

Violence and Fair Play in Sport

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Abstract: The aim of this study was to evaluate the variable dimensions of the violence in sport and fair play in the active sport. This investigation can decrease the violence dosages in the sport fields. Sports violence can be defined as behavior which causes harm, occurs outside of the rules of the sport and is unrelated to the competitive objectives of the sport. Reactive aggression has an underlying emotional component, with harm as its goal. Violence is an outcome of reactive aggression. An increase in both frequency and seriousness of acts of violence has been well documented. Violence is most prevalent in team contact sports, such as ice hockey, football and rugby. While, most occurrences of violence emanate from players, others, including coaches, parents, fans and the media, also contribute to what has been described as an epidemic of violence in sports today. This review study can help for the teachers, the sportmen and the managements concerning with the sports.

Key words: Violence, sports, fair play, aggression, players

INTRODUCTION

It is no longer clear that one can distinguish between a good and a bad violence, a violence that is necessary and one that is wanton, excessive and capable of in principle elimination, one that is justified by virtue of its constructive force while, the other is condemned as destructive, negative. Which is not at all to say that there is no difference between forms of violence or that we must abandon the right to judge force and violence, whatever force and violence such judgements involve: quite the contrary, it means that we must hone our intellectual resources much more carefully, making many more distinctions, subtleties and nuances in our understanding than any binarised or dialectically structured model allow. Scientists define violence in different ways. Some of them are; Violence is defined as a physical power to harm or injure others or the use of power and force to deprive of others from some rights in unjust manners. In our country, violence is meant as; roughness, hard and rude behaviour (Agar and Reisinger, 2000; Aluja-Fabregat, 2000; Anderson and Dill, 2000; Bernstein, 2002; Armstrong, 2004; Maxwell, 2004). And refuse the knee-jerk reactions of straightforward or outright condemnation before we understand the structure and history of that modality of violence, its modes of strategic functioning, its vulnerabilities and values. Violence in sport is a physical assault or of physically harmful actions by a player that takes place in a sports context and that is

intended to cause physical pain or injury to another player (or fan, coach, game official, etc.), where such harmful actions bear no direct relationship to the rules and associated competitive goals of the sport (Mowen *et al.*, 2004; Pappas *et al.*, 2004; Ralph, 2004; Roberts, 2000; Wennberg, 2004; Warner and Caulfield, 2004; Watson, 2004).

There are a few proposed theories for the explanation of violence in sports. They include biological, psychological and social learning theories. Biological theory suggests that aggression is a basic, inherent human condition. Therefore, having said this, sport is considered to be an acceptable method for athletes to let off steam or pent-up aggression. Psychological theory, on the other hand, relies on the concept of frustration as the main cause for the occurrence of violence in sports. With the pressures of the game--such as fans who heckle players, questionable calls made by the officials and player's egos--frustration can build up to the point where outbursts of violence can occur. Social learning theory maintains that violent behaviour is learned through modelling. Furthermore, rewards and punishments ultimately reinforce this behaviour. Therefore, when kids see their favourite sports heroes on TV, they are more than likely going to try and imitate them (Baker *et al.*, 1997; Ballard and Wiest, 1996; Bradley, 1996; Bredemeier *et al.*, 1987; Brindley, 1982; Bryson, 1987; Buka and Earls, 1993; Burns and Crawford, 1999).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study was made according to the various references. Therefore, literatures are evaluated for this investigation.

Violence in sport and dimensions: Sport is an activity that provides the physical, mental and social improvement of mankind and is a fact that exists from fight of mankind with nature. As it is known, in ancient ages mankind hunted to be nourished and to be saved from the attacks of wild animals. Therefore, hunting has taken an important place as a profession in mankind life. It has been improved as a sport branch during history and formed the bases of all other sport branches. Hence, as a large extended term, the struggle of mankind with himself and others takes place in the bases of all sport branches (Greenwood, 1996; Grier, 2001; Golden, 2000; Goode, 2000; Griffin, 2000; Grossman and Hines, 1996; Haris and Mowen, 2001; Hassmén and Blomstrand, 1995; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001; Hess, 2000; Hird, 2004; Horak, 1991; Hughson, 2000; Hutchins and Philips, 1997).

Sport is not only a competition and being rivals but also an affection, peace and friendship. The comviance, distortion and abuse of sport by players, supporters and spectators because of personal or social reasons has changed the sport fields to the battlefields of violence activities and aggressive behaviours. It is apparent that youths who could not beat their aggressiveness, could not reach their targets and expectations in uninspected daily lives, could not socialize enough and are in depress of personality and individuality caused to the violence events in sport. Youths that have such a type of personality become a united whole with the team and its colors that they support. They connect all of their targets and expectations to the victory, power and superiority of team. They believe that they get place and a role in society by sacrificing themselves to the team they support. They deem aggressiveness and violence for their teams as a symbol of prestige. They assume aggressiveness and violence as a common value of colors they connected under the effects of processes such as yielding, threatening, adapting, digesting, social acceleration and taking a risk pressures of society to the sub-cultural group they belong to (Abelson, 1985; Baron and Kenny, 1986; Byrd *et al.*, 1996; Byrd *et al.*, 1997; Centerwall, 1992; Claringbould *et al.*, 2004; Coakley, 1981; Colburn, 1985; Conroy *et al.*, 2001; Cotton *et al.*, 1994; James and Gardiner, 1997; Karson and Fisher, 2005; Kellerman *et al.*, 1993; Kelly and McCarthy, 1979; Kerr, 1999; King, 1997; Kingery *et al.*, 1992; Kirker *et al.*, 2000; Kolbe, 1990; Krcmar and Greene, 1999).

Kinds of violence

Cosmic violence: It is the violence that implies the war between living creatures in nature to be and to survive.

Violence in games: It is the most normal and secure kind of violence that does not cover danger. The basic aim of that kind of violence is showing skills not harming.

Reactional violence: It exists from tension that is caused by hindrances.

Revengal violence: The feeling of taking revenge of something is opposite proportioned with a person's or community's strenght.

Compensational violence: It is the kind of violence that is replacing powerless one to producer effectivity (Cullen and Cullen, 1975; Davis, 1989; Duke and Crolley, 1996; Duncan and Brummet, 1993; Dunning, 2000; Dunning *et al.*, 1986, 1991; DuRant *et al.*, 1994; Englehardt, 1995; Erikson, 1962; Everett and Price, 1995; Farrington, 1989, 1997; Gee and Sullivan, 2005).

The effects of media to the violence in sport: Press and broadcast organizations undertake the task of protecting society benefits on behalf of society. One of the negative effects of television on children is provoking violence feelings. Programs that cover aggressiveness direct children to have aggressive behaviours. All evenings at the end of news, teams form conditions and the statistics of injured players are given regularly. The match that will determine the league champion is placed to the country's agenda one month or 2 weeks before. Day by day tension is being increased and match is introduced as an event that will change the future of country (LeFebvre and Passer, 1974; Leith, 1989; Lenskyj, 1987, 1988, 1995; Leone and d'Arienzo, 2000; Lewis *et al.*, 1980; Lewis, 1982; Levine and vinten Johansen, 1981; McCarthy and Kelly, 1978a; McCarthy and Kelly, 1978b; McCaw and Walker, 1999; McGuire *et al.*, 1992; Miller and Miller, 1995; Moorhouse, 1991; Mowen *et al.*, 2004; Mugno and Feltz, 1985; Murphy *et al.*, 1988; Ordman and Zillmann, 1994; Palmer, 1995; Pappas *et al.*, 2004; Perasovic, 1995; Petrovic, 1990; Pilz, 1996; Pincus and Callahan, 1994; Porter, 1993; Prothrow-Stith, 1992; Rachuba *et al.*, 1995).

Studies to prevent violence in sport: In order to remove violence events from sport firstly the causes aggressiveness and violence have to be removed. Previously, sport education has to be taught and practiced sufficiently at the right time in the country's education system and education politics.

There are various methods to practice that:

- It has to be taught everyone that sport is not a fight, it is a competition with the feelings of affection, peace and friendship.
- The rules and conditions of sport is determined universally. These rules and principles have to be taught everyone from player to the supporter and spectator.
- Players have to prepare themselves very good and have to keep away from deceive and provocative behaviours for both himself and spectators.
- Well-educated referees have to be brought up for sport competitions and the trust of everyone to the referees has to be provided.
- The swearwords and insults have to be prevented definitely in stadiums.
- All of the security precautions have to be taken in sport competitions and no unpleasant event has to be permitted.
- Players and sportmen have to be clever, agile and well-behaved and must have sportive virtue and be model personality in society.
- Sport managers have to get out of negative statements and behaviours, have to behave as tolerant and have common sense.
- Sport publications have to be in educative formation for readers and be based on accurate and objective information, be far away from provocation that may cause wrong understandings.
- By beginning from the education and communication in family, all parts of social environment has to be evaluated again in this frame and have to be tried hardly to put into force behavioral patterns that increase tolerance.

As a result it has to be placed in society's conscious that sport is not an activity covers violence and fight, it is a competition with the feelings of affection, peace and friendship (Robinson and Howe, 1985; Roversi, 1991; Russell, 1974; Russell and Drewry, 1976; Russell and Russell, 1984; Safai, 2002; Sargent *et al.*, 1998; Sargent, 2003; Satcher, 1995; Sege and Sietz, 1994; Shanahan *et al.*, 2003; Sheahan, 2004; Sheldon and Aimar, 2001; Slaby and Stringham, 1994; Smith, 1974; 1975; 1979; Taylor, 1982; Teinowitz *et al.*, 1999; Tenenbaum *et al.*, 1997; Valois *et al.*, 1995; Whannel, 1999; Wang *et al.*, 2000; Wann *et al.*, 1999).

Important violence events in the world and turkey:

The relation between sport, violence and aggressiveness reaches to the history of sport. In these disputes

sometimes there are some contests that are caused by various discrimination and sometimes those may cause to the deaths that are not caused by violence such as heart attacks. The violence events in sport can be classified as:

- Acts of violence.
- Accidents of technical faults.
- Accidents of incautiousness.
- Accidents of incautiousness because of panic (Webster *et al.*, 1993; Weiss *et al.*, 1991; Weiss *et al.*, 1992; Weis, 1986; Welch, 1997; Wennberg, 2004; Werner, 1992; West *et al.*, 1996; White *et al.*, 1992; Widmeyer and Birch, 1979).

Events and activities based on violence:

- 1949 Istanbul; the collapse and pillage of Veliefendi hippodrome just after the race.
- 1966 Cairo (Egypt); 300 injured people in the football match between Zamalek - National teams.
- 1967 Kayseri (Turkey); 40 dead and nearly 600 injured people in the events that were begun after the end of football match between Kayserispor and Sivasspor on September 17th, 1967.
- The events at the elimination group match that was played between Honduras and El Salvador national football teams on July 1969 caused to a war leading 4 days and many people was died (Widmeyer and Birch, 1984; Widmeyer and McGuire, 1997; Williams *et al.*, 1986; Williams and McGee, 1994; Wilson and Kerr, 1999; Wolfe and Korsh, 1994; Worrell and Harris, 1986; Yanson and Taylor, 1992; Young, 1986; 1993; Zani and Kirchler, 1991).

Accidents of technical faults:

- 1902 (Scotland) In Glasgow at the football match between Scotland and England national teams, as a result of collapse of tribune 25 people were dead and 342 people were injured.
- February 26th, 1918 (Hong Kong) Because of the collapse of hippodrome tribune, 609 people were defeated under the wreckage.
- 1957 (Italy) At the match between Fiorentina versus Juventus, as a result of tribune collapse 5 people were dead and 300 people were injured.
- 1964 (Turkey) At the opening ceremony of Istanbul Ali Sami Yen Stadium the banister of the tribune were collapsed and 84 spectators were injured at the football match between Turkish and Bulgarian national teams.

- 1975 (U.S.S.R) At the game between U.S.S.R- Canada youth national teams after the electricity cut, panic between spectators existed and it caused to the dead of 20 people.
- 1988 (Libya) At the national game between Libya and Malta, after the collapse of tribune, 30 spectators were dead (Claringbould *et al.*, 2004; Coakley, 1981; Colburn, 1985; Conroy *et al.*, 2001; Cotton *et al.*, 1994; Cullen and Cullen, 1975; Davis, 1989; Duke and Crolley, 1996; Duncan and Brummet, 1993; Dunning, 2000; Dunning *et al.*, 1986, 1991; DuRant *et al.*, 1994; Englehardt, 1995; Erikson, 1962; Everett and Price, 1995; Farrington, 1989; Farrington, 1997).

Accidents of incautiousness because of panic:

- July 23th 1968 (Argentina) The fireworks caused fire in the stadium at the football match between River Plate and Boca Juniors in Buenos Aires. People attacked to the exit doors in panic. In this event, 80 individuals were dead and 150 ones were injured.
- 1981 (Colombia) At the match Amerika versus Deporive, as a result of panic after a spectator fell from uptribune to the down, 24 spectator were dead and 60 ones were injured.
- 1985 (England) On May 11th in Bradford, at the last match of England 2nd League between Bradford City and Lincoln City, fire resulted panic between spectators and it caused to the death of 53 people and the injury of 385 people.
- March 1988 (Nepal) In Katmandu Stadium spectators ran through closed sides in order to be protected from raining down hail. However, as a result of panic 72 spectators were dead and more than 200 people were injured.
- April 1997 (Nigeria) At the celebration displays after the victory of Nigeria against New Guinea, the death of 5 people and the injury of 15 people were mourned the country (Berkowitz, 1989; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001; Hess, 2000; Hird, 2004; Horak, 1991; Hughson, 2000; Hutchins and Philips, 1997; James and Gardiner, 1997; Karson and Fisher, 2005; Kellerman *et al.*, 1993; Kelly and McCarthy, 1979; Kerr, 1999; King, 1997; Kingery *et al.*, 1992; Kirker *et al.*, 2000; Kolbe, 1990; Kremer and Greene, 1999; LeFebvre and Passer, 1974; Leith, 1989; Lenskyj, 1987).

Aggressiveness: There are many definitions on aggressiveness. Some of the definitions of scientists that are in general similar to the each other and defend aggressiveness is inborn and a gained behavior are such:

Aggressiveness; is compulsory ability of a person to build up personality and to take his place in social and geographical atmosphere. Attack is the activation of aggressiveness. All creatures need to attack to the environment around them in order to survive. At the base of aggressiveness, probably the hindrance of behaviours that tend to satisfy one of the needs lies. Hindered organism angers by the helps of physiological and cognitive mechanisms. Therefore, it can be said that angered organism does not attack because of aggressiveness instinct, it attacks because its movements were hindered by an obstacle (Krcmar and Greene, 1999; LeFebvre and Passer, 1974; Leith, 1989; Lenskyj, 1987, 1988, 1995; Leone and d'Arienzo, 2000; Lewis *et al.*, 1980; Lewis, 1982; Levine and vinten Johansen, 1981; Maxwell, 2004; McCarthy and Kelly, 1978a; McCarthy and Kelly, 1978b; McCaw and Walker, 1999; McGuire *et al.*, 1992; Miller and Miller, 1995; Moorhouse, 1991).

Kinds of aggressiveness: In psychological frame the aggressiveness of football spectators were discussed in 3 groups at the declaration of the Football Panel of Turkish Law.

Individual aggressiveness: The aggressive behavior of each spectator shown individually.

Collective aggressiveness: The aggressive behavior of spectators shown collectively. The processes and conditions that cause to the collective aggressiveness are so different than the individual ones.

Totally violence included aggressiveness: it is the aggressiveness that targets to destroy persons and objects towards.

The direction and types of aggressiveness: For the purpose of harming themselves what sportmen do. The shooting of his foot to the goal post after missing penalty for a football player or shooting his foot to the floor because of not achieving what sportmen targeted are some examples of that type aggressiveness (=Aggressiveness Regarding Itself). It can be defined as harming to one who live around. In that case, the targets can be competitor players, trainers, referee or one of the team mates. It has not to be forgotten aggressiveness to the spectators also (=Aggressiveness Regarding Outside). If the aim and the target of the aggressiveness are the same then reactionary aggressiveness exists. Sportmen directly move in order to harm their competitors (=Reactionary Aggressiveness). Learned aggressive

actions are defined as instrumental aggressiveness. The aims of getting a high degree, beating the competitor, winning medals, breaking records, substantiating himself and acknowledging himself feelings underlie (=Instrumental Aggressiveness). It is the type of aggression directly to the one who provokes sportman or spectator (=Aggressiveness Directly To The Provocator). Aggression is directed to the others excluding provocator. In that case sportman or spectator shows its aggression to others. The aggressive behavior of player to the competitor after getting angry to the referee and the reaction of spectators to the competitor spectators because of hand movements of player when substituting are some of the examples of that type of aggressiveness (= Aggressiveness To The Others Excluding Provocator) (Agar and Reisinger, 2000; Aluja-Fabregat, 2000; Anderson and Dill, 2000; Armstrong, 2004; Baker *et al.*, 1997; Ballard and Wiest, 1996; Baron and Kenny, 1986; Bernstein, 2002; Berkowitz, 1989; Bradley, 1996; Bredemeier *et al.*, 1987; Brindley, 1982; Bryson, 1987; Buka and Earls, 1993; Burns and Crawford, 1999; Byrd *et al.*, 1996; Byrd *et al.*, 1997; Centerwall, 1992; Claringbould *et al.*, 2004; Coakley, 1981; Colburn, 1985; Conroy *et al.*, 2001; Cotton *et al.*, 1994; Cullen and Cullen, 1975; Davis, 1989; Duke and Crolley, 1996; Duncan and Brummet, 1993; Dunning, 2000; Dunning *et al.*, 1986, 1991; DuRant *et al.*, 1994; Englehardt, 1995; Erikson, 1962; Everett and Price, 1995; Farrington, 1989; Farrington, 1997; Gee and Sullivan, 2005; Greenwood, 1996; Grier, 2001; Golden, 2000; Goode, 2000).

The term of hooligan: Hooligan term was used in the meaning of street vagabond, savage or cruel in 1890s. Now it is used for the rebellious and savage football spectators of 1960s. According to the Victorian manner the rude and undisciplined image of hooligan term has waken up the panic of ethics. In other words hooligan term has been used in meaning of furious and fearless. Hooligans have been shown in England in general and they have been accepted their existence. It is known that in other European countries such as Netherlands, Germany, Denmark and Belgium there are also some hooligan groups but these are not such a dangerous level as it is in England (Haris and Mowen, 2001; Hassmén and Blomstrand, 1995; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001; Hess, 2000; Hird, 2004; Horak, 1991; Hughson, 2000; Hutchins and Philips, 1997; James and Gardiner, 1997; Karson and Fisher, 2005).

Hooliganism and its rise: Hooliganism, especially for football spectators, it is the hegemony effort to the competitor spectators before the game, on the game, after the game and also inside the stadium. Hooliganism firstly

emerged in England, however especially it was experienced in Germany, France, Belgium, Greece, Czech Republic and Denmark. Three ways are advised in approaching hooligans:

Society has to be informed about these people: Media has an important mission on that issue. However, according to its recent picture it behave in opposite. When the hooligans and spectators have a violence activity, they get place in media. These situations have to be taken into consideration because in that case the life of human matters. It is better to announce these news more carefully and out of exaggeration.

Guilty has to get punishment what deserves: That have importance in two ways. First one, if guilty is forgiven, it seems the unguilties are punished. Secondly, this situation causes to the learning and hardening especially for the ones that have critical character disorder.

Social conditions: The common subject about hooligans are being unemployed, being formed by uneducated individuals, suffering from drugs and lacking of enough communication with other people. Hence, the reasons of that are; firstly, Economic imbalance and unemployment. Secondly, Crook urbanization that rule individual needs out (Gardiner, 1997; Griffin, 2000; Golden, 2000; Goode, 2000; Grier, 2001; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001; Hess, 2000; Hird, 2004; Horak, 1991; Hughson, 2000; Hutchins and Philips, 1997; James and Gardiner, 1997; Karson and Fisher, 2005; Kellerman *et al.*, 1993; Kelly and McCarthy, 1979; Kerr, 1999; King, 1997; Kingery *et al.*, 1992; Kirker *et al.*, 2000; Mowen *et al.*, 2004; Mugno and Feltz, 1985; Murphy *et al.*, 1988; Ordman and Zillmann, 1994; Palmer, 1995; Pappas *et al.*, 2004; Perasovic, 1995; Petrovic, 1990; Pilz, 1996).

Fair play: Fair Play is the attribute of sportmen in games as conforming to the rules patiently, consistently and consciously, not accepting the unfair advantages to save opportunity equality, not benefiting from the competitors disadvantage, accepting the competitor not as a rival as a partner that has the same rights to play game. If fair play is evaluated in terms of sportman; it is the desire of sportman to be at the same conditions with his competitors, refusing the benefit from bad condition of his competitor, getting advantage against his competitor only by written rules and not trying to get benefit from rules only for himself (LeFebvre and Passer, 1974; Leith, 1989; Lenskyj, 1987, 1988, 1995; Leone and d'Arienzo, 2000; Lewis *et al.*, 1980; Lewis, 1982; Palmer, 1995; Pappas *et al.*, 2004; Perasovic, 1995; Petrovic, 1990; Pilz, 1996; Pincus and Callahan, 1994; Porter, 1993; Prothrow-Stith, 1992;

Rachuba *et al.*, 1995; Ralph, 2004; Roberts, 2000; Robinson and Howe, 1985; Roversi, 1991; Russell, 1974; Russell and Drewry, 1976; Russell and Russell, 1984; Whannel, 1999; Wang *et al.*, 2000; Wann *et al.*, 1999; Warner and Caulfield, 2004; Watson, 2004; Webster *et al.*, 1993; Weiss *et al.*, 1991, 1992; Weis, 1986; Welch, 1997; Wennberg, 2004; Werner, 1992; West *et al.*, 1996; White *et al.*, 1992; Widmeyer and Birch, 1979; Widmeyer and Birch, 1984; Widmeyer and McGuire, 1997; Williams *et al.*, 1986; Williams and McGee, 1994; Wilson and Kerr, 1999).

Fair play in the world: In sport the fair play term's historical origins, ancient ages Olympics, middle ages knight tournaments and the socio cultural structure of 19th centuries England; especially in amateur rules in boarding colleges and in social classes it finds a meaning. Thomas Arnold, a historian and theologian, used the sport as a motivation tool in Rugby College that he was the director. He aimed to bring up students that were restless, spoiled and discordant as gentlemen. These students that were brought such a method spreaded the Fair Play term by going different universities and other countries (Kirkner *et al.*, 2000; Kolbe, 1990; Krcmar and Greene, 1999; LeFebvre and Passer, 1974; Leith, 1989; Lenskyj, 1987, 1988, 1995; Leone and d'Arienzo, 2000; Lewis *et al.*, 1980; Lewis, 1982; Levine and vinten Johansen, 1981; Maxwell, 2004; McCarthy and Kelly, 1978a; McCarthy and Kelly, 1978b; McCaw and Walker, 1999; McGuire *et al.*, 1992; Miller and Miller, 1995; Moorhouse, 1991; Mowen *et al.*, 2004). In Turkey, this term is generally covered sportsmanship and sportsmanlike words. However, in recent years fair play term has been placed in Turkish. The organizational structure in Turkey about fair play is fair play commission that was created under Turkish National Olympics Committee in 1981.

In order to protect fair play, the spread of fair play, sports and sports culture in all levels of schools and universities in all ages has to be provided. In that way Olympism and sports cultural and artistic side can be shared by all citizens so that active living consciousness will be provided. Improving the consciousness of olympism, sport culture, sport history, fair play, artistic issues on active Turkish sportmen, arranging rural, national and international sports organizations that reflect the artistic and cultural side of sports and attending these kind of organizations, arranging activities that reflect our country's sports history of civilizations that lives in Anatolian geography, attracting the interests of people especially professional artists. The works for encouraging sportmen and artists to act in same places is one of the works for sustaining fair play (Bredemeier *et al.*, 1987;

Brindley, 1982; Byrd *et al.*, 1997; Cotton *et al.*, 1994; Dunning, 2000; Kerr, 1999; LeFebvre and Passer, 1974).

It is difficult to teach fair play in schools in such an unital ways as other subjects in physical education lessons. Therefore, lessons have to be planned and taught to provide fair play understanding of students. Also, physical educations teachers' inclass behaviours must reflect compatible instances for students. On the other hand, rule conciousness education can be developed for children and youths by learning, acknowledging, understanding and digesting rules and by building ethics conciousness (Bredemeier *et al.*, 1987; Brindley, 1982; Byrd *et al.*, 1997; Cotton *et al.*, 1994; Dunning, 2000; Kerr, 1999; LeFebvre and Passer, 1974; Maxwell, 2004; McCarthy and Kelly, 1978a; McCarthy and Kelly, 1978b; McCaw and Walker, 1999; McGuire *et al.*, 1992; Miller and Miller, 1995).

RESULTS

It is well known how the violence and aggressiveness are spreading in Turkey and overall the world. In order to stop this society has to be taught by the helps of media and seminars. The other reasons of violence and aggressiveness, social and economic components, although they create some big problems in the country it has to be taught that solution is not violence and aggressiveness. Naturally, violence is caused by individual reasons. There is also violence that causes from technical and imprudence. All of precautions have to be applied in accordance with general criterias in order to minimize violence. In order to minimize violence cases in general, media has to publish and broadcast positive and constructive news against violence.

There must not place any violence included news in the media. Moreover, youths who are the future of a country has to be brought up well in these issues. Lets remember that the best investment is the one that invests future. Is it important to study on removing rather than supporting aggressive hooligans of popular teams in order to minimize violence cases and so obtaining a clear sports environment? Also, according to you managers that sell more tickets than the number of seats in stadium do endanger the lives of people? What about opening the stadium doors at last minutes? How can sports history be saved such bad conditions unless security conditions will not be improved? (Abelson, 1985; Agar and Reisinger, 2000; Aluja-Fabregat, 2000; Anderson and Dill, 2000; Armstrong, 2004; Baker *et al.*, 1997; Ballard and Wiest, 1996; Baron and Kenny, 1986; Bernstein, 2002; Duke and Crolley, 1996; Duncan and Brummet, 1993; Dunning, 2000; Dunning *et al.*, 1986; Dunning *et al.*, 1991; DuRant *et al.*, 1994; Englehardt, 1995; Erikson, 1962; Everett and Price,

1995; Kerr, 1999; King, 1997; Kingery *et al.*, 1992; Kirker *et al.*, 2000; Prothrow-Stith, 1992; Rachuba *et al.*, 1995; Ralph, 2004; Roberts, 2000; Robinson and Howe, 1985; Roversi, 1991; Russell, 1974; Russell and Drewry, 1976; Russell and Russell, 1984; Safai, 2002; Sargent *et al.*, 1998; Sargent, 2003; Satcher, 1995; Sege and Sietz, 1994; Shanahan *et al.*, 2003; Sheahan, 2004; Sheldon and Aimar, 2001; Slaby and Stringham, 1994).

There are 3 major theories that seek to explain violent aggression in sports:

The biological theory: Within this context, sports is seen as a socially acceptable way to discharge built-up aggression, a safety valve.

The psychological theory: In sports, frustration can be caused by questionable calls by officials, failure to make a particular play, injuries that interfere with optimum performance, heckling from spectators, or taunts by coaches or players.

The social learning theory: This theory has received the most empirical verification and maintains that aggressive behavior is learned through modeling and reinforced by rewards and punishments. Young athletes take sports heroes as role models and imitate their behavior. Parents, coaches and teammates are also models who may demonstrate support for an aggressive style of play (Wang *et al.*, 2000; Wann *et al.*, 1999; Warner and Caulfield, 2004; Watson, 2004; Webster *et al.*, 1993).

Often, a threat to the public interest is largely ignored if it does not have immediate and easily recognizable effects. Such is the current problem with sports violence. In this section, we endeavor to bring this problem to the fore by outlining the excessive violence pervasive in the sports community. While, instances of excessive violence can be found in almost all sports, we focus here on those sports that are traditionally the most conspicuous for the violence problem and that tend to draw the most media attention. In the second part of this section, we argue that excessive violence in sports adversely affects the public interest (Wennberg, 2004; Werner, 1992; West *et al.*, 1996; White *et al.*, 1992).

This is in stark contrast to media coverage of football fan behaviour, particularly in the UK. Here drunkenness is by far the most often reported cause of violent disorder, even in circumstances where there is no evidence of excessive drinking. In line with this populist view, most official enquiries into football hooliganism have dwelt on the problem of alcohol and urged its restriction at football matches.

Even government sponsored publications concerning Crime Prevention Initiatives include sweeping

conclusions about the dangers of alcohol consumption by football fans: Some offences are alcohol-related by definition-drink-driving for example. But these are by no means the only ones where alcohol plays a large part. Public disorder, including football hooliganism and vandalism is particularly associated with it. Controls on the availability of alcohol at football matches have now existed for some time in Britain and the European Parliament (EP) has recently included a Europe-wide ban on alcohol in its recommendations (Agar and Reisinger, 2000; Aluja-Fabregat, 2000; Anderson and Dill, 2000; Bernstein, 2002; Armstrong, 2004; Maxwell, 2004).

DISCUSSION

The proposition that excessive violence is prevalent in sports is, to a large degree, self-evident. However, acts of excessive violence by players usually occur sporadically and are soon forgotten. Thus, although the public is momentarily outraged by the vicious conduct of a player, spectators are soon lulled into a sense of well-being by the passage of time. When the violent acts of athletes are considered in the aggregate, however, it becomes apparent that a significant problem exists. It is evident from the accounts of violent play detailed above that excessive violence has had a pervasive influence on the world of sports. The proposition that sports violence has a detrimental effect on society is well documented in psychological and sociological studies. Professional and amateur sports have become an integral part of our culture and national identity. Sports can be seen in one form or another at any time of day or night and athletes are among the most publicized individuals in the world. In short, athletes words and actions have become a prominent component of public discourse and cultural notions of acceptable conduct.

The prospect of imposing criminal sanctions for acts of excessive violence in sports does not come without obstacles. Several stumbling blocks stand in the way of a successful sports prosecution. First and foremost of these impediments is the doctrine of consent, which operates as a full defense to the crime of assault and battery. Other defenses invoked by athlete defendants include self-defense, involuntary reflex and provocation. This section evaluates various interpretations of the doctrine of consent and reviews the other defenses and extra-legal hindrances to effective criminal prosecution that might be encountered by prosecutors (Agar and Reisinger, 2000; Aluja-Fabregat, 2000; Anderson and Dill, 2000; Armstrong, 2004).

The response that she provides functions as an imperative for academics within the human sciences-to begin with, she challenges all of us who profess to be

students of culture to scrutinize the mundane or empirical displays of violence with which we are confronted on a daily basis in terms of their histories, contexts and modes of strategic functioning. Here, she suggests that to formulate effective strategies of response both to obvious and subtle deployments of force, the labyrinthine web of power relations defining such demonstrations must be carefully traced. Those who study cultural manifestations of violence must seek to understand the hows and whys of force, even as certain acts or events of violence are decried or lauded (Gee and Sullivan, 2005; Greenwood, 1996; Grier, 2001; Golden, 2000; Goode, 2000; Griffin, 2000).

In recent years, sports violence has become to be perceived as a social problem. Commissions have been appointed in Canada and England to investigate violence among hockey players and soccer fans. Numerous examples of violence in professional sports exist today, as countries like the United States, Canada, Greece, Italy and Germany, report court cases have been heard which concern the victims of violence perpetrators. Newspapers, magazines and television programs portray bloodied athletes and riotous fans at hockey, boxing, football, soccer, baseball and basketball games with what appears to be increasing regularity. But are sports violence incidents actually increasing and if so, what is the reason of such a negative increase? Or does the heightened public attention and media focus on sports violence reflect not an increase in the incidence or severity of aggression, but greater public concern with moral issues and political discourse? Contrary to popular belief, there appears to be growing dissatisfaction with sports violence. Changes in sports rules, developments in the design of equipment and even the physical characteristics of modern sports arenas evolved in an effort to reduce violence or its consequences. But still, among athletic management teams, government officials, fans and athletes themselves, there is an ambivalence attitude towards sports violence.

The ambivalence takes the form of justifying the existence of violence in sports, but not taking personal responsibility for it. Coaches and managers tend to blame fans, saying that violence is what attracts people into stadiums, as the risk entailed makes the game more interesting. Athletes frequently admit that they are opposed to violence, but it is expected of them by coaches. Fans justify it by attributing aggressiveness to athletes and to situational aspects of the game. Spectators view violence as an inherent part of some sports as one cannot play games like hockey or football, without accepting the necessity of violent action (Gee and Sullivan, 2005; Greenwood, 1996; Grier, 2001; Golden, 2000; Goode, 2000; Griffin, 2000; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001; Hess, 2000; Hird, 2004).

The available literature does not include any quantitative comparisons of levels of football-related violence in European countries. This may be because there is very little quantitative data available on the incidence of football-related violence in individual countries. Even in Britain, where the problems have been recognised and researched for over two decades, systematic recording of incidents has only been undertaken in the last few years. Empirical data on football-related violence in other European countries is sketchy, often out-of-date and difficult to compare as different sources do not define terms such as violent incident or serious incident in the same way - and in many cases do not define these terms at all.

The lack of data and specifically the lack of directly comparable data, clearly hinders any attempt to assess variations in the scale of the problem within Europe. In addition to these difficulties, patterns of football-related violence in Europe are constantly changing and levels of violence cannot be relied upon to remain stable for the convenience of researchers and publishers. Even newspapers, with the benefit of daily publication, cannot always keep up with the changing trends (Gee and Sullivan, 2005; Greenwood, 1996; Grier, 2001; Golden, 2000; Goode, 2000; Griffin, 2000; Grossman and Hines, 1996; Haris and Mowen, 2001; Hassmén and Blomstrand, 1995; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001; Hess, 2000; Hird, 2004; Horak, 1991; Hughson, 2000; Hutchins and Philips, 1997; James and Gardiner, 1997; Karson and Fisher, 2005; Kellerman *et al.*, 1993; Kelly and McCarthy, 1979; Kerr, 1999; King, 1997).

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