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VIOLENCE AS A BIOETHICAL ISSUE IN SPORT

Summary

In the past decades, sport has emerged as an essential factor in shaping culture in many societies. Coupled with the pervasive presence of television and instant reporting of events across the globe, sport has become the spotlight for all that is common across cultures. Conversely, sport has also become a pivotal issue when one examines values, priorities, ethics, lifestyle, and well-being in modern societies. We are regularly exposed to the media outline of sport and violence in sports; we forget that violence is often associated with sport in many invisible ways. When we talk about violence and sport, we usually think primarily about violence among players or violence among fans, completely ignoring many other forms of violence associated with sport. In our reflection, we should bear in mind that sport is merely a reflection of society. Taking this into account in our presentation, we will show that there are multiple forms of violence around and in sports. In the paper, we will use the definition and types of sport-related violence by Kevin Young. Through the analysis of the types of sport-related violence, we will determine how much sport-related violence is a bioethical issue. In this paper, we will show that sports violence is not limited to the sports field alone, but that it encompasses many spheres of life and society. The expected scientific contribution of the paper is to point out the broad and comprehensive problem of violence in and around sports. Only through accurate detection of all types of violence in and around sports, it is possible to find a fundamental starting point for trying to solve the problem of violence in and around sports.

Keywords: sport, bioethics, Kevin Young, sport-related violence

Introduction

Behavior involving the exercise of physical force intended to hurt, injure, or disrespect another human or property, is violence – from the Latin *violentia*, which has essentially the same meaning according to the definition. In sports, as in many other areas, violence is equated with the unlawful use of force or intimidation, though many sports either tacitly condone or exhibit violence. Hockey is an example of the former and boxing the latter, of course. In both sports, however, the transgression of boundaries is still punishable, as this constitutes a *rule-violation* (from the same Latin root). Violence should be distinguished from aggression, which is behavior, or a readiness to behave in a way, that is either intended or carries with it the possibility that a living being will be harmed. However, no action or harm *necessarily* materializes (Chasmore, 2010: 305). The World Health Organization defines violence as:

The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either result in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment, or deprivation (WHO). Once we have defined violence in general, we need to define sport-related violence. For this paper, we will take Kevin Young's definition. He described sport-related violence in a twofold fashion:

- Direct acts of physical violence contained within or outside the rules of the game that result in injury to persons, animals or property;
- Harmful or potentially harmful acts conducted in the context of a sport that threaten or produce injury or that violate human justices and civil liberties (Young, 2012: 15).

Why do we think that it is important, in the presentation of our topics, to include the division of sports-related violence as defined by Kevin Young? Because his definition of sport-related violence, in our opinion, is entirely tied to Jurić's definition of integrative bioethics: "Bioethics is an open field of encounters and dialogue between different sciences and professions, and diverse approaches and worldviews, which gather to articulate, discuss and solve ethical questions concerning life, life as a whole and each of its parts, life in all its forms, shapes, degrees, stages and manifestations" (Jurić, 2007: 80).

If we start from the assumption that the central theme of integrative bioethics is life, then we can see that violence in and around sport or sport-related violence is, in fact, a bioethical question. In sport-related violence, life is endangered on

several levels, from the actual physical violence among players or fans through violent relationships in sports like parental abuse, to economic violence linked to sport, as in the case of a massive violation of the human rights of migrant workers in Qatar, as we will see in the paper.

In this paper, we will list all types of sport-related violence, according to Kevin Young, with appropriate examples and explanations: 1) Player violence; 2) Crowd/fan violence; 3) Individualized fan–player violence; 4) Player violence away from the game; 5) Street crimes; 6) Violence against the self; 7) Athlete initiation/hazing; 8) Harassment, stalking, and threats; 9) Sexual assault; 10) Partner abuse/domestic violence; 11) Offences by coaches/administrators/medical staff; 12) Parental abuse; 13) Sexism/racism; 14) Other identity violence; 15) Animal abuse; 16) Political violence/terrorism; 17) Offences against workers and the public; 18) Offences against the environment (Young, 2012). After we list and briefly explain all types of sport-related violence, in conclusion, we will discuss the connection between sport-related violence and bioethics.

Player violence

According to Young, player violence has traditionally been condoned in many settings as “part of the game” and rationalized as ritualistic or harmless. This may be witnessed in the way in which aggressive, high-risk, or harmful practices that would be socially or legally intolerable away from sport are encouraged and even expected to occur in sport. In many countries, sport is immersed in intense cultures of aggression, hubris, and risk, which compromise participant safety and, ultimately, limit the possibility of safe sport. These cultures may have influenced research on the sport since researchers have paid far less attention to player violence than to crowd violence (Young, 2012: 18). Most researchers agree that while there is no single cause of player violence, it is necessary to understand the phenomenon of player violence which requires examining socialization processes associated with many sports and the institution of sport in general, where players learn from an early age that behaviours such as hitting and being hit and conceiving of violence as a vehicle to resolve conflicts, are acceptable and protected ‘strategies’ (Coakley and Donnelly 2009).

Michael Smith (1983) classified player violence into four basic categories: the first two being “relatively legitimate” and the last two “relatively illegitimate” in the eyes of both sports administrators and the law. While the typology has been summarized many times in literature, it remains pertinent to sports violence

research, and the legal implications of player violence, and is worth briefly revisiting here:

- *Brutal body contact* includes what Smith called the ‘meat and potatoes’ of our most popular sports, such as tackles, blocks, body checks, collisions, hits, and jabs. Depending on the sport under scrutiny, these are all acts that can be found within the official rules of a given sport, and to which most would agree that consent is given or, at the very least, implied.
- *Borderline violence* involves acts prohibited by the official rules of a given sport, but that occur routinely and are more or less accepted by many people connected with the game. Examples might include: the fist-fight in ice hockey; the ‘beanball’ (a pitch aimed deliberately at a batsman’s head) in baseball. Importantly, all of these actions carry potential for causing injury as well as prompting further conflict between players, such as the bench-clearing brawl in ice hockey, players charging the mound in baseball or retaliatory fighting in any of these other sports. Historically speaking, sanctions imposed by sports leagues and administrators for borderline violence have been notoriously light, and the clubs themselves have done all they can to protect their players, especially their ‘star’ players.
- *Quasi-criminal violence* violates the formal rules of a given sport, the law and, to a significant degree, the informal norms of players. This type of violence usually results in serious injury, which, in turn, precipitates considerable official and public attention. Quasi-criminal violence in ice hockey may include ‘cheap shots,’ ‘sucker punches’ or dangerous high-stick work, all of which can cause severe injury, and which often elicit in-house suspensions and fines.
- *Criminal violence* includes behaviours so seriously and obviously outside of the boundaries of acceptability of both the sport and the wider community that they are treated formally by the criminal justice system from the outset. The Canadian case used by Smith is that of a Toronto teenage hockey player who, in 1973, assaulted and killed an opponent in the arena parking lot following a heated community game (Smith, 1983).

Fan violence – Case of Nika riot

Fan violence is the most commonly perceived form of violence in sports. Throughout the history of sports, there have been countless cases of crowd/fan violence, and we have singled this one out to show that crowd/fan violence is not a recent phenomenon but has followed sport from the very beginning, as seen in the following example. In Constantinople (today's Istanbul), in 532, the bloodiest fan riots in history took place. The riots began after an all-day car race, lasted for a week of riots and resulted in about 30,000 to 50,000 dead, and half the city burned. The uprising became known as the Nika riots (Cashmore, 2010). Throughout the Roman Empire, car races offered a top-notch spectacle. There were 12 teams with carriages in which four horses were harnessed, and there were frequent accidents and deaths due to the high speed of the car. By the year 532, round races were dominated by two teams: Green and Blue. The audience loved adrenaline and tribalism, and there was frequent violence among passionate fans. Clashes among fans were the cause of the Nika riots and the riots that followed. Ultimately, the rebellion was suffocated in blood with terrible bloodshed.

Individualized fan–player violence – Andrés Escobar Saldarriaga case

Unlike collective football fan violence, in this case, it is mostly the individualized fan violence against the player, which, unfortunately, can end tragically as we will see in the following example. Andrés Escobar Saldarriaga was a Colombian football player killed for scoring an own goal at the World Cup in the United States in 1994, which is the only known case of murder due to unwanted mistake during sporting competitions. Escobar was killed 24 years ago, 2 July 1994, in front of a cafe in the suburb of Medellin. According to the testimony of his girlfriend, the killer shouted Goal! for each of the 12 bullets that hit him, imitating South American football commentators. It is deeply believed that his murder was a punishment for that own goal. However, it is still unknown today whether the killer worked on his own was that perhaps a Colombian mafia assassination cause by losing bets on Colombia passing to the second round of the competition (Jabuka.tv).

Player violence away from the game – the attack on Nancy Kerrigan

This category includes situations where the players are involved in acts of violence out of the game. One of the most famous cases of this kind of violence, which caused a lot of media attention, is Tonya Harding's attack on Nancy Kerrigan. Kerrigan was an American skater, and favourite to win the women's US Championship. The off-ice assault on Kerrigan following a practice session held in Detroit, in the build-up to the Lillehammer Winter Olympics in 1994, and perpetrated with a lead pipe striking her right knee, by acquaintances of her direct rival, Tonya Harding, resulted in criminal charges being laid against the assailant. Harding avoided a likely jail sentence by pleading guilty to conspiring to hinder prosecution of the attackers. She received three years' probation, 500 hours of community service, and a \$160,000 fine, with a conclusion that she was involved in the attack and displayed an apparent disregard for fairness, good sportsmanship, and ethical behavior. The governing body of the sport, the United States Figure Skating Association, levied a lengthy suspension on Harding, who has been *persona non grata* in the skating world ever since (Duffy, 1994).

Street crimes – Oscar Pistorius case

There is a lot of evidence that athletes and other sportspeople misbehave, including criminally, in their ordinary lives away from the game field. Sometimes, athletes do terrible crimes, as in the following case. Oscar Pistorius was a leading South African runner. He garnered attention as an athlete with a disability competing at a high level, including appearances at multiple Paralympic Games and the 2012 Summer Olympics. Steenkamp, a model, was Pistorius's girlfriend. In the early morning of Thursday, 14 February 2013, Steenkamp was shot and killed by Pistorius at his Pretoria home. The trial of Oscar Pistorius for the murder of his girlfriend, Reeva Steenkamp, concluded on 21 October 2014, when Pistorius received a prison sentence of a maximum of five years for culpable homicide and a concurrent three-year suspended prison sentence for the separate reckless endangerment conviction (Baker, 2014). Pistorius acknowledged that he shot Steenkamp, but said that he mistook her for an intruder. Pistorius was taken into police custody and was formally charged with murder in a Pretoria court on 15 February 2013. In December 2015, the Supreme Court of Appeals overturned the culpable homicide verdict and found Pistorius guilty of murder. On 6 July 2016, Judge Masipa sentenced Pistorius to six years in prison for murder. On appeal by the state for a longer prison sentence, the Supreme Court of Appeals

more than doubled Pistorius's prison term to 13 years and five months (Bell, 2017).

Violence against the self - Jose Canseco case

According to Young, this form of violence has rarely been viewed as such. Still, the range of forms of 'violence' that occur in sport involves types of harm perpetrated against the self, especially visible in behaviours such as sports-related eating disorders and chronic drug use, which can reach severe and, occasionally, life-threatening proportions. The possible outcomes of forms of violence against the self may include addictions (e.g., to performance-enhancers, alcohol, painkillers, and other drugs), body pathologies (e.g., anorexia, bulimia, 'bigorexia'), mental and psychological disturbances (e.g., self-confidence and self-esteem issues) and threats to physical wellbeing (e.g., chronic injuries, concussions, suicide or death) (Young, 2012: 74). Retired athlete, Jose Canseco, released an autobiography on his life as a professional baseball player and avid steroid user. The book detailed Canseco's experiences using steroids to "gain a competitive edge", explaining how he introduced steroids to many other players, including such baseball luminaries as Mark McGwire and Sammy Sosa, both of whom subsequently vehemently denied using performance-enhancing drugs (Canseco, 2005).

Athlete initiation/hazing

According to Bryshun and Young, hazing is one of the worst kept secrets in all of sport. It has been traced back centuries and identified in many social institutions, notably education and the military (Bryshun and Young, 2007). By definition, hazing is the practice of putting someone in physical or emotional distress. Elizabeth Allen, a professor of education at the University of Maine, pointed out "There's no such thing as harmless hazing" (Kate, 2012). Hazing, besides physical violence, can include sexual coercion, forced alcohol consumption or dangerous "pranks" like forcing people to eat hideous food mixtures or consume large amounts of water. Not all athletes are 'hazed,' but many are at many levels of sport in many countries, and almost every athlete knows another who has been hazed. Hank Nuwer, an author of four books on hazing, claims in his last book *Hazing* that in the USA from 1970 to 2012, there was at least one hazing death a year, and often more than one, with a total of 104 deaths (Nuwer, 2018). We will illustrate just how severe hazing can become with

an example from the small town of La Vernia, Texas, in which nine high school athletes face sexual assault charges in a case of hazing. The case from La Vernia High School in La Vernia, Texas, involves at least ten victims across three boys' sports, according to local news reports. A 16-year-old boy who played varsity football was allegedly held down by his older teammates and sexually assaulted, according to San Antonio's KABB. The boy's mother told the TV station that the kids stuck "various items" up his rectum, including soda bottles, steel pipes, baseball bats, and a carbon dioxide tank (Clint, 2017).

Harassment, stalking, and threats

Canadian scientists Kirby, Greaves, and Hankinskiy claim that there is compelling evidence to suggest that sport is replete with a range of unwelcome conventions and behaviours that represent, at best, a "chilly climate" for many participants and, at worst, a locus of exploitation and vulnerability for others. These behaviours range from persons in positions of authority and power taking advantage of young, impressionable athletes to famous athletes and outspoken coaches being followed or threatened by fans (Kirby et al., 2000). It is important to understand that harassment, stalking, and threats are an insufficiently visible form of violence in sports. The public learns about these phenomena only through the much-publicized cases, such as the case of stalking of Serena Williams. Tennis player Serena Williams had several cases of frenzied fans who had stalked her. In September 2002, 34-year-old Albrecht Stromeyer was charged with two counts of stalking female tennis player Serena Williams. Police reported that Stromeyer had been harassing Williams since 2001, including travelling around the world to follow her progress (Foster and Pook, 2002). In May 2011, 40-year old Patenema Ouedraogo was arrested and charged with stalking and cyberstalking. Police said they found a letter in his car in which he professed his love for Williams, and he told them the feeling was reciprocated. Ouedraogo was stopped by private security guards who recognised him from alerts they had received about a man who was allegedly stalking Williams. Ouedraogo told the police he was going to Williams's home Monday night "because he loves her" and "he knows the feelings are reciprocal." A lawyer for Williams said he had recently obtained a restraining order after Ouedraogo tried to contact her three times (Vucci, 2011).

Sexual assault

How and to what extent are the athletes and sports professionals involved in various forms of sexual assault is difficult to estimate, since there are no reliable statistics on this issue. But the fact remains that sexual assaults and rapes occur in the world of sports at all levels. Reputable scientists such as Curry (1991), Young (1993), Messner and Sabo (1994) agree that sexual assault by male athletes is bound up with broader social structures of gender and power. In particular, these are cases of acting out of codes of hegemonic masculinity, sexism, and misogyny, which, again, are far from rare in the often hyper-macho world of sport, as can be seen in the case of Mike Tyson. In February 1992, former heavyweight boxer, Mike Tyson, was sentenced to 10 years in jail after being found guilty in a 1991 charge of sexual assault against former Miss Black America pageant contestant, Desiree Washington. Tyson eventually served three years in prison but was permitted by boxing authorities to return to his sport upon his release (Cashmore, 2005).

Partner abuse/domestic violence

Domestic violence is most commonly associated with male athletes. It should be noted that domestic violence is more common in athletes involved in contact sports, such as football, hockey, boxing, and the like. Stanley Teitelbaum, a Ph.D. Clinical Psychologist in his book *Athletes Who Indulge Their Dark Side*, pointing out that this is the case with top athletes who are trained to be aggressive and violent on the sports field. Sometimes athletes can't turn that off when they go back to their regular lives (Teitelbaum, 2010). On the other hand, some studies have shown that athletes are less prone to violence than the general population. Scholars Blumstein and Benedict compared NFL players with young men from similar racial backgrounds in a study, and they discovered that the arrest rates for NFL players were less than half that of the other group for crimes of domestic violence and nondomestic assaults (Woods, 2011).

Offences by coaches

According to Young, some of the most respected coaches in history have become honourable precisely because of their commitment to an aggressive style of play and demanding an excessive 'win-at-all-costs' ethos from players. In these ways, the pro-violence norms and conventions of sport are reproduced

over time. Coaches also learn from and imitate other coaches, many of whom have achieved fame and respect through their reputations for intimidation and aggression (Young, 2012: 26). Anyone familiar with elite sport can recall incidents of players being verbally mauled by angry or tyrannical coaches. In an investigation that followed after Canadian sprinter Ben Johnson tested positive for doping, he lost his 100m gold medal at the 1988 Summer Olympics in Seoul. Johnson's longtime coach, Charlie Francis, admitted that he had lured Johnson into doping (Francis, 1991).

Parental abuse

Parental abuse of children athletes certainly falls into the worst forms of violence in sports. Not all parents offend, and not all fathers or mothers leave "wounds", but all parents who coach, volunteer, administer or simply stand on the sidelines of their kids' games are aware of 'problem parents.' Every parent knows an angry 'hockey Dad' or 'soccer Mom', and most parents have witnessed other parents participate in 'verbal dueling' (Heness and Schwartz, 2007: 206). Many child athletes have been embarrassed by it. Even more troublingly, abusive parental behaviours are often hidden from public view and, not surprisingly, tend to revolve around the *powerlessness* of children, many of whom simply do not want to play. As Crisfield notes, children often feel powerless to oppose an overbearing parent who insists that they play, or play in a certain way (Crisfield, 1996: 14). Sport-related violence in this area manifests itself in a variety of forms, including the following examples: coercing children into performing or dangerous training regimens at too young of an age; the harassment of coaches (both verbal and physical), many of whom are children or teenagers themselves; sideline confrontations among parents; the encouragement of inappropriate behaviours in child athletes by parents who, in turn, aim discouraging, disparaging, threatening or otherwise inappropriate comments at players and coaches; and, the encouragement of high-risk or combative play that leads almost inevitably to injuries in child athletes. Many of these behaviours are connected to unrealistic expectations parents have for their children in sport. Journalist Mark Hyman's book, *Until it Hurts*, is a rare in-depth study on this issues, and a troubling review of adult abuse in youth sports, and a thoughtful examination of how child athletes are placed under high-stress by over-achieving parents and adults. In the introduction to the book, Hyman highlights the obsession of U.S. parents with the sports results of their children and points out the following: "Only kids are losers here. Their voices are rarely heard, and then only

to justify the questionable judgments of adults. It's not surprising that children lose their enthusiasm for organized sports, drifting away from such activities or dropping them completely. Training is too intense. Games are too pressurized. Demanding coaches and parents who expect their children to perform as stars and win college scholarships have taken the fun out of the games." (Hayman, 2009:xiii) Hayman points out in his book the problem of the early beginning of sporting activities in children and cites examples: "A few years ago, the age of entry in most rec leagues was seven or eight. This has dropped to four in many communities and, startling as it seems, eighteen months in others. The Lil' Kickers program, a national organization with affiliated leagues in many cities, is among those that see age as no object. Its programs, offering "movement activities" and "lots of goal kicking" begin with children not yet two. The bar can't go much lower—or can it? Bob Bigelow, a former professional basketball player, and noted youth sports philosopher, wryly predicts that the next movement in youth sports will usher in "prenatal soccer." The players will be "padded pregnant women" (Hayman, 2009: 17-18).

Sexism/racism

According to Birrell, when it comes to sexism (or gender discrimination), the world of sports is full of structural ideological barriers for women that ultimately build on patterns and systemic forms of oppression of women, and represent a central manifestation of attitudes toward women in sports (Birrell, 2000). Sexism in sports is very present, and this is confirmed by the new report conducted by Women in Sport which has revealed that 40 percent of women experience gender discrimination in the sports industry (Women in Sport, 2018). There are many forms of sexism, which including prohibiting females from competing or restricting involvement to diminish their participation. For example, in some Islamic countries, women are forbidden to participate in sports in any form, even as a spectator. Another issue is commodifying ('sexploiting') their participation in promoting sales of products or, for example, engagement of cheerleaders in sports events (Mijatov, Radenović and Marković, 2019). A particular and subtle pattern of sexism is the unequal monetary reward for male and female athletes. For example, the oldest tennis tournament in the sport's history, Wimbledon, didn't pay men and women equally until 2007 (Connley, 2019). The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe joined the fight against sexism and on 27 March 2019 adopted the *Recommendation CM/Rec(2019)1 of the Committee of Ministers to member States*

on preventing and combating sexism. This Recommendation is the first document to date that contains an agreed international definition of sexism. It emphasizes that sexism is a manifestation of “historically unequal power relations” between women and men, which in turn leads to discrimination. The Recommendation emphasizes the link between sexism and violence against women and girls. It, therefore, defines a comprehensive list of measures to combat sexism in various areas: from advertising and media, employment, justice, education, sports. Member State governments are invited to consider these measures in all areas. The Recommendation contains specific tools and measures to address sexism and sexist behavior in sport and culture, as follows:

- 1) Develop and promote tools to combat sexism in the cultural and sports sectors, such as training materials or tools on gender-sensitive language and communication;
- 2) Endorse and implement the previously adopted Recommendation on Gender Mainstreaming in Sport by the Committee of Ministers of the Member States;
- 3) Encourage leading cultural and sports figures to correct sexist attitudes and to condemn sexist hate speech;
- 4) Invite sports federations, associations, and cultural institutions at all levels to prepare a code of conduct to prevent sexism and sexist behavior, which should include provisions for disciplinary measures. Encourage zero tolerance for sexism and sexist hate speech in cultural and sporting events;
- 5) Encourage the sports and cultural sectors at all levels to take concrete measures to promote gender equality and the non-stereotypical portrayal of women and men, girls, and boys;
- 6) Promote broadcasting and reporting in the media, especially in the public media, on cultural and sporting events of women as well as men, and publicly celebrate the achievements of women. Ensure greater visibility and promote positive role models of women and men, girls and boys who participate in sports where they are underrepresented (Council of Europe, 2019).

Research shows that racism or the expression of systems of racially or ethnically motivated intolerance is frequent in the world of sport in many ways. Racism in sport means discrimination against citizens, members or groups of people by race, color, ethnic, national or social origin, gender, language, religion, political or any other worldview, property status, status acquired at birth or towards someone another criterion, sexual orientation or some other reason (FIFA Statute, 2013: 4). Although racism is unfortunately present in many sports, we will limit ourselves here to a brief analysis of racism in football, since football is the most popular sport in the world and in Croatia, as well. In the context of sports, racism in football through organized fan groups, some of which use

racism as one of the tools for forming and manifesting group fan identity, gains a broad platform for open expression through the creation of intolerance and discrimination. Football thus becomes a significant factor in the emergence and strengthening of racism in society, and especially in sports (Saeed and Kilvington 2011). Racism in football is expressed in different ways. Fans, who are sometimes associated with far-right political parties, use racist chants, songs, and threats against players of color in many countries. Many black English players claim to have been harassed both at home and abroad over the years) and hooligan fan groups abuse immigrants and ethnic minorities in the context of football games (Cashmore Cleland 2014). We can conclude that racism is deeply rooted in sports, especially football. Despite many initiatives aimed at combating racism, such as Say no to racism, it is difficult to expect that racism will be eradicated from sports in the foreseeable future.

Other identity violence

When we talk about identity violence in sports, sexism and racism are not the only ways in which prejudices are treated against individuals and groups in sports, even violently, because of the 'achieved' characteristic they portray or the identity ascribed to them. Unfortunately, sport is a suitable place for harmful ideologies that are insensitive and for victimizing participants. As an example, we will highlight the most visible forms of identity violence here. According to the definition, homophobia is fear or intolerance toward lesbian, gay, or transgender, or trans-gendered people (Cauldwell, 2007). In that context, Coakley and Donnelly (2009: 229) write the following about homosexuality: "It is based on the notion that homosexuality is "deviant" or immoral, and it supports prejudice, discrimination, harassment, and violence toward those identified." Homophobia is firmly rooted in sport, and especially in men's team sports that are perceived as highly masculine, and therefore homosexual athletes are not desirable in the team. For example, Croatian midfielder Ivan Rakitić once stated in an interview that he respected homosexual players, "but I do not want those people in the locker room", adding: "I would not leave a team for that, because I respect a homosexual equal to a black, a fat or a dwarf, but if possible I prefer not to have gays in my life." Rakitić was 24 years old and playing for Sevilla at the time (Farry, 2019). BBC journalist Matt Williams asks the question: "Is homophobia in football still a taboo?" (Williams, 2009). According to Rakitić, it is, and Real Madrid player Toni Kroos agreed with him when he said the following in an interview: "My common sense tells me that everyone should live

in full freedom, there is no doubt about it. That said, I don't know if I'd advise an active footballer to declare and come out as gay. Certain words are often used in the game, and, taking into account the emotions that exist at the stands, I could not guarantee that he would not end up being insulted and belittled. This should not be the case, and I am sure that a player who decides to take the step would have the support of many. But I doubt that this would be the case at an away ground. Each player has to decide for himself whether he considers it an advantage or disadvantage, although I think that even nowadays, it wouldn't be full of advantages" (marca.com, 2020).

Animal abuse

Although animal sports go back to antiquity at least, because animal-human contests were popular in ancient Greece and Rome, like chariot racing (Cashmore 2000), insufficient attention is paid to the frightening fact that animals are victims of violence in sport. When we talk about animal violence in sports, the emphasis is always on sport hunting or fishing, but many sports gratuitously perform violence against animals. For example, one of Britain's best-known steeple-chases, known as the 'Grand National', is held annually at Aintree, close to Liverpool. Since just 2000, at least 30 horses have died during or related to competition or in training (Davies, 2011). In North America, the Equine Injury Database reports that there are two horse deaths per 1,000 starts in thoroughbred racing (The Jockey Club, 2010) and, according to PETA, the US tracks are the 'world's deadliest' (Mullins, 2010). These are just some of the examples of violence against animals in sports. Unfortunately, thousands of animals are killed daily in various "sports activities" from Spanish bullfighting, dog racing, illegal fighting of roosters, and dogs to the most common "sport hunting" in which killing animals is treated as a sporting and recreational activity.

Political violence/terrorism

For any terrorist organization, an attack on watched sporting events such as the Olympics or the World Cup is the ultimate goal. As is the case in any terrorist act, the primary goal is to provoke fear and convey the terrorist message to the public. Take, for example, a case with the most notorious terrorist attack on Israeli athletes at the 1972 Olympics in Munich. Weimann points out that "taking and holding hostages increases the drama. The hostages themselves often mean nothing to terrorists. They are aimed at the people watching, not at the actual

victims” (Weimann, 2008: 70). By their inhumane acts, terrorist groups are waging a psychological war. Terrorist organizations want to be in the media as long as possible and as often as they can, so they strive to make each new act of violence more extreme than the previous one (Galily et al., 2016: 1058). Therefore, with their carefully directed attacks, they successfully attract the attention of the media, and they have turned terrorism into a media spectacle. The development of events and the unfolding of the hostage crisis at the Munich Olympics was watched by viewers around the world via small screens. According to some estimates, about 800 million watched the crisis, which is an impressive number considering that the event took place in 1972 (Galily et al., 2016: 1059). Although the 1972 attack was the most well-known in the media, unfortunately, many other attacks occurred in the years that followed, and the organizers of sporting events were forced to introduce extensive and expensive security measures. For example, for the 2018 World Cup, the Russians spent as much as 23 billion euros on security, and, in each host city, at least 10,000 soldiers, police officers, and security guards took care of the safety of fans (24sata, 2018).

Offences against workers and the public

Offences against workers and the public include harmful physical and mental forms of human rights violations, especially in the case of building sports infrastructure for major sports events, such as the construction of the stadium for the World Cup 2022 in Qatar. After getting the World Cup 2022 organization, the Qatar government has embarked on massive infrastructure construction, as evidenced by the statement of country’s finance minister Ali Shareef Al-Emadi. He said that over \$200 billion would be spent in total on stadiums, roads, a new airport, and hospitals: “We are spending close to \$500m per week on capital projects, and this will carry on for the next three to four years to achieve our goal and objective of really getting the country ready for 2022. That doesn’t mean the stadiums only, we are talking about highways, rail, ports, airports, those are really underway, even hospitals and everything” (Rainbow, 2017). The issue of migrant workers’ rights has attracted public attention, after media and non-governmental human rights organizations such as Human Rights Watch (Human Rights Watch, 2012), Amnesty International (Amnesty International, 2016) and International Trade Union Confederation (International Trade Union Confederation, 2015) began publishing news on a large number of deaths among Qatar’s migrant workers and massive human rights violations. UN Special Rapporteur for Human Rights Migrants François Crépeau investigated

human rights violations of migrant workers in Qatar and wrote a report to the UN General Assembly, in which, among other things, he states: “Migrants often pay recruitment fees and arrive in Qatar heavily indebted, only to have their passports confiscated upon arrival and the contract signed in their home country replaced, significantly reducing their salary and often changing the nature of their work. Exploitation is frequent, and migrants often work without pay and live in substandard conditions” (Crépeau, 2014). Their accusations have also been confirmed with an investigation by *The Guardian* newspaper claiming that many workers are denied food and water, have their identity papers taken away from them and that they are not paid on time or at all, making some of them, in effect, slaves. *The Guardian* has estimated that up to 4,000 workers may die due to lax safety and other causes by the time the World Cup is held (Booth, 2013). These claims are based upon the fact that 522 Nepalese workers (Sharan, 2014) and over 700 Indian workers (Gipson, 2014) had died since 2010 when Qatar’s bid as the World Cup host was won. About 250 Indian workers die each year (Stephenson, 2015). *The Washington Post* has put together a chart illustrating the body counts of workers involved in construction for the last four Olympics and two World Cups and compared them to the reported death toll for 2022 Qatar World Cup. According to The Washington Post analysis on the construction of sports facilities for the summer Olympic Games in Beijing in 2008, a total of 6 workers were fatally injured, in preparation for the winter Olympic Games in Vancouver 2010 it was 1 worker, for the World Cup in South Africa 2010 it was 2 workers, for the summer Olympic Games in London 2012 it was 1 worker, for the winter Olympic Games in Sochi 2014 it was 60 workers, for the World Cup in Brazil 2014 it was 10 workers, and in preparation of the World Cup in Qatar 2022, so far over 1200 workers were fatally injured (Ingraham, 2015). The total number of over 1,200 workers killed so far in Qatar applies to all migrant workers and not only to those working on the construction of the stadium for the World Cup. Like other wealthy Gulf Arab states, Qatar relies on vast numbers of migrant workers, mostly from Nepal, India, South Asia, and Africa. Around 2 million migrant workers live in Qatar, outnumbering the local workforce by nearly 20 to one. Some 800,000 work in the construction sector, of which tens of thousands of workers are directly involved in the construction of the stadium for the World Cup (El Yaakoubi, 2017). Leading causes of death among migrant workers is to work outdoors in high temperatures and general exhaustion due to a large number of working hours. According to the report, construction workers can work up to 14 hours in a day (four hours more than the Qatari legal limit), and 402 hours within a month (90 hours over the limit).

The report also noted that eight construction companies of the 19 assessed had employees who worked too many consecutive days without a rest day (which means at least seven days in a row). Moreover, in the worst case, there was “one contractor where three workers worked between 124 and 148 consecutive days without a rest day” (Impactt External Compliance Monitor, 2017). Human rights violations of migrant workers in Qatar have their foundation in the so-called kafala system. Under the kafala system, employers enjoy near-total control over the movement of workers in their employ, including their ability to reside in Qatar, to change jobs, or even to leave the country. Workers under such control are often afraid to report abuses or assert their rights for fear of retaliation, which further contributes to their situation in forced labour (Sharan, 2014).

Offences against the environment

When we talk about sports, we should always keep in mind that every sport requires a particular physical space, equipment, and resources. Because of this, scientists have long pondered the negative impact of sporting events on the environment, i.e. offenses against the environment. The harmful effects of sports on the environment are most visible when organizing grandiose sports events such as the Olympic Games or the World Cup, as evidenced by Bale (1994) and Lenskyj (2000). They showed that the organization of such events requires the development of vast areas of land and may produce ‘degraded environments’ (Lenskyj 2000: 155), loss of wildlife habitat, and even accelerate wildlife extinction. Critics point out the construction and development of golf courses and ski resorts as particularly problematic, since they require a considerable plot of land, often in the untouched and pristine wilderness where the wild animals and their natural habitat can ultimately be damaged or lost. According to the report (Heath, 2019), as of year-end 2018, there were 38,864 golf courses in 209 of the world’s 249 countries. Although the number of golf courses does not seem significant globally, when we calculate the average size of golf courses ranging from 44 to 76 hectares, we come to a total area under golf courses from a minimum of 1,710,016 hectares to a maximum of 2,953,664 hectares. In addition to the enormous consumption of land that could be used to produce food for human consumption or simply left unused, golf courses consume large amounts of pesticides and irrigation water. According to research (Wong and Height, 2013), as many as 37 different pesticides are used to maintain golf courses in the United States, which have potentially carcinogenic effects on human health. An even bigger problem is the consumption of water for irrigating golf courses,

given the growing impact of climate change. For example, according to available data, the U.S. consumes 7.86 billion gallons of water per day just to irrigate its golf courses (Gammon, 2015). We can conclude that, in the example of golf, it can be seen that such sports represent serious but insufficiently visible offenses against the environment.

Conclusion

Violence in sports is a complex and multidimensional topic. A great deal of research has been done and countless scientific and popular papers have been published. The main goal of this paper is to point out that sport-related violence is necessarily a legitimate topic in bioethics, primarily because sport-related violence threatens life in all its forms and manifestations and stages. So far, almost all research on sport-related violence has been determined by a narrow area of study such as, for example, fan violence with particular emphasis on football hooliganism, player violence, or sexual harassment of athletes. Although this approach is necessary and understandable, it is not sufficient to explain the multidimensionality of sport-related violence. The concept of sports violence is elusive and difficult to define, since everyone has an opinion about it, and they think that violence in sports is easy to recognize and detect. Everyone believes that some elements of sport-related violence are more important than others and everyone has ideas on how to fix it. This applies not only to the general public and sports fans but also to the sports organizations themselves and those responsible for making and enforcing sports policies, including the courts. It is surprising how sociology and criminology show little interest in issues of aggression, violence, victimization, health, safety, or justice related to sport. Where there is interest, it is most often limited to the problem of sports fan violence and player violence. This is why sports-related violence must become a subject of interest in bioethics, as a legitimate question that is studied in bioethics. It should be emphasized that most research on sport-related violence can easily be classified as type 1 (player violence) and 2 (crowd/fan violence). On the remaining 16 types of sport-related violence, our knowledge and understanding remain limited. Integrative bioethics, with its pluriperspective, interdisciplinary, transdisciplinary approach, enables a better and more in-depth understanding of the complexity of sport-related violence. Integrative bioethics examines the problem from many sides, angles, and perspectives. Take the example of the World Cup in Qatar organization that we described in the section on offenses against workers and the public. The case of the

deaths of migrant workers in Qatar requires an understanding and perception of this problem from the perspective of a multitude of sciences. Starting with the economy (migrant workers from Nepal, India and other countries are used as cheap, almost slave, labor), politics (the decision to award the rich Arab country the World Cup for political reasons), human rights (vast violations of the fundamental human rights of workers working on stadium construction and necessary infrastructure), ecology (harmful impact on the environment of the accompanying sports infrastructure) and many other sciences. In conclusion, it is required to continually point out the problem of violence in sports, not only the visible but, more importantly, the invisible violence that surrounds and accompanies such a noble human activity as sport.

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NASILJE KAO BIOETIČKO PITANJE U SPORTU

Sažetak

U proteklim desetljećima, sport se pojavio kao bitan faktor u oblikovanju kulture u mnogim društvima. Zajedno s sve prisutnijom televizijom i trenutnim izvještavanjem o događajima diljem svijeta, sport je postao žarište svega što je zajedničko u kulturama. Istovremeno, sport je također postao središnje pitanje kada se ispituju vrijednosti, prioriteti, etika, stil života i blagostanje u modernim društvima. Redovito smo izloženi medijskim prikazima sporta i nasilja u sportu, pri čemu zaboravljamo da je nasilje sa sportom često povezano na nevidljive načine. Kada govorimo o nasilju i sportu, obično se misli u prvom reda na nasilje među igračima ili na nasilje među navijačima, pri čemu u potpunosti zanemarujemo mnoge druge oblike nasilja povezanih sa sportom. U svom razmišljanju trebali bismo imati na umu da je sport samo odraz društva. Uzimajući to u obzir u našoj prezentaciji, pokazat ćemo da postoji više oblika nasilja oko i u sportu. U radu ćemo se poslužiti definicijom i podjelom na vrste nasilja povezanih sa sportom autora Kevina Younga. Kroz analizu vrsta nasilja povezanih sa sportom utvrdit ćemo koliko je ustvari nasilje povezano sa sportom bioetičko pitanje. U ovom ćemo radu pokazati da se sportsko nasilje ne ograničava samo na sportski teren, već da obuhvaća mnoge sfere života i društva. Očekivani znanstveni doprinos rada jest ukazati na široko i sveobuhvatan problem nasilja u i oko sporta. Samo kroz točno detektiranje svih vrsta nasilja u i oko sporta, moguće je naći temeljno polazište za pokušaj rješavanja problema nasilja u i oko sporta.

Ključne riječi: bioetika, sport, Kevin Young, nasilje povezano sa sportom