4 Sub-category 3.1.4: Winning motive

A winning motive is ingrained in many people, as was explained by the following participant: [P7] *“I am telling you ... it is just so ... if you can show me who does not want to win then I can immediately show you the loser.”*

Pressure to attain trophies and the honour that goes along with such achievements all play a role in establishing a culture of emotional abuse: [P8] *“I think the winning motive open itself to those type of derogatory comments or emotional bullying because you want to win since you are so hell-bend on winning a league.”*

Another participant believed that a winning motive is detrimental to the healthy development of a child: [P7] *“... yes, I think emotional abuse is when a person firstly start to only be performance-oriented just to over-emphasise performance because performance is important and a person want to perform ... but to over-emphasise performance instead of the athlete's development.”* This participant also equated a

winning motive to pressure that is put on children who may not know how to deal effectively with what has been put on their shoulders: [P7] “...*but to push him at all costs for the winning motive ... you put too much pressure on children.*”

Breiger, Cumming, Smith and Smoll (2015:395) believe that “the ‘winning is everything’ orientation has been internalized by many people connected with sports, including fans, members of the media, coaches, parents, and athletes”. Furthermore, at all levels, from professional sport to youth sport level, sports competition is by its nature a contest where both sides are trying to emerge triumphant (Breiger *et al.*, 2015:395). An increased pressure to win creates a negative atmosphere and decreases the fun of playing sport (Merkel, 2013:156). Parents and coaches can create elevated amounts of tension and apprehension for the young athlete (Merkel, 2013:156). Further, coaches and parents can unintentionally set a child up for disappointment by instituting unrealistic objectives for performance and winning by pressing a young athlete to take part in sport beyond their capabilities and interests (Merkel, 2013:156). As far as athletes go, findings show that “winning is far less important to young athletes than many coaches believe” (Breiger *et al.*, 2015:395). This could lead to many of the problems in youth sport that result from incorrect applications of a winning model, causing unwarranted pressure that can do harm to young athletes and push them away from sport competition, denying them of prospects to develop physically and socially (Breiger *et al.*, 2015:396). This finding is also reported in the literature (see par. 3.4.1) where the competitive environment of sport was mentioned as a breeding ground for emotionally abusive acts. Also, according to the personal construct theory described in chapter 3 (see par. 3.6.2), coaches construct the idea of winning as the most important part of participation in sport.

5.4.3.2 Category 3.2: Learners

Learner-on-learner abuse was also mentioned by participants. Peer pressure was seen as the most prominent cause of abuse amongst learners.

5.4.3.2.1 Sub-category 3.2.1: Peer pressure

A participant described peer pressure as follows: [P5] “... *peer pressure where children ... make degrading comments ...*”

According to Shepherd, Lane, Tapscott and Gentile (2011:774), “influence from others can be direct and explicit, as in the case of peer pressure, where one or more people cajole, bully, or outright command others to change their behaviour to conform to the group”. Cialdini and Goldstein (2004:606) distinguish between two forms of peer pressure, namely normative and informational. Normative peer pressure is directed by the will to be accepted by and to receive the affirmation of peers, whereas informational influence originates from the necessity of being correct (Aronson, Wilson & Akert, 1999). In the context of this study, peers will, because of peer pressure, use degrading comments towards another athlete to be accepted.

One participant expressed that forming alliances is part of school sport: [P11] “... *it happens because of politics in the team ... in the sense of ... I form a clique and he forms a clique ...*”

The participants stated that learners would form cliques. Wagstaff, Martin and Thelwell (2017:164) explain that “cliques are basically groups within the group”. These authors mention two criteria that should be met to be categorised as a clique, namely, people must belong to the same whole group, and members should have a level of interdependence in the group (Wagstaff *et al.*, 2017:164). In sport, the existence of subgroups and cliques has traditionally been linked with topics ranging from of exclusion, ostracism, disputes, lack of consistency, pressure, and decreased probability of accomplishment (Fletcher & Hanton, 2003). It was therefore the participants’ view that cliques comprising of learners could cause emotional abuse in school sport coaching. In previous chapters, cliques were not discussed. However, the finding in this regard showed that abuse amongst learners is prominent today as a result of learning and modelling behaviour, as was discussed in chapter 3 with regard to the social learning theory (see par. 3.6.1).

5.4.3.3 Category 3.3: External factors

Under this category, three sub-categories emerged from the data, namely competition, school culture and pressure, which are all factors that could lead to emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

5.4.3.3.1 Sub-category 3.3.1: Competition

Competition was identified as a cause of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Competition can be particularly problematic for athletes if achievement goals are not met. This is especially notable when the level of competition exceeds the level of skill the athletes possess: [P7] “...*sometimes we compete in competitions we are not ready for ...*”

Likewise, teacher sport-coaches who focus only on winning during competitions and not on testing the ability of their athletes, create an environment that is conducive to emotional abuse: [P7] “... *you want to measure yourself but the competitions where there is only the goal of ... there's a winner ...*” This was also reiterated by another participant: [P8] “... *competition is good, but healthy competition ...*” Coaches should ensure that competition is healthy and that participation is accentuated more than anything else.

To achieve greatness in sport can finally steer young athletes towards their physical and mental limits and beyond (Gervis *et al.*, 2016:773). Therefore, according to Stirling (2011:26), a significant criticism of children's participation in sport has been the widespread atmosphere of having to compete, which characterises most, if not all, organised youth sport. The way in which competitive sport predisposes young athletes to abuse when a winning motive is emphasised instead of other objectives for participating in sport, forces the child to become a medium of status to be ordered to fulfil a role within the field of sport (Cook & Cole, 2001). As Stirling (2011:28) suggests, an athlete in this scenario is no longer a person with personal needs and demands but instead, is regarded as an instrument to be exploited in search of sporting success. This concurs with par. 3.4.1, which identified a competitive environment as a probable cause of emotional abuse in school sport.

5.4.3.3.2 Sub-category 3.3.2: School culture

The school culture may also be a contributing factor to emotional abuse in school sport coaching. One participant stated that emotional abuse can occur if there is a non-conformist in the team: [P3] “... *the person or individual does not accept the climate or the culture of the rest ...*”

Culture should be taken into account when it comes to emotional abuse in school sport, as was illustrated by P3: “... *the big thing comes back to culture again ...*”, adding that “*I will also say then it is culture specific.*”

Matsumoto (1996:16) defines culture as “the set of attitudes, values, beliefs, and behaviors shared by a group of people, but different for each individual, communicated from one generation to the next”. In understanding culture, it is necessary to grasp the underlying assumptions that are commonly intuitive but actually regulates how group members behave, think and act (Spencer-Oatey, 2012:3). As Spencer-Oatley (2012:4) contends, culture influences behaviour and understanding of behaviour. In this study, the participants mentioned that emotional abuse would ensue if an athlete did not conform to the standard culture set in the team.

5.4.3.3.3 Sub-category 3.3.3: Pressure

Pressure can also cause emotional abuse in school sport coaching. External pressure can come from parents, as was suggested by this participant: [P4] “... *you know when you were brought up and your parents put that pressure on you ...*” Parents who had dreams of having successful careers in sport but failed, may live vicariously through their children, putting pressure on them to perform: [P5] “... *a child is forced and pressured to achieve something that the parents could not ...*”

External pressures can also come from communities where success in school sport is non-negotiable: [P7] “... *a community can also apply emotional abuse ...*”

In the above quotations, the participants mentioned that parents and the community can put a lot of pressure on athletes to perform, which could lead to emotionally abusive practices. Parental pressure levels are judged during participation in physical sporting activities and are defined by O’Rourke, Smith, Smoll and Cumming (2011:400) as the extent to which they drive their children to participate, to achieve better sporting accomplishments and to continue practising. This pressure has been found to be associated with stress and is negatively associated with gratification and enthusiasm (O’Rourke *et al.*, 2011:400). This correlates with what was reported in chapter 3, namely that sport in a competitive environment may be a possible cause of emotional abuse in school sport (see par. 3.4.1).

5.4.4 Theme 4: Effects of emotional abuse

The effects of emotional abuse can be divided into two categories. The first category entails psychological effects of emotional abuse, and the second category involves personal effects of emotional abuse. The psychological effects of emotional abuse can further be discussed under two headings, namely depression and low self-esteem. These two effects are discussed in greater detail in the following section. Personal effects of emotional abuse include the child quitting sport and undeveloped potential, which are also discussed later in this section.

5.4.4.1 Category 4.1: Psychological effects

The victim may suffer from depression and low self-esteem after being abused. These two sub-categories are now discussed.

5.4.4.1.1 Sub-category 4.1.1: Depression

This study found that depression is a consequence of emotional abuse. One participant stated that anxiety may also be a result of emotional abuse: [P4] “... *it leads to depression and anxiety and these kinds of things ...*” Another participant alluded to the fact that depression may develop over a prolonged period of time: [P6] “... *and that could then lead to depression in the end ...*”

Depression is a mental health disorder which impedes on a person’s physical and physiological well-being (Ostapiuk-Karolczuk, Kasperska & Botwina, 2015:113). The disorder disturbs an individual’s views, emotional states, physical health, behaviour, and capacity to function in daily activities (Ostapiuk-Karolczuk *et al.*, 2015:113). Ostapiuk-Karolczuk *et al.* (2015:113) claim that depression is likely brought about by different genetic, biological, environmental and psychological factors. Psychological factors influencing athletic performance include negative feelings, sense of loss and failure, or stress related to sport participation, such as extreme apprehension, frustration, terror, amongst others (Humphrey, Yow & Bowden, 2000). Ostapiuk-Karolczuk *et al.* (2015:113) further believe that athletes are also vulnerable to an environmental pressure focused on achieving progress and winning. This finding concurs with chapter 3, where depression was mentioned as a consequence of emotional abuse (see par. 3.5).

5.4.4.1.2 Sub-category 4.1.2: Low self-esteem

Low self-esteem was also reported as an outcome of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. This is illustrated by the following statement: [P2] “... *if you take on the child emotionally over something then I think it could give them a knock ...*”

A low sense of self occurs because of teacher sport-coaches' dismissive behaviour, leaving athletes feeling worthless, as were depicted by these participants: [P4] “... *it just feels like they can't do anything right ...*” and [P9] “... *he believes he is not good enough for anything and you damage him as person ...*”

Self-esteem is defined as “a person's appraisal of his or her value” (Leary & Baumeister, 2000:2). In a study by Gross and Keller (1992:181), emotionally abused respondents and those who recounted both psychological and physical abuse, exhibited lower self-esteem scores than those respondents who were not abused. Researchers found that a low self-esteem contributes to depression (Roberts & Monroe, 1992). In addition, Gross and Keller (1992:181) found that the results of childhood emotional abuse appear to suggest that childhood emotional abuse result in a tendency toward depression and low self-esteem years after the abuse has occurred. When considering these studies and findings on emotional abuse, it is clear that such an experience can have long-lasting effects until adulthood. This finding is also corroborated in chapter 3 (see par. 3.5).

5.4.4.2 Category 4.2: Personal

According to the participants in this study, two effects of emotional abuse in sport are children quitting the sport and undeveloped potential. These two sub-categories are discussed in greater detail.

5.4.4.2.1 Sub-category 4.2.1: Quitting sport

Children can decide whether they want to participate in school sport. Therefore, if a child decides that further participation in school sport is no longer something he or she wants, he or she would quit the sport. According to one participant, consistent emotional abuse over a prolonged period would ultimately lead to discontinuation of the sport: [P4] “... *over a period of time that child will then choose ... listen here I don't want to do sport anymore ...*”

Another participant mentioned that athletes quit sport because they no longer enjoy participating: [P4] “... *I know of some people who were in situations where they wanted to leave sport ... school sport because it was not fun anymore ...*”

The rates of children who drop out of organised sport rise from middle to late childhood (Perry, 2013). These trends may in part reflect samples of sports where children and adolescents are trying out or transferring between different sports (Coté, Horton, MacDonald & Wilkes, 2009:7). This may also signify unhappiness or undesirable experiences while participating in sport (Temple & Crane, 2016:857). According to Perry (2013), children quit from organised sport due to apparent capability, opposing priorities, lack of pleasure or interest, or a change to a different sport or activity. Social causes of dropout mainly include a negative relationship with a sport coach or lack of collective support from others with regard to the sport or activity (Perry, 2013). This finding was not replicated in the literature review.

5.4.4.2.2 Sub-category 4.2.2: Undeveloped potential

When an athlete excels at a sport, various benefits and opportunities may befall him or her. However, due to emotionally abusive practices in school sport, a talented athlete may not be afforded such opportunities: [P6] “... *I think just personally the child will lose incredibly much ... by scholarships that he can get ... by playing for the provincial team ... by possibly playing for the Springbokke in the future ...*”

The participant above mentioned that countless opportunities can be wasted by a coach emotionally abusing an athlete. To achieve these goals, athlete development should be emphasised, as was mentioned by the following participant: [P7] “... *I think at school level is it mostly about the child’s development on the level where he is to be developed and then also to harness his potential ...*”

Due to the number of athletes participating in youth sport, coaches need to understand not only the effect they have on the athletic abilities of athletes, but also on their psychological development (Brinton, Hill & Ward, 2011:52). The participants regarded a lack of passion from the teacher sport-coach as a reason why some athletes do not achieve desired results: [P6] “... *you must have the love and passion for this.*”

Moreover, a lack of knowledge on the part of the teacher sport-coach negatively influences the athlete’s future, as the athlete is not being developed appropriately: [P6]

“... so in the end it is not physical abuse but out of ignorance or because of a lack of love for a sport ... can it (have) an influence in the end on the child’s performance...”

Undeveloped potential is also a result of teacher sport-coaches not being able to select the extracurricular activities they are involved in and therefore promote only negativity in their coaching: [P9] *“... sometimes you are just not a master in netball or hockey or whatever but you are told to do it and it is not your passion ... and because you are negative then you are negative towards the children and the team.”*

Without a doubt, “if coaches are passionate toward coaching, this could be contributing to high quality coach-athlete relationships given that they should be entirely devoted to their athletes” (Lafrenière, Jowett, Vallerand & Carbonneau, 2011:144). Vallerand (2008:1-2) defines passion as a strong tendency towards a self-defining pursuit that one loves, finds significant, and spends a substantial amount of time and energy on. Participants in the current study agreed that a lack of passion causes teacher sport-coaches to react negatively towards their athletes and keep them from obtaining their desired results, therefore keeping them from achieving future opportunities that may befall them. These findings were not replicated in the literature review in chapters 2 and 3.

5.4.5 Theme 5: Knowledge of legal regulation

Theme 5 considers the participants’ knowledge of legal regulation. Three categories in this regard emerged from the data: geborgenheit, knowledge of legal sources, and sport qualifications that pass on legal knowledge. These three categories are discussed in the subsequent sections.

5.4.5.1 Category 5.1: Geborgenheit

Oosthuizen (2009:16) believes “all through life, humankind is in desperate need of geborgenheit”. The root of the word geborgenheit means “to salvage, salve, save, rescue, shelter, shield, hide, be saved or be in safety” (Oosthuizen, 2009:16). However, a deeper analysis shows that the meaning of geborgenheit encompasses far more than just safety and security (Oosthuizen, 2009:16). A renowned German philosopher summarised this concept as “an existence in sheltered presence” where you can never feel abandoned or without love (Heidegger, 1960:80). Under the

category of geborgenheit, two sub-categories emerged, which are discussed in further detail. The participants in this study acknowledged that school children are vulnerable and therefore they should be protected from harm.

5.4.5.1.1 Sub-category 5.1.1: Vulnerability

Some participants acknowledged that children are vulnerable and should therefore be treated as children and not as young adults as some teacher sport-coaches would do: [P4] “... *before anything else before the child is an athlete is a child still a child ...*”

Furthermore, teacher sport-coaches should be aware of these vulnerabilities and should be reminded that they are working with children: [P4] “... *it is true to always remind a coach that listen you are working with a child ...*”

Unlike other species, the human infant does not come into this world as a completed being (Oosthuizen, 2009:17). Children are dependent beings as they go through a passage of time to become independent (Oosthuizen, 2009:17). As Oosthuizen (2009:17) posits, “in their pursuit of evolving reality, they are a dependant of the adult.” The role of an adult is to lead and educate a child to be motivated and enthusiastic to learn. Wolters (1965:30) further asserts that children as human beings naturally possess sincerity and willingness to obtain knowledge, as this is seen as the most essential condition for optimal learning. However, this proclivity for learning also predisposes them to vulnerability (Oosthuizen, 2009:17). They are subjected to vulnerability when they are in situations where they experience uncertainty and an absence of geborgenheit (Oosthuizen, 2009:17). The participants felt that teacher sport-coaches should be knowledgeable of the fact that the athletes they are coaching are only children. The athletes are willing to learn, but when they are uncertain, the teacher sport-coach should guide and instruct them in a helpful and non-abusive manner, as they are at risk of being abused due to their inherent vulnerability. This finding is supported by literature in chapter 2 (see par. 2.3.1.7).

5.4.5.1.2 Sub-category 5.1.2: Protection

Due to children’s aforementioned vulnerability, teacher sport-coaches need to protect them. The following participant mentioned that knowledge of the law is crucial to protect the child: [P1] “... *it just falls in there that you as teacher certain ... follow some laws and the protection of the child as ... one of the important things should judge ...*”

Another participant acknowledged that children have rights which guarantee them protection before the eyes of the law: [P4] “... *because the child has certain rights that protect him or her ...*”

Furthermore, due to the teacher sport-coach being *in loco parentis*, he or she has a duty of care: [P11] “... *I am responsible for the well-being spiritual, emotional, everything you know as an educator ... if you are a teacher and a coach then you has so much more responsibility to make sure that the child is okay emotionally, physically and spiritually ...*”

Another concept related to *geborgenheit*, is protection. Section 28 of the Constitution (SA, 1996a) affords children numerous rights. The Constitution (South Africa, 1996) provides protection to children under this section. According to section 28 (1)(d) of the Constitution (South Africa, 1996), every child should be protected from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation. One of the objectives of section 28 is to protect children in vulnerable positions (Herselman, 2006). The Children’s Act (38 of 2005) also stipulates in section 8(2) that all organs of state in any sphere of government and all officials, employees and representatives of an organ of state must respect, protect and promote the rights of children contained in this Act. All these laws and regulations concur with this section.

5.4.5.2 Category 5.2: Legal sources

Participants mentioned that they had knowledge on legal matters pertaining to emotional abuse in school sport coaching. They stated that they were aware of teacher sport-coaches’ liability should they be found to be the cause of any harm that may befall an athlete. They also maintained that they were aware of the child’s human rights and that it should be taken into consideration every time they step onto the sports field.

5.4.5.2.1 Sub-category 5.2.1: Liability

Teacher sport-coaches’ knowledge of the law extended to issues on liability in case of intentional or negligent behaviour. If a teacher-sport coach’s behaviour is inconsistent with that prescribed in the Constitution, he or she will be liable, as was expressed by

the following participant: [P3] “... *because when you are ... as a teacher wrong with regards to the constitution and can you be held liable ...*”

Participants believed that teacher sport-coaches should educate themselves on clauses pertaining to liability, as this would indemnify them in the case of injury or harm:

[P6] “... *there are clauses that indemnify yourself and the school ...*”

Should they not do this, a plethora of legal concerns could arise: [P8] “... *liability can cause ... unbelievable problems if he or she did not follow the right procedures ...*”

In South Africa, the law of delict determines whether a teacher sport-coach could be held liable for damages. The law of delict contains five elements that should all be present to be held delictually liable (Rossouw, 2006:34). These elements include an act, damage, unlawfulness, causal link and fault (Rossouw, 2006:34). If the teacher-sport coach is found to be liable according to the law of delict, compensation has to be paid to the wronged party.

According to Rossouw (2006:32), creating a safe and secure environment should be a goal all schools should strive for. It is therefore imperative that all teacher sport-coaches are aware of the legal aspects pertaining to harm that may befall the athletes they coach (Rossouw, 2006:32). Rossouw (2006:32) asserts that numerous legal issues regarding sport participation have surfaced, of which liability has become the most noticeable. Coaches may be held liable for negligent behaviour if they are found to have not exercised their duty of care (Rossouw, 2006:32). The issue of liability was examined under the law of delict in chapter 2 (see par. 2.5).

5.4.5.2.2 Sub-category 5.2.2: Human rights

Participants commented that a child has many rights, of which human rights are probably the most significant. One participant acknowledged that children have rights, stating: [P4] “... *because the child has certain rights ...*”

Another participant stated that children are usually aware when a teacher-sport coach crosses the line and becomes abusive, not affording them their basic human rights: [P8] “... *can it feel to the child that listen this guy is breaking me down ...*”

One participant indicated that the law is now more balanced when it comes to the rights of children: [P11] “... *numerous laws were put in place of you should not do this*”

you should not do this with your child ... yes, it is much more on equal footing than a few years ago ...”

The Constitution of South Africa (South Africa, 1996) sets out fundamental rights that are related to the human rights of all inhabitants that live in South Africa. These three fundamental rights include the right to human dignity, the right to equality, and the right to freedom. When it comes to human rights, Wang (2002:171) mentions that “the idea of human rights has increasingly been playing a very important part in our contemporary life, the political in particular, the cultural in general”. An important human right is the fundamental right to dignity. As Killmister (2016:1087) explains, “dignity is commonly put forward as a central concept for human rights”. In the case of emotional abuse in school sport coaching, the child’s human dignity is infringed upon. Therefore, the participants voiced how important it is to be aware of the human rights children possess, as is illustrated in the Constitution (South Africa, 1996) under section 28, which is promulgated for the rights of children only. In addition, the Children’s Act (38 of 2005) also ensures that children’s rights are met and protected (see par. 2.3.2.4).

5.4.5.3 Category 5.3: Sport qualification

The participants said that their knowledge of legal issues pertaining to emotional abuse in school sport coaching was increased through compulsory sport qualifications. Two sub-categories emerged in this regard, namely knowledge of legal rules and regulations, and prevention of physical injury.

5.4.5.3.1 Sub-category 5.3.1: Rules and regulations

Rules and regulations should be imparted to teacher sport-coaches. This participant stated that sport qualifications can play a significant role in departing valuable information on issues such as coach-athlete communication: [P4] “*... to put rules and regulations in place in terms of how to speak to the children on the sports field ...”*

One participant stressed that sport qualifications are necessary as they educate teacher sport-coaches on numerous legal matters concerning coaching minors: [P5] “*... complete it every year ... or two years ... makes for ... that a person is more up to date with what is what ...”*

According to Roos, Oosthuizen and Smit (2009:84), regulations can be defined as “rules that are issued by a senior executive functionary to regulate administrative affairs within the ambit of its authority”. Regulations are detailed provisions on issues that are only spoken of briefly in legislation (Roos *et al.*, 2009:84). Similar to a code of conduct, school rules are the rules that control lawfulness and authority of the particular school. As Roos *et al.* (2009:87) state, “rules are designed essentially to regulate general issues and provide for categories and groups of persons in typical circumstances”. In this study, the participants acknowledged that it is important to keep up to date with the rules and regulations of the sport they coach. These findings are in line with the section on subordinate legislation in chapter 2 (see par. 2.3.3).

5.4.5.3.2 Sub-category 5.3.1: Physical injury

Most of the participants involved in this study coached rugby, which is known as a physical contact sport. Hence, injury is part of this sport. Through sport qualifications, teacher sport-coaches are taught how to prevent or manage injuries suffered by children during participation, as was stated by these two participants: [P6] “... *how to prevent a child from getting injured ... if a child gets injured what steps to follow ...*” and [P12] “... *the laws of the injuries if a child gets injured ...*”

Sport qualifications can impart information on legal matters. This participant gave an example of a legal principle that is communicated through these courses: [P8] “... *what will a reasonable person do ...*”

Sport qualifications also instruct teacher sport-coaches on different procedures to take before, during and after practices and matches: [P9] “... *protocol is that ... we need the children’s information and we need a copy of their ... medical information that we keep at the field ... we cannot practice if we don’t have a central medical aid kit for basic injuries ...*”

Boksmart is a sport qualification that was mentioned by 10 out of the 12 participants. The *Boksmart* initiative was introduced in July 2011 by the South African Rugby Union (SARU) and the Chris Burger/Petro Jackson Players’ Fund (Chris Burger/Petro Jackson Players’ Fund, 2009). The main aim of this initiative is to make rugby safer for all the players and to decrease the amount of serious or critical injuries in the sport (Geldenhuys, 2009). It also strives to improve the quality of rugby at all levels of

participation (Geldenhuys, 2009). Rugby is now one of the most popular viewed participation sports in the world (Brown, Verhagen, van Mechelen, Lambert & Draper, 2016:637). According to the United Kingdom's Health and Safety Executive, "although the risk of suffering a catastrophic injury while playing rugby has been classified as 'acceptable' these injuries have tragic and long-lasting emotional and physical consequences for the players and their families" (Brown *et al.*, 2016:637). It is with this in mind that SARU implemented the *Boksmart* programme. Sport qualifications fall under the category of subordinate legislation, as was presented in chapter 2 (see par. 2.3.3).

5.4.6 Theme 6: Teachers' suggested strategies to curb emotional abuse

Teacher sport-coaches suggested strategies that can potentially curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Three strategies were provided on how to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching. These categories include training and development, building rapport, and implementing a sport policy. These strategies are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

5.4.6.1 Category 6.1: Training and development

Teacher sport-coaches mentioned various training programmes that could be employed to improve coaching practices and therefore curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching. The sources of training include seminars, courses and parent meetings, which should be employed to enable teacher sport-coaches to interact more efficiently with the athletes they are coaching. Mentoring was also mentioned as a strategy. More experienced teacher sport-coaches could use mentoring to help younger counterparts. Two sub-categories, namely extending knowledge of emotional abuse in sport and improving coaching methods, also emerged from the data and are discussed next.

5.4.6.1.1 Sub-category 6.1.1: Extending knowledge of emotional abuse in sport

The participants believed that extending one's knowledge as a teacher sport-coach would create a safe environment for athletes to participate in sport. As one participant said: [P1] "... *your knowledge of coach to broaden it so that the teacher or the coach can ... coach the child with ease and confidence ...*"

Participants mentioned the importance of courses to educate teacher sport-coaches. This participant emphasised this by stating that: [P1] “... *by ... attending courses*” teacher sport-coaches extend their knowledge of both the sport as well as emotional abuse related to school sport coaching.

Another participant noted that more experienced teacher sport-coaches can take on the role of mentors to assist younger coaches who may still have some difficulties in dealing with athletes: [P1] “... *retired coaches (to) get them who have done this job before ... to talk to the younger coaches and to give assistance and also in a way to have a mentorship even if it is not just in the class but also on the field ...*”

Higher education institutions can also play a contributing role in creating awareness and educating teacher sport-coaches on emotional abuse in school sport coaching: [P6] “... *the Pukke, for example, come here often to coach athletics and that a person can make it part of the programme to make people aware ...*”

Recently, the context of sport has begun to be thought of as an area in which coaches' specialised learning and development could take place (Cushion, 2006). Learning is an “act or process by which behavioural change, knowledge, skills, and attitudes are acquired” (Jarvis, 2004:100–101) by an individual, resulting in an internal transformation. Coaches' learning can be categorised into two forms, namely informal and formal learning. Research into coaches' learning has confirmed that practitioners acquire knowledge through numerous informal avenues, including prior involvement in sport as an athlete, informal mentoring, actual coaching experiences, and constant interactions with peers and athletes (Cushion, 2011:60). As Cushion (2011:60) stresses, “informal learning through coaching experience and engaging with other coaches is consistently reported as the dominant mode of learning.” Mentoring has been recognised as contributing to both structured and unstructured assistance for coach learning (Cushion, 2011:61). The literature focuses on the significance of formal mentoring, signifying that this will inspire learning (Cushion, 2011:61). With regard to this study, the social learning theory (discussed in chapter 3) coincides with learning mentioned in this section. The participants mentioned a positive learning process where healthy coaching habits should be modelled instead of emotionally abusive practices (see par. 3.6.1).

5.4.6.1.2 Sub-category 6.1.2: Coaching methods

Improving the coaching methods of teacher sport-coaches would greatly influence the relationship between coach and athlete. One participant mentioned that: [P1] “... *with the techniques that he can teach to specific children with specific roles in sport ...*” In other words, teacher sport-coaches can pass on their expertise of the sport in a clear, logical manner to their athletes without any chances of miscommunication. Athletes are then able to acquire skills that would ultimately lead to an increase in performance, which benefits both the coach and athlete: [P1] “... *to learn skills ...*”

It is argued that a skilful coach must have extensive sport-specific knowledge about the techniques and tactics of the given sport (Isberg cited in Standal & Hemmestad, 2011:45). In addition, the coach should possess administrative leadership, mental insight and the exercise knowledge of a physiologist (Martens, 1996). Standal and Hemmestad (2011:45) explain that “the coach must simultaneously be able to retain a long-term perspective in planning for a season, and make immediate decisions on the training ground and in the heat of the game”. The abilities needed to manage the coaching situation subsequently become increasingly complicated (Standal & Hemmestad, 2011:45). Therefore, the coach can handle the intricacies of coaching by seeking technical knowledge to maintain his or her work (Standal & Hemmestad, 2011:45). Coaching methods as a strategy to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching is not supported in the literature in previous chapters.

5.4.6.2 Category 6.2: Rapport

The participants mentioned building rapport as a strategy to curb emotional abuse. This could be done by building mutual respect and utilising constructive criticism.

5.4.6.2.1 Sub-category 6.2.1: Mutual respect

Participants deemed mutual respect as necessary to build a healthy coach-athlete relationship, as was illustrated by the following participant: [P7] “... *that mutual respect is extremely important.*”

One participant mentioned that treating your players with respect will be beneficial: [P8] “... *to at least in general treat the players with respect ...*”; whereas another participant emphasised the need for mutual respect, as respect should be given and

received [P11] “... because respect comes from two sides ... if you have respect for the child then the child will have respect for you.”

Respect as a concept differs from society to society. In eastern culture, the elderly is seen as worthy of respect and no one will ever consider the young earning the respect of the aged (Celkan, Green & Hussain, 2015:2174). However, this is in stark contrast to western culture: Celkan *et al.* (2015:2174) assert that, in the “field of education ... respect is considered to be a mutual and most basic obligation”. Celkan *et al.* (2015:2174) further posit that “the higher the level of communication is with the instructor, the better the relations would be and when there exists good relations between students and instructors, respect would undoubtedly be mutual”. Consequently, improved communication skills could lead to respect being gained by both teacher sport-coach and athlete. To respect children is to handle them in a way that allows them to see themselves as individuals bestowed with dignity, that is, having identical standing to make assertions on others (Giesinger, 2012). Mutual respect as a strategy to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching was not reported in the literature review in previous chapters.

5.4.6.2.2 Sub-category 6.2.2: Constructive criticism

Employing constructive criticism is another way in which emotional abuse in school sport can be curbed, according to the participants. The following participant described how constructive criticism could help to build the self-esteem of an athlete: [P2] “... *to give constructive criticism ... to let the child feel that he actually belongs there.*”

One participant said that it is important to mention positive aspects of the athletes’ performances instead of impulsively recounting all the negatives: [P8] “... *you want to fight but listen then before you start and mention the positive things that you saw.*”

Another participant mentioned that asking questions and making the athlete aware of what he or she is doing wrong, will ultimately be more beneficial to his or her development: [P12] “... *you ask him what he did wrong because if he realises what he did wrong he will focus more on that.*” Another important strategy is to focus on the mistake and not the individual: [P8] “...*do not take on the child personally ...*”

Feedback can be defined as information communicated to athletes about the degree to which their behaviours and performance resemble expectancies (Hein & Koka,

2007). Horn, Glenn and Wentzell (1993:273) stress that feedback is one of the most vital coaching behaviours, as it directly expresses information about athletes' capabilities. A strategy suggested to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching is for teacher sport-coaches to use constructive feedback when evaluating an athlete's performance on the sports field.

Amorose and Horn (2000:66) found that the use of positive feedback and not applying negative feedback would elevate levels of motivation in athletes, including a more positive and significant coach-athlete relationship. Results from a study conducted by Minoos, Nasser and Misagh (2014:523) indicated that there is a correlation between athletes' satisfaction and positive feedback and informational feedback. This finding was not reported in the literature on emotional abuse in sport.

5.4.6.3 Category 6.3: Sport policy

Sport policy should be implemented to provide proper guidelines on what is expected of all parties involved in school sport: [P8] *"... if there is not a policy we can't work ... so a sport policy ... every school should have a school policy ..."*

5.4.6.3.1 Sub-category 6.3.1: Code of conduct

According to Bray (2005:133), "section 8 of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996, determines that the governing body of a public school must adopt a code of conduct for the learners of the school." A code of conduct can be defined as a code that comprises the disciplinary rules for learners and can be seen, consequently, as an essential component to school discipline (Bray, 2005:133). A code of conduct endorses appropriate and well-mannered behaviour that sets requirements for positive discipline (Bray, 2005:133). However, as Bray (2005:134) points out, "it also deals with negative discipline (e.g. unacceptable behaviour and conflict) and provides measures to deal with such incidents." In other words, a code of conduct assists teachers when the learners are disobedient. Van der Bank (2000:310-315) states that disciplinary actions are therefore formulated to promote and uphold a well-disciplined school environment and, simultaneously, proscribe and punish conduct deemed as unacceptable through measures that also inspire perpetrators to improve their behaviour (see par. 2.3.3.1).

5.4.6.3.2 Sub-category 6.3.2: Parents' involvement

Lastly, the involvement of parents should be emphasised as a strategy to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching. One participant asserted that parents should be present when it comes to affairs dealing with their children's school life: [P2] *"... if you look at the parents and how the child ... child's parents are involved at the school ... maybe bring that in ..."*

Another participant stated that a sport policy would ensure that rules and regulations would be upheld by all parties involved in school sport, specifically when it comes to verbal insults: [P8] *"... such a type of policy that prohibits parents, children and coaches from really using horrible language ..."*

One participant believed that parents could also be emotionally abusive toward both teacher sport-coaches and their children. Therefore, communication between the school and the parents is necessary so as to protect all parties: [P8] *"... send a letter that says listen parents ... you should not intervene with parents ..."*

Another participant concluded that parents should also attend courses in order to understand what their role should be in school sport: [P11] *"... parents could maybe attend a seminar ..."*

Without the support and input of the parents, coaching structures would simply fall apart (Kay & Bass, 2011:169). As Kay and Bass (2011:169) suggest, "although families play this crucial role, they can be surprisingly invisible within sport." Parents often act as the glue that holds everything together, providing their children the financial, mental and practical support to achieve greatness in sport (Kay & Bass, 2011:170). They have a pivotal function in children's early socialisation into sport and their lasting participation (Kay & Bass, 2011:171). Trussell's (2009) doctoral research showed that sport amid rural families in Canada became a significant activity through which parents and children connected and through which parents met expectations of good parenting. It is imperative for coaches that families play their vital role as efficiently as possible, supplementing their own work rather than diminishing it (Kay & Bass, 2011:172). Parents' involvement was not reported in the literature in earlier chapters.

5.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the main themes, categories and sub-categories were discussed. Theme 1 depicted the participants' views on emotional abuse. Theme 2 described different forms of emotional abuse. The third theme explained the causes of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Theme 4 discussed the effects of emotional abuse from the view of the participants. Theme 5 discussed the importance of knowledge on legal regulation. Lastly, theme 6 highlighted participants' suggestions to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

The next chapter concludes the study and recommendations are made for future research. The limitations of the study are also discussed.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this qualitative study was to explore and describe teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. In the preceding chapter, I shared teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. The following six themes emerged from the data:

- participants' views of emotional abuse in school sport coaching;
- different forms of emotional abuse in school sport coaching;
- causes of emotional abuse in school sport coaching;
- the effects of emotional abuse in school sport coaching;
- participants' knowledge of legal regulation; and
- strategies that could help to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

In this chapter, I provide a synopsis of this study. First, the factual and conceptual conclusions are elaborated on. Contributions of the study regarding knowledge, sport in education and practices of teacher sport-coaches, in general, are discussed. Thereafter, I will make my own suggestions based on conclusions drawn from the study to help foster healthy teacher coach-athlete relationships. Lastly, I will make recommendations for further research and highlights some limitations of the study.

6.2 EMPIRICAL AND CONCEPTUAL CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions are directly connected to the main- and secondary research questions and the aims of the study, and offer a fusion of both the findings and theoretical positions that are presented as empirical and conceptual conclusions (Trafford & Leshem, 2008:140).

6.2.1 Empirical conclusions

The following conclusions derived from the empirical enquiry and are based on the generated data and findings (Trafford & Leshem, 2008:140), which were in line with the aims of the study.

6.2.1.1 Exploring and describing emotional abuse in school sport coaching from teacher sport-coaches' perceptions

The main research question that was posed to participating teacher sport-coaches during the data-generation process (interview) was: *“How would you describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching?”* A major issue that became clear was that teacher sport-coaches seemed to find it difficult to identify behaviours that constitute emotional abuse. Ultimately, the responses of the participants included various descriptions of what constitutes emotional abuse in school sport coaching. The participants viewed emotional abuse in school sport coaching as consisting of bullying, humiliation, and unfairness. Further, to the question *“As a teacher sport-coach, what are your perceptions about emotional abuse in school sport?”*, the participants said that emotional abuse transpire through either verbal or physical abuse. Furthermore, verbal abuse, in the context of this study, is a direct form of emotional abuse occurring amongst peers. Secondly, verbal abuse may also be perpetrated by teacher sport-coaches. The other form of emotional abuse that emerged from the data is physical abuse, which involved extreme fitness practices or regimes employed by teacher sport-coaches to punish athletes.

6.2.1.2 The causes and effects of emotional abuse in school sport coaching

Participants described three sources that are implicated in causing emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Teachers, learners and external sources are viewed as the initiators of emotional abuse. Teacher sport-coaches employ emotionally abusive practices due to a lack of knowledge, frustration, the power they have over their athletes, and a winning motive. Teacher sport-coaches' lack of passion and knowledge can also steer emotional abuse as they are not passionate about the sport they have to coach. In turn, teacher sport-coaches may feel incompetent if they have limited knowledge of a sport code they have to coach as many of them are compelled to be involved in the school's extracurricular programmes. Frustration occurs when the goals of teacher sport-coaches are not met. Emotional abuse would arise owing to this build-up of frustration. Teacher sport-coaches exhibit power as a way of displaying dominance, which, in many situations, leads to emotionally abusive practices. The participants mentioned that a winning motive plays a key role in emotional abuse in

school sport coaching, as winning at all cost urges teacher sport-coaches to employ any given method(s) to attain desired results. Participants were of the opinion that an emphasis on winning diminishes any enjoyment athletes may experience when participating in school sport.

According to the participants, learners also initiate emotional abuse in sport through peer pressure, as peers make degrading comments toward other athletes to become part of the group or to be accepted by a circle of friends. Furthermore, external sources that could contribute to emotional abuse in school sport coaching include competition, culture and pressure from the school, athletes' parents, and the community. If athletes are not able to perform at the level the competition, emotional abuse may transpire. Cultural differences and not being accepting of a culture within a team could also result in emotionally abusive practices. Participants stated that the experience of emotional abuse in school sport coaching can have both psychological and personal effects on the victims (abused athletes). Psychological effects include depression as well as the development of a low self-esteem due to emotional abuse suffered by the victim over a prolonged period of time. Also, abused athletes may quit participation in sport and may not develop their potential as a result. When it comes to undeveloped potential, athletes cannot reach their goals due to emotionally abusive teacher sport-coaches and therefore lose their opportunities to succeed in sport as a career. They may also not be able to develop holistically as envisaged by school sport activities that run alongside academic programmes at schools.

6.2.1.3 Describing participants' knowledge of legal regulation

The participants were asked the question "*Which legal determinants regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching?*" The participants asserted that they had some knowledge of legal regulation that could pertain to emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Some participants mentioned *geborgenheit* and knowledge of legal sources as emerging themes. *Geborgenheit*, a German concept entailing a sense of ultimate safety or security, is a construct that teacher sport-coaches should be aware of when it comes to coaching children. Accordingly, children should be seen as a vulnerable population and therefore they should be protected and kept safe from harm. Likewise, participants believed that knowledge of legal sources can rightfully

prepare teacher sport-coaches to better perform their duty. Laws involving liability is considered a priority when it comes to legal issues.

6.2.1.4 Strategies suggested by teacher sport-coaches on how to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching

Participants suggested various strategies on how to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching. The first strategy involved implementing training and development programmes that serve to educate teacher sport-coaches on how to improve coaching practices. Such workshops or training sessions should include knowledge-based sessions on how to improve coach-athlete relationships. The second strategy involved school sport coaches building rapport with athletes. It was stated that mutual respect and constructive criticism can be employed to build a better relationship between the teacher sport-coach and the athlete. The participants also outlined the development of specific sport policies as important in guiding the coaching practices of teacher sport-coaches. According to the participants, a code of conduct is necessary and vital to ensure that all parties involved in school sport are aware of what is expected of them as well as rules and regulations related to school sport. A prominent suggestion provided to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching was parental involvement. Specifically, parents should be involved in their children's sport life, know their coaches, what their role as parents in school sport should be, as well as how they should conduct themselves as spectators at school sport matches.

6.2.2 Conceptual conclusions

The conceptual conclusions of this study are coupled with the conceptual framework, including its elements, in order to underscore the basis of the research design and methodology as well as the intellectual context of the study (Trafford & Leshem, 2008:140). The conceptual conclusions offered in the section below “demonstrate[s] the relationship and relevance” of the study to other investigations and theories that were emphasised in the findings (chapter 5) (Trafford & Leshem, 2008:172).

According to the social learning theory (SLT), abusive behaviour is learned by observing others in social contexts. Three assumptions of this theory can provide insight into emotionally abusive behaviours of teacher sport-coaches. First, emotional abuse is a socially learned behaviour. Young athletes tend to emulate their sport

heroes, viewing them as role models. Likewise, coaches could also be taken to be role models, even though they might have abusive tendencies. Athletes often see the coach as a knowledgeable person who can propel their athletic development. Some teacher sport-coaches in this study had experienced abusive behaviour but, as was mentioned earlier, perceived such behaviour as a normal part of the sporting process. This abusive behaviour is then modelled and a cycle ensues. Lastly, the SLT states that behaviour can be reinforced. For example, sport achievement by young athletes can be viewed as a result of the coach's efforts and so absolute obedience is seen as a way of achieving goals. A common viewpoint is that coaches' behaviour should be tolerated because they know best. This could also lead to a normalisation of emotionally abusive practices (Stirling & Kerr, 2009:233).

As it pertains to bullying, the SLT proposes that most learned behaviour will be imitated (Shafer & Silverman, 2013:496). Teacher sport-coaches may therefore have observed other coaches bullying their athletes and consequently, they would model similar behaviour in their coaching. According to the operant conditioning viewpoint, bullies have learned behaviours from other individuals and may even be disregarded as victims of bullying themselves (Shafer & Silverman, 2013:496).

Unfairness as a form of emotional abuse can be reinforced, according to the SLT. Positive reinforcement from displaying unfair behaviour can occur as a result of a repeated pattern of rewards, outcomes or events in light of discriminatory behaviour. In other words, teacher sport-coaches will get positive results from treating athletes unfairly, as the athletes have no choice but to accept this behaviour because of the power teacher sport-coaches have over them.

The power teacher sport-coaches have over their athletes can also be attributed to socially learned behaviour. Teacher sport-coaches observed from a young age that coaches have power over their athletes. This learned behaviour has thus been imprinted in their minds and as a result, emotionally abusive teacher sport-coaches still hold similar views on coaching. Vicarious learning takes place and is a dominant feature in abusive teacher sport-coaches' style of coaching. With regard to emotional abuse among peers, a peer group is viewed as a vital component in any child's development. However, a peer group can negatively affect an athlete as children tend to form affiliations within their age groups. If the modelled individual behaviour displays

emotionally abusive behaviour, it may, in turn, be modelled by others as this would be positively reinforced. This often occurs at school sport level as young athletes try to fit in with their peers.

The cognitive neo-association theory supports the notion that unpleasant events produce negative consequences (Botha, 2012:155). In the context of this study, participants mentioned that teacher sport-coaches may emotionally abuse their athletes as a result of a lack of knowledge in coaching a specific sport code. The cognitive neo-association theory can be applied to explain teacher coaches' feelings of inadequacy in coaching a sport they feel incompetent in coaching. Therefore, their negative perceptions about coaching may ultimately have negative consequences.

According to the cognitive neo-association theory, reactions to anger are based on individuals' fight or flight tendencies. In the context of school sport coaching, teacher sport-coaches are not in the position to have a flight tendency. Teaching is their profession and therefore their only other option is to fight. A fighting tendency would result in emotionally abusive practices. In addition, feelings of incompetency generally precede a low self-esteem. Teacher sport-coaches may feel that they are failing at their jobs and that the athletes are conscious of their incompetence. This, in turn, could also be construed as a negative cognitive state, and therefore ultimately drives coaches to behave aggressively, because the only memory they have of coaching sport is negative. This will have negative effects as anything related to coaching sport would be associated with aversion and pessimism.

According to the frustration-aggression hypothesis, frustration occurs because a goal has not been attained. In this study, the participants all agreed that a winning motive plays a role in emotionally abusive coaching practices. A teacher sport-coach can become more aggressive and hostile due to frustration when not achieving desired results. The feeling of losing to a competitor after a lot of hard work and practice may frustrate a teacher sport-coach and could, as a result, propel the coach to revolt. Consequently, this could lead to emotional abuse.

Social approval as a construct can be explained by employing the drive theory. This theory maintains that an inner drive or motivation occurs as certain goals need to be reached. This increased arousal helps to generate and direct a person into action. As

it pertains to peer pressure, children are driven by the goal of fitting in and belonging to a group. To belong to a group, children could be forced to act in ways contrary to their beliefs, values and morals. Especially in the context of school sport, weaker athletes may be targets of bullying. Peer pressure and the inherent drive to fit in may be the reason why some athletes imitate their peers in emotionally abusing others, as this behaviour is reinforced.

The drive theory further explains that people are directed to behave in a certain way because of an inner drive that seeks to ease pressure and achieve a goal. Two drives are identified, namely primary and secondary drives. Primary drives are those drives we need for survival, such as hunger and thirst. In this study, participants mentioned that *geborgenheit*, feeling safe and protected, are inherently important to children. This can be seen as a secondary drive. Children are deemed a vulnerable population and therefore need an environment that is conducive to safety and security. It is also seen as the work of the teacher sport-coach to have a drive that is directed at alleviating pressure and tension children may experience.

6.3 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

As was mentioned earlier, the literature attest that emotional abuse in school sport coaching has been neglected, as more overt forms of abuse seem to attract more attention from researchers and the media alike. Since emotional abuse produces scars not always visible to the human eye, it can be seen as less destructive than physical or sexual abuse. Intensifying this problem is a “win at all costs” mentality that many coaches and parents have adopted. Pressure to perform and excel in sport-related activities has been put on the young shoulders of child athletes (Merkel, 2013:156). Therefore, this study sought to explore and describe teacher sport-coaches’ perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. It also contributed to an area of research relatively unexplored in scientific literature, especially in the South African context, where seemingly no studies have been conducted on this phenomenon, specifically focusing on teacher sport-coaches. Understanding what behaviours could lead to emotional abuse could help to provide strategies to teacher sport-coaches and could help them to create new and healthy ways of motivating and leading young athletes. This study was also the first of its kind that considered emotional abuse in school sport coaching from a juridical-psychological perspective. This perspective

provided a more detailed outlook on emotional abuse in school sport coaching, seeing that both these disciplines (law and psychology) are useful perspectives in that they not only provide an understanding of emotional abuse in a sport-coaching context, but also ways in which emotional abuse in school sport coaching can be curbed. Specifically, a juridical perspective helps to establish what legal determinants regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching, while a psychological perspective explains the psychological dynamics of emotional abuse in this context.

The next section provides suggestions on strategies that can assist teacher sport-coaches in curbing emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

6.4 SUGGESTIONS ON HOW TO CURB EMOTIONAL ABUSE IN SCHOOL SPORT COACHING

It is recommended that researchers incorporate suggestions that can assist or be used as tools so that specific information can be applied in a proactive manner in the future (Mertens, 2005:319). With this in mind, the following suggestions are made on how teacher sport-coaches can curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching:

- Firstly, teacher sport-coaches should undergo training in order to better grasp the concept of emotional abuse in school sport settings. Awareness could be raised as to what constitutes emotional abuse, the effects of emotional abuse, and how emotional abuse in the sporting context can be prevented. Training that focuses on emotional abuse could assist teacher sport-coaches in developing alternative coaching methods and could lessen the possibility of emotionally abusive coaching practices.
- Emotional abuse in school sport coaching can also be curbed by focusing on enjoyment of the sport rather than having a winning motive. It is therefore crucial for all teacher sport-coaches to underscore the importance of enjoying participation in school sport. In addition, praising a child may increase his or her self-concept and in doing so, enjoyment would increase as well.
- Teacher sport-coaches can further be educated about the legal determinants that regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Various participants mentioned that they were aware of laws related to protecting a child from harm, but they appeared to be unaware of the legal principles related

to emotional abuse in school sport. I suggest that teacher sport-coaches be instructed on these provisions, as this would lead to higher levels of awareness of this serious phenomenon. Knowledge of the law of delict, regulations in educational legislation and sections in the Constitution related to emotional abuse in school sport coaching are therefore crucial and should be attained by teacher sport-coaches.

- Lastly, schools could employ sport psychologists or counselling psychologists as a way of managing athletes' emotional problems arising from pressure to perform. I suggest that secondary schools employ the help of psychologists that specialise in working with athletes and coaches. These psychologists can play a major role in alleviating emotional issues related to emotional abuse in school sport coaching. This may ensure that athletes are consistently checked and decreases the chances of athletes failing due to the pressures of school sport. The Department of Basic Education could assist schools by providing them with psychologists on a weekly basis in order to combat emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The secondary conclusions of a study might emphasise matters that could be investigated in the future (Trafford & Leshem, 2008:145). With this in mind, the following is recommended for future research:

- Frustration was found to be a determinant that contributes to emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Teacher sport-coaches stated that, due to frustration, anger ensued because their expectations had not been met. I recommend that future research be conducted on the possible relationship between frustration and emotional abuse in school sport.
- A winning motive contributes to emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Teacher sport-coaches who emphasise winning, put pressure on their athletes to perform. I suggest that future research be conducted on the effects of a winning motive and its contribution to emotional abuse in school sport coaching. Some teacher sport-coaches also stated that a winning motive mainly occurs in more prominent schools in South Africa. The validity of this statement could also be explored in future studies.

- Teacher sport-coaches' lack of passion and knowledge could lead to emotional abuse. I recommend that future research be conducted on possible strategies on how to increase knowledge of teacher sport-coaches and to explore reasons why some teacher sport-coaches do not have a passion for coaching.
- Many participants stated that learner-on-learner abuse is a more troublesome issue and viewed bullying between athletes as the main determinant of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. I believe it would be crucial for future researchers to study the reasons behind bullying amongst athletes and how to intervene when bullying behaviour occurs.
- Lastly, I suggest that parents' conduct, as a determinant of emotional abuse in school sport coaching, should be studied in the future. Parents play a vital role in their children's sporting endeavours. However, some parents may take this role too seriously, putting pressure on their children to perform, which could lead to emotional abuse.

6.6 LIMITATIONS

Being thoughtful of this journey I have identified the following limitation:

- Most of the participants who availed themselves to voluntary take part were Afrikaans speaking and were male sport-coaches.

6.7 FINAL CONCLUSION

This chapter concluded this study aimed at exploring and describing teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. The factual and conceptual conclusions resonated with the theories and findings discussed in the literature review. The contributions of the study were also discussed. Suggestions that could curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching were provided along with recommendations for future research on emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

If emotional abuse in school sport coaching is not dealt with efficiently, it may have ripple effects. Abused athletes may learn this destructive behaviour, or victimised athletes may decide to quit their participation in sport. However, emotional abuse in school sport coaching may have even greater repercussions as the psychological harm caused by this behaviour may have long-lasting effects on victims.

ADDENDA

Addendum A: Ethical Clearance

Based on approval by the **Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences (ESREC) on 23/02/2018** after being reviewed at the meeting held on **21/09/2017**, the North-West University Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (NWU-RERC) hereby **approves** your study as indicated below. This implies that the NWU-RERC grants its permission that provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the study may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

Study title: A juridical-psychological perspective: Teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching

Project Head: Prof AJ Botha

Project Team: M de Beer; Prof JP Rossouw; Dr R Spies

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Ethics

number:

Institution Study Number Year Status
S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation

Application Type: Single study

Commencement date: 2017-09-21

Expiry date: 2018-10-31

Risk:

Low

Special conditions of the approval (if applicable):

- Translation of the informed consent document to the languages applicable to the study participants should be submitted to the ESREC (if applicable).
- Any research at governmental or private institutions, permission must still be obtained from relevant authorities and provided to the ESREC. Ethics approval is required BEFORE approval can be obtained from these authorities.

General conditions:

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:

- *The study leader (principle investigator) must report in the prescribed format to the NWU-RERC via ESREC:*
 - *annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the study, and upon completion of the project*
 - *without any delay in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.*
 - *Annually a number of projects may be randomly selected for an external audit.*
- *The approval applies strictly to the proposal as stipulated in the application form. Would any changes to the proposal be deemed necessary during the course of the study, the study leader must apply for approval of these changes at the ESREC. Would there be deviated from the study proposal without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.*
- *The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the NWU-RERC via ESREC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.*
- *In the interest of ethical responsibility the NWU-RERC and ESREC retains the right to:*
 - *request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the study;*

The RERC would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher, and wishes you well with your project. Please do not hesitate to contact the RERC or ESREC for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Refilwe Phaswana-Mafuya', with a circular flourish at the beginning.

Prof Refilwe Phaswana-Mafuya

Chair NWU Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (RERC)



Addendum B: Request for Permission from Department of Basic Education

Request for permission to conduct research in secondary schools in the North West Province, Dr Kenneth Kaunda District

I hereby request permission for Mr ML De Beer to do empirical research at secondary schools in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district (Potchefstroom area).

Mr ML De Beer (student number 28056426) is an enrolled MEd student at the Faculty of Education Sciences, at North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus). The title of this dissertation is: *“A juridical-psychological perspective: Teacher sport-coaches’ perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching.”*

Mr De Beer would like to conduct his empirical research in secondary schools with teacher sport-coaches as it fits the profile required by the research project. His research is centred around the phenomena of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. His research will therefore require the participation of secondary school teacher sport-coaches. This research will aim to provide strategies in order to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching from a juridical-psychological perspective.

All the information that is gained from the schools and the teachers will be handled confidentially and within the ethical rules of research determined by the North-West University. Aspects such as informed consent, voluntary participation and respect for anonymity will be adhered to. The research activities Mr ML De Beer endeavours to undertake at the respective schools will not interfere with tuition time thus influencing the schools’ learning-and-teaching activities. The principals as well as the SGBs of the respective identified schools will also be requested for their consent before the commencement of the research.

I sincerely hope that you will be able to accommodate Mr ML De Beer and I thank you for your assistance in this regards. Please contact us on: johan.botha@nwu.ac.za (018 285 2265) or martinlouisdebeer@gmail.com (076 862 8077).

Regards

PROF AJ BOTHA (SUPERVISOR)

PROF JP ROSSOUW (CO-SUPERVISOR)

DR R SPIES (CO-SUPERVISOR)



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
IBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHII
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

Addendum C: Request for Permission from School Principals

Request for permission to conduct research in secondary schools in the North West Province, Dr Kenneth Kaunda District

I hereby request permission for Mr ML De Beer to do empirical research at secondary schools in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district (Potchefstroom area).

Mr ML De Beer (student number 28056426) is an enrolled MEd student at the Faculty of Education Sciences, at North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus). The title of this dissertation is: *“A juridical-psychological perspective: Teacher sport-coaches’ perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching.”*

Mr De Beer would like to conduct his empirical research in secondary schools with teacher sport-coaches as it fits the profile required by the research project. His research is centred around the phenomena of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. His research will therefore require the participation of secondary school teacher sport-coaches. This research will aim to provide strategies in order to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching from a juridical-psychological perspective.

All the information that is gained from the schools and the teachers will be handled confidentially and within the ethical rules of research determined by the North-West University. Aspects such as informed consent, voluntary participation and respect for anonymity will be adhered to. The research activities Mr ML De Beer endeavours to undertake at the respective schools will not interfere with tuition time thus influencing the schools’ learning-and-teaching activities. The principals as well as the SGBs of the respective identified schools will also be requested for their consent before the commencement of the research.

I sincerely hope that you will be able to accommodate Mr ML De Beer and I thank you for your assistance in this regards. Please contact us on: johan.botha@nwu.ac.za (018 285 2265) or martinlouisdebeer@gmail.com (076 862 8077).

Regards

PROF AJ BOTHA (SUPERVISOR)

PROF JP ROSSOUW (CO-SUPERVISOR)

DR R SPIES (CO-SUPERVISOR)



SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Request for permission to conduct research in secondary schools in the North West Province, Dr Kenneth Kaunda District

I hereby request permission for Mr ML De Beer to do empirical research at 5 secondary schools in the Dr Kenneth Kaunda district (Potchefstroom area). Mr ML De Beer (student number 28056426) is an enrolled MEd student at the Faculty of Education Sciences, at North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus). The title of this dissertation is: *“A juridical-psychological perspective: Teacher sport-coaches’ perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching.* Mr De Beer would like to conduct his empirical research in secondary schools with teacher sport-coaches as it fits the profile required by the research project. His research is centred around the phenomena of emotional abuse in school sport coaching. His research will therefore require the participation of secondary school teacher sport-coaches. This research will aim to provide strategies in order to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching from a juridical-psychological perspective. All the information that is gained from the schools and the teachers will be handled confidentially and within the ethical rules of research determined by the North-West University. Aspects such as informed consent, voluntary participation and respect for anonymity will be adhered to. The research activities Mr ML De Beer endeavours to undertake at the respective schools will not interfere with tuition time thus influencing the schools’ learning-and-teaching activities. The principals as well as the SGBs of the respective identified schools will also be requested for their consent before the commencement of the research.

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Regards

PROF AJ BOTHA (SUPERVISOR)

PROF JP ROSSOUW (CO-SUPERVISOR)

DR R SPIES (CO-SUPERVISOR)



A juridical-psychological perspective: Teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE

You are invited to voluntarily participate in this research study because you fit the selection criteria as you are a teacher sport-coach at a secondary school in the North West Province. The purpose of the research is to generate (collect) sufficient data from teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

AIMS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

- Explore and describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching based on teacher sport-coaches' perceptions;
- Determine which legal determinants regulate and prohibit emotional abuse in school sport coaching;
- Explore and describe the psychological dynamics which may result in emotional abuse in school sport coaching;
- Determine coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse on learners in school sport; and
- Provide strategies that can be put into place for teacher sport -coaches in order to curb emotional abuse in school sport from a juridical-psychological perspective.

DO YOU HAVE TO TAKE PART IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY?

Participation in this research study is voluntary. You may withdraw at any stage of the data generation process without any consequences of being harmed in any way. The following contact details are of a Psychologist at the Potchefstroom campus Support Services who is available if you experience any uncomfortable feelings during or after the data generation process of this study.

The Psychologist can be contacted at the Potchefstroom campus Support Services:

018 299 4379 (Ms Corrie Rheeder)

ARE THERE ANY BENEFITS IN TAKING PART IN THE RESEARCH STUDY?

The study will suggest strategies based on the recollections of the participants that can assist teacher sport-coaches in curbing emotional abuse in school sport coaching.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN IF YOU PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY

You will be requested to take part in this data generation process that entails the following individual interview:

The individual interviews will be audio recorded for transcription and analysis purposes. The recordings will be discarded when the transcription and data analysis process is completed. The following questions will be asked during the individual interviews:

- How would you describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching?
- What, in your opinion, would cause a teacher sport-coach to act emotionally abusive towards their athletes?
- As a teacher sport-coach, what are your perceptions about emotional abuse in school sport?

- What, in your opinion, would cause a teacher sport-coach to act emotionally abusive towards their athletes?
- Do you have any other thoughts or ideas relevant to emotional abuse in school sport coaching?

If you are willing to participate in the individual interviews, please complete the form below.

Please tick the appropriate box.

| | |
|--------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | I do not want the interview to be audio-recorded. |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | I give my consent that the interview can be audio-recorded. |

I AGREE TO TAKE PART IN THE SEMI-STRUCTURED INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

Name of participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature of participant: _____

Every attempt will be made by the investigators to keep all information collected in this study confidential. If any publication results from this research, you will not be identified by name.

PARTICIPANT RIGHTS

If you have any questions pertaining to your participation in this study, you may contact the principal investigator, Martin-louis De Beer by telephoning (076 862 8077) or by e-mail martinlouisdebeer@gmail.com).

DISCLAIMER/WITHDRAWAL

You agree that your participation in this study is completely voluntary and that you may withdraw at any time without prejudicing your standing within the school, thus you as participant will not be damaged in any way by withdrawing from the research study.

Name of participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature of participant: _____

CONCLUSION

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

- Have read and understood the consent form
- Agree to participate in this research study
- Gave permission that the individual interviews may be audio recorded.
- You are aware that the option of phoning or seeing the Psychologist at the Potchefstroom campus Support Services is available if you need to talk to the Psychologist during or after the data generation process.

Researcher's name Researcher's signature Date

Participant's name Participant's signature Date

Interview Schedule

Semi-structured interviews

The following predetermined questions will be used to conduct each interview:

- How would you describe emotional abuse in school sport coaching?
- What, in your opinion, constitute emotional abuse in school sport coaching?
- As a teacher sport-coach, what are your perceptions about emotional abuse in school sport?
- What would you say may be possible reasons for why teacher sport-coaches resort to emotional abuse of their athletes in school sport coaching?
- What is your knowledge of laws and regulations regarding the responsibility and accountability you have in safeguarding your athletes from any harm?
- What strategies, in your opinion, can be put forth to curb emotional abuse in school sport coaching?
- Do you have any other thoughts or ideas relevant to emotional abuse in school sport coaching?



Addendum G: Contact details: Researcher, Supervisor and Co-supervisors

| Researcher (MEd Student) | Supervisor | Co-supervisor | Co-supervisor |
|---|------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| Martin-Louis De Beer | Prof AJ Botha | Prof. JP Rossouw | Dr. R Spies |
| Telephone 076 862 8077 | 018 285 2265 | 018 299 4782 | 018 285 2388 |
| Email martinlouisdebeer @gmail.com | Johan.Botha.@nwu.ac.za | JP.Rossouw@nwu.ac.za | Ruan.Spies@nwu.ac.z |



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
IBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHII
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

Addendum H: Adverse Event Report and Incident Report Form

Adverse event report for teacher sport-coaches who may experience discomfort due to the sensitive nature of the phenomenon under investigation.

Title: A juridical-psychological perspective: Teacher sport-coaches' perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching

Researcher : Mr. ML De Beer

Address: North-West University

Potchefstroom

2520

Contact details: 076 862 8077

Mev. Corrie Rheeder (Senior Psychologist): 018 299 4379

Participant information:

Research site information:

Participant no:

Researcher:

Participant initials:

Site:

Date of Birth:

Address:

Gender:

Phone:

Serious adverse event Information:

Date of event: ... Date of Report: Report type: Initial:.....
Follow up: ...

Reason Event Classified as Serious:

| <i>Emotional discomfort:</i> | <i>Severity:</i> |
|------------------------------|------------------|
|shame or guilt | mild |
|feelings of fear | moderate |
| feelings of sadness | severe |
| feelings of anger | |
| social withdrawal | |
| sleep disturbances | |
| Other | |

| Action Taken: | Treatment history: |
|---|--------------------|
| Referred to psychologist, as described in narrative | Treatment dates: |
| Start: | |
| None | Stop: |

Adverse Event Narrative

Provide a description of the event; include relevant history, signs and symptoms. Include treatment date by the psychologist and relevant psychometric assessments used.

.....
.....

Upon completion Report prepared by : Report reviewed by :

Relevant information supplied

Process completed Participant refused treatment

Addendum I: Turn-it-In certificate

Turnitin Originality Report

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Addendum J: Certificate of Language Editor

Dr. JACKIE DE VOS 

Academic copy editor / Akademiese teksredakteur

BA (Psychology & Communication studies), BAHons (Psychology) (NWU)
MEd, PhD (Educational Psychology) (NWU)
BAHons (Translation) (UNISA)
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LANGUAGE EDITING

2 November 2018

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to confirm that the following dissertation was edited:

“A juridical-psychological perspective: Teacher sport-coaches’ perceptions of emotional abuse in school sport coaching”

The onus rests on the client(s) to work through the proposed track changes and to accept or reject proposed changes. Clients should also ensure that all sources have been cited.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Jackie de Vos

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