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TITLE: Elite Athletes' Experience of Coping with Emotional Abuse in the Coach-Athlete Relationship

8

Abstract

9

10 In this paper, we explore the coping strategies used by elite athletes in response to emotional abuse
11 experienced within the coach-athlete relationship. The athletes in this study adopted emotion- and
12 avoidance-focussed coping strategies to manage their feelings in the moment that emotional abuse
13 occurred. Over time, athletes accessed support networks and engaged in sense-making to rationalise
14 their experiences. The potential of coping-level intervention to develop individual resources and to
15 break the cycle of emotional abuse in sport is highlighted. We suggest that as primary agents of
16 ensuring athlete's protection, sport psychologists need appropriate safeguarding training.

17

18 *Keywords:* Coping, Emotional Abuse, Athlete, High-performance, Sport

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21 Cense and Brackenridge (2001) argue that within a sports culture that thrives on
22 authoritarian leadership, the climate is ripe for the abuse of athletes. The subject of abuse has,
23 however, only received sporadic attention within the academic literature, thus limiting
24 understanding of the presence and experience of abuse in sport. Research in sport indicates
25 that athletes have been subject to: physical (Kerr, 2010; Pike, 2010; Stafford, Alexander, &
26 Fry, 2013) and sexual abuse (Brackenridge, Bishopp, Moussalli, & Tapp, 2008; Fasting,
27 Chroni, Hervik, & Knorre, 2011; Hartill, 2005, 2009; Parent & Demers, 2011); emotional
28 abuse (Gervis & Dunn, 2004; Stirling, 2013; Stirling & Kerr, 2008, 2009, 2013, 2014); and
29 neglect, and bullying (Kavanagh, 2014). These studies suggest that a range of exploitative
30 and abusive practices take place in the context of organised sport (Hartill, 2009) that
31 threatens athletes' physical and emotional wellbeing (Rhind, McDermott, Lambert, &
32 Koleva, 2014).

33 Emotional abuse, the focus of this study, is an under-recognised but common form of
34 abuse in the sporting arena, making this a subtle yet pervasive behaviour which has been
35 difficult to operationalise and subsequently police (Stirling & Kerr, 2014). A small body of
36 research to date has focussed on providing a definition of emotional abuse suitable for the
37 sporting domain (Stirling & Kerr, 2008) and has examined its impact within the coach-athlete
38 relationship (Gervis & Dunn, 2004; Stirling & Kerr, 2007, 2013, 2014) as well as the role of
39 bystanders (such as parents) in the emotional abuse cycle (Kerr & Stirling, 2012). Despite
40 this body of work, emotional abuse is still relatively underexplored in the sporting domain
41 and this study contributes to further understanding its presence and impact upon the athlete.

42 Investigations of abuse in the coach–athlete relationship suggest that emotional abuse
43 may be the most frequently occurring form of abuse in the sport environment (Stirling &
44 Kerr, 2013, 2016). Emotional abuse can be defined as a sustained and repeated pattern of
45 deliberate non-contact behaviours by a person in a critical relationship role that has the

46 potential to be harmful to an individual's affective, behavioral, cognitive or physical
47 wellbeing (Stirling & Kerr, 2008; Stirling, 2013).

48 Emotional abuses have been documented in a small number of studies. For example,
49 Kirby, Greaves and Hankivsky (2000) surveyed Canadian Olympic athletes ($n=266$) and
50 identified the presence of emotionally abusive practices in sport such as being insulted,
51 ridiculed and verbally abused; this abuse type was highlighted as common and problematic.
52 Similarly, Gervis and Dunn (2004) examined the emotional abuse of elite child athletes in
53 gymnastics, which they categorised under eight headings: belittling, humiliating, shouting,
54 scapegoating, rejecting, isolating, threatening, and ignoring. This abusive behaviour left the
55 athletes feeling stupid, worthless, depressed, under-confident, and rejected, highlighting the
56 significant impact of emotional abuse in the coach-athlete relationship. Following this,
57 Stirling and Kerr (2008) found that the emotionally abusive behaviours of the coach could
58 occur in three ways. The first, physical emotionally abusive behaviours, include acts of
59 aggression such as hitting and throwing objects at or in the presence of an athlete. The
60 second, verbal behaviours include yelling and shouting at an athlete or a group of athletes,
61 belittling, name-calling, and making degrading comments. Thirdly, the denial of attention and
62 support include being ignored by the coach, and being excluded from training practices.

63 Where sport is recognised as a space that increases vulnerability and risk (Stirling &
64 Kerr, 2014) emotional abuse is likely to occur within the coach-athlete relationship due to the
65 power differential present (Stirling & Kerr, 2012). Furthermore, Stirling (2013) noted that the
66 emotionally abusive practices of the coach have both expressive and instrumental origins.
67 She states that expressive origins refer to a coach's emotionality and their inability to control
68 their emotions in performance environments. On the other hand, instrumental origins refer to
69 behaviors that are adopted to achieve a desired end, such as a performance outcome.
70 Referring to the latter, it has been suggested that the discourse of performance may be used to

71 justify or normalize emotionally abusive coaching behaviours in the pursuit of producing
72 winning athletes (Jacobs, Smits, & Knoppers, 2016).

73 Emotional abuse is understood to have a significant negative effect on athletes'
74 wellbeing and is correlated with a plethora of long term sequelae, including depression,
75 maladaptive eating behavior, anxiety, and social withdrawal (Stirling & Kerr, 2007, 2008,
76 2011, 2014). Yet this abuse type is not often challenged in performance environments (Kerr
77 & Stirling, 2012; Stirling, 2013). To inform prevention and intervention initiatives in sport,
78 greater understanding of the experience of emotional abuse is required. This study will
79 examine the athlete experience of coping with emotional abuse in sport, making an important
80 contribution to the existing literature.

81 **The Coping Process**

82 In psychology, the dominant model used to understand the coping process is the
83 transactional coping process (Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010). This model refers to the process
84 of transaction between the individual and the environment: coping represents efforts to
85 manage the demands that an individual appraises as taxing or exceeding his or her resources
86 (Holt, Berg, & Tamminen, 2007). Coping can be defined as a process of constantly changing
87 cognitive and behavioural behaviour to manage external and/or internal demands or conflicts
88 (Lazarus & Folkman 1984, p.141). Critical to the understanding of this definition is the
89 individual's appraisal of the situation (Nicholls & Polman, 2007). During the appraisal
90 process, an individual will evaluate the importance of the situation based on its impact on
91 their personal wellbeing (Holt, Hoar, & Fraser, 2005); they make an evaluation in relation to
92 their personal goals, beliefs or personal values (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

93 Appraisal is recognised as a two-stage process and includes primary and secondary
94 appraisal which may take place simultaneously (Lazarus, 1999). Primary appraisal considers
95 whether the situation/stressor presents a threat, harm or loss, challenge, or benefit to the

96 individual (McDonough, Hadd, Crocker, Holt, Tamminen, & Schonert-Reichl, 2013).
97 Secondary appraisal is an evaluation of what a person can do to cope with a stressful
98 encounter and therefore attain some degree of control (Lazarus, 2000). When events are
99 appraised as challenging, threatening or harmful, coping responses such as thoughts and
100 behaviours are deployed (Holt et al., 2005; Lazarus, 1999).

101 A coping strategy refers to a single response directed toward managing internal or
102 external demands (Nicholls, Polman, Morley, & Taylor, 2009). Sport-related research on
103 coping reveals that athletes adopt various coping strategies that are used in isolation or in
104 combination (Dias, Cruz & Fonseca, 2012; Nicholls & Polman, 2007), including problem-
105 solving, relaxation, mental and physical disengagement, distraction, ignoring, increasing
106 effort, wishful thinking, confrontation, humour, self-talk, positive reappraisal, and social
107 support (Bryant & Clemant, 2015; Hoar & Evans, 2010; Nicholas, Gaudreau, & Franche,
108 2011). Nicholls and Polman (2007) classified coping responses adopted in performance
109 settings into: Problem-focussed coping (PFC, intended to alter the situation); Emotion-
110 focussed coping (EFC, intended to deal with emotional distress); Avoidance-focussed coping
111 (AFC, such as removing oneself from the situation); Approach coping (confronting the
112 source of stress and trying to tackle or reduce it); Appraisal-focussed coping (re-evaluation of
113 a situation to reduce its importance). EFC is a reactive form of coping, altering only the
114 perception of a situation, whereas PFC is proactive, involving planned and purposeful
115 actions, which aim to change the person–environment relationship or the individual
116 (Nieuwenhuys, Hanin, & Bakker, 2008).

117 **Coping with abuse**

118 In the literature on child sexual abuse (CSA, Collins, O’Neill-Arana, Aronson Fontes,
119 & Ossege, 2014; Phanicrat & Towshend, 2010), adult sexual assault (Ullman, Peter-Hagene,
120 & Relyea, 2014) and intimate partner violence (Zanville & Bennett-Cattaneo, 2012), an

121 exploration of coping strategies has offered an insight into the abuse cycle that individuals
122 experience. The findings from qualitative studies in CSA suggest that survivors employ
123 numerous coping strategies in dealing with abuse including escapism, dissociation, cognitive
124 engagement strategies, and support-seeking behaviours. For example, Morrow and Smith
125 (1995) specifically found that the use of coping strategies prevented a person becoming
126 overwhelmed by threatening feelings and lowered perceptions of powerlessness and lack of
127 control. Further, Phanicrat and Townshend (2010) noted that coping responses have the
128 potential to buffer the impact of abuse related stress.

129 Despite this knowledge, little is known about how athletes cope with abuse. Where
130 coping has been mentioned, it is usually referred to in conjunction with the impact of specific
131 abuse types and may not be explicitly classified as a coping action or coping dimension. For
132 example, Cense and Brackenridge (2001) found that athletes adopt resistance techniques to
133 avoid sexual abuse and harassment. Similarly, Stirling and Kerr (2007) revealed that elite
134 female swimmers who experienced emotional abuse in sport conform, accept or negotiate
135 abuse in the early stages of their career, though during the latter stages they exhibit
136 confronting behaviours to address or tackle mistreatment. Papaefstathiou, Rhind and
137 Brackenridge (2013) argue that athletes rationalise, normalise, minimise or deny abuse on the
138 pathway to success, without referring to such behaviours as coping mechanisms.

139 Few studies have made direct reference to coping with abuse; exceptions include
140 research on sexual abuse and harassment. Brackenridge and Fasting (2005), for example,
141 noted that athletes seek social support to cope with sexual abuse in sport. Fasting,
142 Brackenridge and Walseth (2007) referred to athletes' use of internally and externally-
143 focussed strategies in response to sexual harassment in sport. Internal strategies include
144 detachment (minimising the situation or treating it as a joke), denial (denying or attempting to
145 forget the situation), illusionary control (attempting to take control of the harassment), and

146 endurance (putting up with the treatment thinking they will not be believed). Externally-
147 focussed strategies include avoidance (staying away from the harasser), confrontation (verbal
148 confrontation of the harasser), and seeking social support. Using a similar framework,
149 Rodriguez and Gill (2011) examined six female Puerto Rican football players' perceptions
150 and experiences of sexual harassment: avoidance, social support, resistance, confrontation,
151 and advocacy-seeking were the coping mechanisms used by this sample. These responses
152 were identified deductively using a coping response survey for sexual harassment, thus they
153 may not represent the full extent of coping strategies used.

154 In summary, the literature on emotional abuse in sport identifies the types of
155 behaviour athletes can experience and the risk factors for abuse within the coach athlete-
156 relationship. Further research is needed to understand how athletes cope with emotional
157 abuse within the high performance environment. The experience of such abuse is the subject
158 matter of this paper.

159 **Method**

160 **Participants**

161 The sample comprised 12 elite athletes between the ages of 19 and 35 years who had
162 competed in the United Kingdom and had represented England, Wales and/or Great Britain.
163 Athletes competed across eleven different team and individual sports (hockey, volleyball,
164 archery, rugby, cricket, football, eventing, handball, beach volleyball, taekwondo and tennis).
165 Each athlete had represented a national or international team at a variety of events including
166 the European championships, World Cup competitions, Olympic and Commonwealth Games.
167 Five of the participants were still competing in their chosen sport or discipline; six had
168 retired; and one had retired from national or international competition. Participant
169 demographics can be found in Table 1.

170 ***** Insert Table 1 about here *****

171 Participants and procedures

172 **Participants.** Ethical consent was granted from the university ethics panel and
173 participants were contacted via e-mail and informed about the aim of the study. The selection
174 of participants was criterion-based: athletes were over the age of 18, participating at an elite
175 level (defined as national or international representation) and had experienced some
176 incidence of emotional abuse within the elite sporting environment. Participants were
177 recruited through a combination of snowball and purposive sampling to ensure they met the
178 sampling criteria. The recruitment of participants relied on gatekeepers who provided access
179 to potential participants. Gatekeepers included athletes, coaches and performance directors
180 who had links to athletes willing to share their experiences. Purposive chain sampling
181 (Patton, 1990) was initiated when participants recommended other athletes who met the
182 criteria of this study, and who might be willing to take part. To recruit a diverse sample, a
183 conscious effort was made to recruit from a number of sports and to include both male and
184 female athletes within the sample.

185 **Data Collection.** A qualitative approach was adopted; semi-structured interviews
186 were used as a means to explore the strategies athletes' adopt when coping with emotional
187 abuse. This approach was consistent with the researchers' interpretivist epistemological
188 position; qualitative research allows for the sharing of knowledge based on descriptions of
189 the phenomena rather than pre-existing ideas or frameworks (Creswell, 2014). Researchers
190 and clinicians who have emphasised the importance of trauma survivors telling their story
191 refer to this as account-making (see Harvey, Orbuch, & Weber, 1990), and Pipher (2002)
192 writes of healing stories. Therefore, there is a potentially therapeutic dimension to the
193 interview in cases of abuse.

194 At the beginning of each interview, participants were informed of the aim of the
195 study, had the opportunity to review the participant information sheet and gave consent for

196 participation. The interview guide was flexible and included topics such as participants'
197 sporting background, their experience of emotional abuse and the coping strategies they
198 adopted. If participants recounted multiple experiences of emotional abuse, they were asked
199 about each in detail and questioned about coping related to that instance. Interviews were
200 conducted at a time and place convenient to the participant and in an environment in which
201 they felt comfortable. Prior to the interview, participants were asked their permission for the
202 interview to be digitally recorded. Interviews lasted between 1 and 5 hours (62mins – 305
203 minutes). They were conducted by the first author, digitally recorded and transcribed
204 verbatim. 21 hours of audio recordings yielded 250 pages of verbatim transcripts at over
205 146,000 words.

206 Ethical considerations featured highly during the data collection process. Given the
207 sensitivity of the research area, a strict protocol was adhered to minimise psychological risk
208 to participants. As a safeguard, contacts for local counselling services were put in place for
209 referral. Though athletes became upset during interviews, none of them requested referral or
210 terminated the interview. An exit strategy upon completion of the interview process was also
211 activated: a follow up phone call was made to all participants within a week of data
212 collection, thanking them for their participation in the study and reiterating referral points
213 should they be required. It was further reiterated that confidentiality would be paramount in
214 the reporting of the data: participants would not be identifiable and would be given a
215 pseudonym to ensure anonymity.

216 **Data analysis.** The approach to data analysis was inductive in that no pre-existing
217 theoretical framework was used to guide the process, and there was openness towards the
218 themes that emerged from the emic perspective. Data were analysed using the technique of
219 thematic analysis, and followed the guidelines identified by Braun and Clarke (2006),
220 involving the steps of transcription, familiarisation, coding and categorising. To begin, the

221 first author read each transcript to gain an understanding of the interview as a whole. Notes
222 were made on initial thoughts and impressions, permitting analysis to take place before data
223 were broken up through the process of coding (Jones, Brown, & Holloway, 2013).
224 Subsequently, the process of sorting codes took place: similar codes were grouped together,
225 leading to the emergence of a theme. Three themes were identified in this study: coping in the
226 moment, coping over time and meaning-making post experience. Themes were further
227 broken down into sub-themes that related to coping groups and individual coping strategies.
228 For example, the theme coping over time was divided into three sub-themes (avoiding
229 situations, support seeking and dropping out) and eight coping strategies were identified
230 (including avoiding training, seeking formal support and career termination).

231 The analysis involved a constant process of moving backwards and forwards across
232 the data set. A review of codes and themes took place continuously, requiring reflexivity and
233 critical thinking. A research diary throughout the data collection and analysis process;
234 analytic memos were utilised to record thoughts on the grouping of codes into sub-themes
235 and/or themes. The participants were invited to review their transcript to ensure that they
236 believed them to be an accurate reflection of the interview (see Jones et al., 2013).

237 **Results**

238 Participant reflections on coping with emotional abuse in sport are presented within
239 this section. Analysis showed that participants' coping strategies and their experience of
240 coping could be grouped into three higher order categories: coping in the moment, coping
241 over time and meaning-making through experience. In this sense, participants drew attention
242 to the temporal nature of coping with abuse. Coping was viewed by many of the participants
243 as a survival mechanism; they either coped and adapted, or dropped out. One participant
244 noted:

245 In my sport, it's like man up and get on with it... You know just deal with it
246 and get on with it rather than talk about it. That's sport. You have to get on
247 with things, you need to just be able to deal with it and not let anything affect
248 you. That's part of being an athlete, which isn't easy. (Charlotte, P7).

249 All participants experienced instances of emotional abuse while competing in the
250 performance environment, including verbal behaviours such as screaming or shouting at
251 athletes and the use of insulting, belittling, and/or demeaning language. In addition, physical
252 behaviours such as acts of aggression or angry outbursts by coaching staff were identified:
253 clipboards, water bottles, white board pens and sporting equipment such as balls and racquets
254 were thrown either directly at players or in a fit of rage in the presence of athletes. Physical
255 outbursts generally occurred at the same time as verbal behaviours, through which coaches
256 released their frustration. Emotional abuse was felt to be commonplace in the performance
257 environment and viewed as part of the coaching process.

258 *****Insert Table 2 about here *****

259 **Coping in the moment: Taking control and managing feelings**

260 All participants attempted to take control and manage their feelings in the instance
261 that emotional abuse occurred. The aim of such coping was to suppress an emotional reaction
262 and to limit any negative impact on performance. Participants referred to such strategies as
263 the use of relaxation or breathing, re-directing attention, channelling emotions, increasing
264 effort, using humour, and dissociation.

265 **Relaxation and breathing.** Relaxation or breathing techniques proved to be both
266 calming and distracting in the moment. One athlete stated that when his coach abused him, he
267 “would focus on his breathing to prevent a reaction” (Adam, P3), which enabled him to avoid
268 confronting his coach who was emotionally abusive and physically threatened athletes in
269 training and competitive environments. Another referred to “staying relaxed” (Megan, P1)

270 and using progressive muscular relaxation (PMR) to release tension and to avoid
271 performance decrements.

272 **Redirecting attention.** Participants re-directed attention from how emotional abuse
273 made them feel, attempting to mask the emotional impact in the moment. Megan noted that
274 distraction techniques such as “focusing on the lines on the court” (Megan, P1) were easy to
275 adopt when her coach was shouting and screaming at her. They enabled her to concentrate
276 on her performance rather than cry or show anger. Another remembered that she “once bit
277 her lip so hard that it bled.” (Charlotte, P7), stopping her from reacting to her emotionally
278 abusive coach.

279 **Channelling emotion.** Participants described channelling anger into their
280 performance in their bid to cope. When his coach verbally abused him and when a squad
281 member was punched by a coach as a result of poor play, Adam (P3) sought to control his
282 anger. He was able to “suck it up” and “get a performance out of it”. James recalled taking it
283 out on the ball or channelling his frustration into his performance rather than let it consume
284 him:

285 You listened to what he said but you ignored it. I just used to let it go over my
286 head... Because the head coach just continually shouted and went at you, threw
287 things at you; you'd listen to him, but you wouldn't acknowledge it... But you
288 also couldn't let it get to you, I just worked harder, channelled the frustration or
289 anger or let it out so that I couldn't dwell on it, you know took it out on the
290 next hit, and kept going that prevented me showing any emotion at all really.

291 (P4).

292 Blocking out the coach and focusing instead on his performance were central to coping.
293 Anger was commonly experienced by participants and needed to be managed to prevent
294 emotional abuse having a negative impact on performance.

295 **Increasing effort.** Participants referred to working harder in training and competition
296 as a coping strategy and a way to show personal strength and gain positive attention, even
297 approval from their coach. Even in the worst situations, Sebastian (P6) noted that he could
298 always control his work rate and channel negative feelings into his performance. Adam (P3)
299 felt similarly: “I always knew that if I just worked as hard as I possibly could and just try to
300 do exactly what he said, eventually he would get off my back”.

301 Participants explained that “work rate and sheer effort” (Lisa, P10) and “proving I could push
302 myself to the limits” (Alexandra, P8) could have a positive impact on performance. Playing
303 well offered the route to avoiding being the recipient of abuse in the training environment.
304 Working hard as a coping mechanism was echoed across the interviews and was seen as
305 something the individual could control in a situation where so much felt out of their control.

306 **Use of humour.** Five of the participants cited a sense of humour as one of the only
307 ways they could make their situation bearable. Being able to laugh about an abusive coach
308 united teammates: “we tried to make a joke out of it” (Megan, P1); “we had to find the joy in
309 it” (Billy, P11). Humour created a sense of control: if they could laugh, the abuse was not
310 affecting them as much as those athletes who showed anger or hurt.

311 **Dissociation.** Dissociation techniques took the form of blocking thoughts of
312 emotional abuse. James (P4) spoke of blocking behaviour and using it to harness inner energy
313 to perform:

314 He was grilling me every time and he almost broke me that year, a lot of tough
315 things... I learnt that that’s not necessarily the way to coach how he does it... so I
316 ignored it, blocked it out and instead used it to drive me forwards.

317 Others refused to acknowledge that they were experiencing abuse. Charlotte (P7) denied that
318 she was being maltreated even when friends and family questioned the emotionally abusive
319 methods employed by her coach. She responded that “athletes have to cope with tough

320 coaches who build their character”. It was not until she left the sport that she acknowledged
321 the abusive environment that she had worked in. Dissociation was vital to her continued
322 performance.

323 **Coping over time**

324 Participants adopted a variety of methods to cope with emotional abuse over time,
325 including avoidance, seeking support and dropping out of their sport.

326 **Avoidance.** Avoiding training or competition to gain respite was common and
327 adopted when athletes believed their coping resources were being depleted: it was a form of
328 self-preservation. Alexandra stated that failing to attend international training camps became
329 the only way she could “avoid a situation that would inevitably make me feel awful” (P8).
330 Evaluative situations such as fitness testing, competitive events and video analysis sessions
331 were also avoided because they were often sites for angry coach outbursts. One participant
332 noted that her emotionally abusive coach would “single players out” (Megan, P1) and
333 humiliate them during performance analysis sessions, reducing squad members to tears if
334 they were “too weak to cope with her open verbal beatings”.

335 **Seeking support.** Support structures were deemed essential for coping with
336 emotional abuse. All participants highlighted the importance of having people inside and
337 outside of the sporting world to confide in. Adam stated that:

338 If you don’t have a network of support for you as an athlete or any structure,
339 you’ve got nothing to ground yourself with, you’re just literally concentrating
340 on surviving, and coping with the bad stuff would be impossible. (P3)

341 Participants referred to formal and informal support structures or mechanisms of support. The
342 former included designated professionals from the National Governing Body (NGB) and/or
343 other qualified staff who supported the athlete outside their performance pathway, including
344 sport psychologists, performance lifestyle advisors, strength and conditioning specialists,

345 physiotherapists and performance analysts. Many participants reported that whilst speaking to
346 someone “within the programme” (Charlotte, P7) offered an outlet, it was viewed as a
347 potentially risky endeavour as they couldn't guarantee that the information shared would
348 remain private, that it wouldn't be passed on and used against them. Alexandra (P8) noted
349 “there was a sport psychologist that I could have spoken to but even so I don't think I would
350 have trusted that she wouldn't have told the coaches”. This study highlights a lack of trust
351 that may prevent athletes from being honest about their situation.

352 Informal support structures included parents, siblings, friends, partners and team-
353 mates. Charlotte commented:

354 I didn't talk to anyone about the way that I was being treated apart from my mum,
355 because I just wanted to keep it inside me. I think at this point I was just so upset I
356 couldn't talk to anyone. If I spoke to someone then in some way it would have made
357 it more real and impossible to deal with on a weekly basis if that makes sense? I
358 don't know. Maybe it's the kind of person that I am.

359 Peer-to-peer support offered a sense of solidarity while family members allowed participants
360 to vent their frustration. While social support acted as a buffer against abuse, it could at the
361 same time have reduced the need for direct confrontation or the reporting of negative
362 behaviour. External support was identified as the primary reason participants managed to
363 continue competing but this study suggests that it could also be a barrier to the reporting of
364 abuse if it results in negotiation rather than confrontation.

365 **Dropping out.** Some participants reached a stage where they could no longer
366 emotionally cope with maltreatment; leaving the sport or stopping international competition
367 became their primary mechanism for coping. In their darkest moments, walking away was
368 the only route to avoiding pain, as the following extract shows:

369 I, at that stage was just like – I'm stopping... I couldn't emotionally deal with it any
370 more so I stopped playing for a season. I walked away from international competition.
371 (Ella, P5)

372 Quitting international competition was one of the hardest decisions Ella had ever made, yet
373 she felt she had no resources left to help her cope with the treatment she faced. Immy (P2)
374 similarly noted:

375 It's strange now because I think, you know, I left so I wasn't coping, but leaving was
376 my choice and my choice to give up gave me control over it, control I didn't have
377 when I was managing the daily barrage of abuse from him (the coach). (P2).

378 Choosing to leave permitted a feeling of control when all other coping strategies had failed.
379 Nevertheless, the sense of loss associated with the decision to leave a sport they had invested
380 so much in was acknowledged. This study underlines that when coping skills become
381 depleted, disengagement appears to be the only source of protection for the athlete.

382 **Post Experience: Coping in the aftermath**

383 **Meaning-making.** When recounting their individual experiences, participants not
384 only described but also tried to understand the emotional abuse they had suffered. Meaning-
385 making occurred when athletes had achieved some distance and perspective. This study thus
386 offers an insight into how participants cope with the legacy of abuse. Among some, there was
387 a perception of growth through adversity. James (P4) stated that his experience had driven
388 him to call on inner strength to achieve a higher level of performance:

389 Maybe it (emotional abuse) helped me in the long picture because going into the
390 Olympics I was quite strong headed, felt confident, knew my ability and knew how I
391 needed to feel going into a game, and I couldn't have planned it any better.
392 Everything happened for me at the right time, it was just unfortunate for some of the
393 guys that it wasn't and they couldn't cope or deal with it in the same way.

394 Similarly, Megan (P1) stated that:

395 I just don't give them the time of day to remember how bad it was, it was more about
396 what I got from it and how I got there, in that sense I grew from the experience and it
397 made me a more confident and self-assured person. I know some people you know
398 out of the lowest lows, create their highest highs and this sort of thing, like out of
399 nothing comes something, and that's what we were trying to do I guess.

400 This attitude was common: an adverse or challenging situation allowed access to an inner
401 strength that could be used to maximise performance.

402 Participants reflected on how through their career they weighed up the positives and
403 negatives of participation; a cost-benefit approach enabled them to rationalise the treatment
404 they endured. They considered what they were willing to accept and what lay outside the
405 boundaries of tolerable treatment or behaviour. For example, James (P4) noted that although
406 the maltreatment he had experienced had pushed him to extremes and challenged him
407 emotionally, the lure of an Olympic competition meant that he was willing to tolerate
408 anything:

409 Maybe the goal at the end of it was big enough to deal with it all, like because
410 obviously having an Olympics there, it was like a once in a lifetime
411 opportunity and that meant that even when I was really down, I'd never give
412 up.

413 Although emotional abuse posed a threat to his emotional and psychological safety, it was
414 outweighed by a positive outcome and selection for a major event. Conversely, the
415 participants who walked away from their sport or ceased international competition viewed
416 emotional abuse more negatively. Immy (P2) stated that she hated the "what if" that hung
417 over her by prematurely ending a career and thus felt resentment toward her coach rather than
418 a sense of acceptance of her treatment. This was universal: making sense of and accepting

444 In line with the transactional approach to coping, emotional abuse was recognised by
445 all participants as a stressful encounter. Coping strategies were implemented primarily to
446 alleviate feelings of distress. In the instance that emotional abuse occurred, participants
447 demonstrated a reliance on coping methods that enabled them to continue competing or
448 performing. Participants attempted to cope with the abuse in isolation and remained silent
449 about what they were experiencing. Over time participants moved from private attempts to
450 cope to seeking support from formal and informal support structures.

451 Importantly, participants referred to trying to make sense of emotional abuse so as to
452 find personal meaning in experience; it was deemed an important coping mechanism in the
453 long-term. The findings lend support to existing research on abuse: rationalising, making
454 sense of and justifying maltreatment are thought to facilitate healing in victims of child
455 sexual abuse (Merrill, Thomsen, Sinclair, Gold, & Milner, 2001; Phanichrat & Townshend,
456 2010) and have been used to cope with intimate partner violence (Hetzl-Riggin & Meads,
457 2011; Zanville & Bennett-Cattaneo, 2012). Similarly, re-framing and reappraisal of
458 maltreatment have been accepted as a part of the coping and recovery process and can lead to
459 positive adaptive functioning rather than long-term psychological damage in victims of abuse
460 in inter-familial settings (Banyard & Williams, 2007; Grossman, Sorsoli, & Kia-Keating,
461 2006; Morrow & Smith, 1995). In this study, such strategies were adopted to positively affect
462 the long-term impact of emotional abuse in sport and positively reframe experience.

463 This study demonstrates that participants predominantly adopted EFC (coping that
464 directly addresses emotional distress) and AFC strategies (cognitive distancing) (Holt et al.,
465 2005; Lazarus, 2000; Nicholls & Polman, 2007) in the immediate instance they experienced
466 emotional abuse. Over time participants sought help from external parties. Social support is
467 complex given that it can serve problem- and emotion-focussed functions (Carver, Scheier &
468 Weintraub, 1989). Participants acknowledged that reaching out to others was a way to offset

469 their distress rather than address the problem directly, thus this served as an EFC strategy.
470 Only one PFC method (intended to alter the situation) was identified: dropping out or quitting
471 international competition. In the aftermath of emotional abuse, participants adopted
472 appraisal-focused strategies to find meaning in experience and rationalise the encounter
473 (Nicholls & Polman, 2007).

474 The nature of coping effectiveness is an important consideration. Nicholls, Holt,
475 Polman, and Bloomfield (2006) believe it is essential to distinguish between coping efforts
476 and coping effectiveness: one should not automatically infer that the use of coping strategies
477 will enable an individual to effectively cope with a particular stressor. The appraisal of the
478 degree of stress experienced and the control one has in the transaction play key roles in the
479 effectiveness of coping (Poliseo & McDonough, 2012). Athletes are considered to adopt
480 more PFC strategies when they perceive they have control over stressors they encounter
481 because they can be used to manage or change a stressful situation (Kim & Duda, 2003).
482 Conversely, if they perceive a low level of control, EMF strategies manage affective
483 reactions (Folkman, 1992). The presence of EFC and AFC in the moment and over time
484 suggests that participants in this study deemed emotional abuse an uncontrollable stressor. In
485 response coping strategies were used as a defense against emotional abuse, rather than as an
486 act of control. Strategies employed in the moment could be considered to be effective since
487 they enabled the participant to negotiate the treatment. However, from an alternative
488 perspective the adoption of such coping strategies raises worrying concerns because the
489 victim failed to respond directly to, or confront, the behavior in question.

490 Controllability is also particularly important because traditionally control is reported
491 when an individual demonstrates the ability to negotiate or manage a stressor (Nicolls et al.,
492 2006). Although participants may have successfully negotiated emotionally abusive practices,
493 this did not usually result in control of the situation. As an example, where confrontation or

494 PFC was adopted, it involved dropping out from the sport, which had significant negative
495 consequences for the athlete. Even when participants progressed from private attempts to
496 cope with abuse to seeking support, those they confided in simply offered another way to
497 cope rather than to confront the treatment. Coping strategies therefore failed to act as a
498 preventative measure. Although the athlete may have gained perceived control over the
499 situation, the coping strategy did little to confront or eliminate the emotionally abusive
500 behaviour. In the literature on child sexual abuse (Collins et al., 2014; Phanicrat &
501 Towshend, 2010), adult sexual assault (Ullman, Peter-Hagene, & Relyea, 2014) and intimate
502 partner violence (Zanville & Bennett-Cattaneo, 2012), such strategies are recognised as
503 maladaptive or unhealthy approaches to coping because they are enacted to alleviate distress
504 without actually addressing the source of the distress itself.

505 Stirling (2009) emphasised that over-conformity in competitive sport can result in an
506 uncritical acceptance of a range of negative behaviours, including emotional abuse.
507 Brackenridge, Bringer, and Bishopp, (2005) argued that the physical demands of training, the
508 requirement that athletes display emotional toughness and conform to a culture of resilience
509 in sport have all acted to allow abuse in sport to go unchallenged, as well as undetected.
510 Abuse is neither questioned nor reported, leaving competitive athletes vulnerable to abuse in
511 their pursuit of performance-related goals (Brackenridge & Fasting, 2005). This study
512 suggests that the normalisation of emotional abuse has an impact on the coping mechanisms
513 employed. Additionally, in situations where there are unequal power relations such as in the
514 coach-athlete relationship, the coping strategies adopted may target the symptoms of
515 emotional abuse but fail to confront its source. Given the significant negative impact that
516 emotional abuse can have on athlete wellbeing the adoption of coping strategies that focus on
517 buffering abuse could serve to compound the immediate and long-term sequelae associated
518 with such abuse rather than ameliorate its effect. Alternatively, educating athletes on how to

519 adopt appropriate coping strategies and gain greater control or autonomy within the coach
520 athlete relationship could be significant in breaking cycles of abuse in sport, providing voice
521 and shifting power dynamics in this environment.

522 There are a number of practical implications that arise from the research findings.
523 Sport psychologists are acknowledged as primary agents of athlete protection and therefore
524 need to be appropriately trained to offer guidance and support to athletes. Education is a
525 powerful tool in the prevention and detection of abuse and the findings from this study could
526 be used to inform intervention with both coaches and athletes. Practitioners can educate
527 athletes on matters of abuse in sport and provide them with a repertoire of coping skills.
528 Priority should be placed on problem-focussed approaches such as understanding individual
529 athlete rights and providing guidelines in reporting instances of abuse. As Schwarzer and
530 Luszczynska (2008) contended, preventative coping and future-oriented coping strategies can
531 prepare athletes for stressful encounters and develop resources that will allow them to be
532 more reactive and self-protecting in stressful situations. This study suggests that this is
533 essential in personal management of cases of emotional abuse in sport. Support should help
534 athletes to understand how to recognise, respond to and/or report emotional abuse and serve
535 to empower athletes to speak out. Greater awareness and increased detection of emotional
536 abuse would have a significant impact on the victim and could have consequences for
537 perpetrators.

538 Creating situations which promote the division of power between the coach and
539 athlete could also be explored; increasing athlete autonomy and control. Educating coaches
540 on athlete-centred approaches to coaching could provide avenues for engaging athletes in
541 decision-making processes, placing emphasis on hearing the athlete voice and affording
542 individuals greater ownership over their own development in the performance environment.
543 Sport psychologists should promote open, responsive and holistic coaching environments that

544 help to reduce athletes' vulnerability to emotional abuse. Offering advice to athletes on
545 matters of safeguarding and protection relies on formal training and education. Thus it is
546 recommended that practitioners keep up to date on matters of safeguarding and engage in
547 formal safeguarding training in the sport and exercise setting.

548 **Limitations**

549 There are a number of acknowledged limitations within qualitative research more
550 broadly and within this study that should be noted. One of the common limitations is the
551 need for recall and the reflective nature of interviews. Fasting et al. (2007) noted that when
552 dealing with sensitive data, testimonies may suffer from distortion or memory attrition. In
553 this study, participants' distance from events varied considerably. Some were recollecting
554 events that could have taken place as many as eight years previously; others referred to
555 instances of emotional abuse that had occurred within a matter of months of the interview
556 date. It is possible that time impacts on their recollections of events. The small sample is also
557 an acknowledged limitation of this study, though this aligns with the qualitative research
558 design. The sampling strategy was clearly thought out, but it is recognised that it may be that
559 only those athletes who had been most affected by emotional abuse would be willing to be
560 interviewed. This could create bias, which is common in qualitative research.

561 **Future Directions**

562 Greater understanding of coping with emotional abuse is required to extend
563 understanding in this area. A number of recommendations derive from the limitations of this
564 study, including the need to explore the coping process across a broader range of sports and
565 participants. Future studies could adopt a quantitative approach to research, utilising a pre-
566 existing coping measure to explore the phenomenon. Further exploration of coping
567 effectiveness and control in coping would extend the findings from this study. It would be
568 useful to explore whether or not coping differs across abuse types (do athletes who have been

569 emotionally abused adopt different coping strategies from those who have experienced sexual
570 or physical abuse?) and if certain strategies lead to a greater perception of control in instances
571 of abuse. The effectiveness of preventative and future-oriented coping interventions also
572 offers an interesting line of inquiry. Further research could also investigate the behaviour of
573 coaches in performance settings, focusing on emotional regulation and coaching skills. It is
574 acknowledged, however, that access to this population might be fraught with difficulty.

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735 Table 1.

736 *Participant Demographics.*

No.	Age	Gender	Sport	Sport Level	Age Started	Age Retired
1	27	Female	Team	International	13	/
2	32	Female	Individual	International	11	20
3	25	Male	Team	International	18	25
4	23	Male	Team	International	14	/
5	35	Female	Team	International	18	34
6	28	Male	Team	National	8	20
7	19	Female	Team	International	13	/
8	32	Female	Team	International	13	27
9	25	Male	Team	National	8	/
10	25	Female	Individual	International	14	/
11	28	Male	Individual	International	12	25
12	25	Female	Individual	National	4	25

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741 Table 2.

742 *Coping strategies adopted by athletes facing emotional abuse.*

No. of participants citing main category	Main Category	Sub-Categories Coping Action	Coping strategy with numbered participant tags
12	Coping in the moment	Relaxation/ Breathing	Focussing on breathing as a distraction and to control emotion (2,3,6,8,12) Using progressive muscular relaxation (PMR) (1,2,4)
		Re-directing Attention	Using distraction techniques, self-harm, focussing strategies, thought-stopping, ignoring, visualising a safe place (1,2,3,4,6,7,12)
		Channelling emotion	Projecting anger inwardly or externally, channelling frustration in performance (1,3,4,6)
		Increasing effort	Working harder in training/competition for coach approval (1,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11)
12	Coping over time	Use of Humour	Laughing about behaviour, making fun of the perpetrator, excuse making with humour (1,2,4,5,8,11)
		Dissociation	Blocking, ignoring and rejecting behaviour (1,2,3,4,7,9) Denial of treatment (1,2,4,7)
		Avoiding Situations	Avoiding training or competition (1,2,5,8) Avoiding evaluative situations (1,5,6,7) Avoiding interaction with perpetrator (1,2,4,5,8,10,12)
12	Coping over time	Support seeking	Seeking formal support (1,2,3,4,5,7,8,10,11,12) Seeking informal support (1,2,3,4,5,7,8)
		Dropping out/ Leaving the sport	Removing self from team/sport (5,6,9) Avoiding selection for international competition (2,5,6,8) Career termination (2,5,6,8)
12	Post experience	Meaning-making through experience	Perception of growth through adversity (1,2,3,4,5,6,7,9,10,11) Explaining or rationalising treatment (1, 2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12)

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