

Political advances for women and sport in the mid-1990s

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Abstract

The topic of women and girls' rights, access and inclusion in sport and physical activity has become a mainstay of sporting and non-sporting organisational discourse. Notwithstanding, there is little published on why, how and who enabled these topics to become politicised to this extent. For example, academic texts state key moments for the advancement of women and sport, such as conferences and resolutions, but rarely provide further detail. By explaining how transnational women and sport advocacy groups lobbied the United Nations (UN) and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) into actions for women and sport in the mid-1990s, this article adds to knowledge about how advocacy groups in international sport succeeded in working together to collectively effect change despite demonstrating contention amongst one another. Data from archival analysis of papers and correspondence of key agents involved in these processes were complemented with semi-structured interviews with some of the same individuals decades later. Using terms and concepts from social movement studies, the article shows how the International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG) and WomenSport International (WSI) developed in relation to each other and the political environment in which they were playing a key role in shaping. Their relationship was not straightforward, due in part to the formations and structure of each group, but their purposive efforts with other agents contributed to a collective endeavour that achieved milestones for the political legitimacy of women and sport.

Keywords

Women and sport, Social movements, United Nations, International Olympic Committee, advocacy

27 Introduction

The 1970s and 1980s saw the growth of national advocacy groups for women and sport. Their documented histories show a pattern of informal networks with limited resources mobilising around the common aim of change for women's sport and women *in* sport (Hall 1995). A plethora of topics, including greater access and inclusion to participation, leadership positions, and safer environments for women and girls in sport and physical activity, have formed some of the objectives of the advocacy. Gradually, these groups interacted with governmental and corporate institutions, often resulting in internal conflict about working with or against liberal and conservative ideologies. By the early 1990s, advocates with national experiences were engaging with each other in European, Commonwealth and North American networks (Hargreaves 1999).

WomenSport International (WSI) emerged from an American sport science research group, dissatisfaction with an existing organisation established in the 1950s, and a faltering information exchange mechanism. Formally established in February 1994, WSI was an issues-based and action-oriented non-governmental organisation (NGO). Its aim was to bring about increased opportunities and positive change for women and girls at all levels of involvement in sport and physical activity (WSI, c1995). It achieved particular success with international task forces addressing topics such as the female athlete triad and sexual harassment in sport. Despite this global advocacy, WSI struggled with resources and diversifying its predominantly Western demographic (Hargreaves 1999). It was primarily coordinated by what became an exclusive voluntary executive committee. Led by executive vice-president, Elizabeth 'Libby' Darlison¹, the committee included Celia Brackenridge (UK), Kari Fasting (Norway) and Barbara Drinkwater (USA), all of whom had substantial academic expertise and national

¹ Darlison was former Deputy Manager of the Australian Sports Commission and a lecturer in Sociology at the University of Sydney.

experiences of advocacy for women and sport. WSI had a constitution, sub-structure (including
an advisory board), aims, and objectives determined before the first World Conference on
Women and Sport in Brighton, UK, in May 1994.

Titled 'Women, Sport, and the Challenge of Change', the Brighton Conference convened approximately 280 delegates from over eighty countries, including representatives of major sporting and non-sporting organisations. Hosted by the Great Britain Sports Council and supported by the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the delegates contributed to a more coordinated and purposeful International Strategy for Women and Sport (see Author 2020). The International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG) was formulated in the months following the Brighton Conference. Originally, it was a group focused on coordinating and monitoring the implementation of the Strategy which was comprised of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport², international co-ordinating mechanisms and regular conferences. The IWG was different to WSI in that it was comprised of chosen representatives of identified organisations and regions globally. It was not an NGO, nor was it strictly composed of governmental representatives. Its secretariat was based at the GB Sports Council and co-Chairship was shared by Anita White (UK) and Pendukeni Iivula-Ithana (Namibia)³, owing to Namibia offering to host the second World Conference in 1998. Immediately after Brighton, both WSI and the IWG worked to establish themselves in sporting and non-sporting sectors to lobby for women and sport advances. This included approaching the United Nations (UN) and the IOC, though little analyses of the effectiveness of such advocacy organisations for women and sport exists (Talbot 2000).

² A set of ten principles that when adhered to will 'develop a sporting culture that enables and values the full involvement of women in every aspect of sport' (IWG, 1998, p. 51).

³ White was Assistant Director of National Services at the GB Sports Council in 1994 before being promoted to Director of Development. livula-Ithana was Namibian Minister for Youth and Sport in 1994 and Minister of Lands, Resettlement and Rehabilitation from 1996.

From 1975 to 1985, three UN Conferences for Women recognised the worldwide discursive oppression of women (Saavedra 2012). The fourth UN Conference for Women in Beijing, China, in September 1995, reflected on the previous decade and identified critical areas for concern that formed a Platform for Action - 'an agenda for women's empowerment...requiring a strong commitment on the part of governments, international organisations and institutions at all levels' (UN 1995). Sport and physical activity were subsumed under women's health by the UN and generally considered somewhat tangential to concerns such as poverty, literacy, war, genital mutilation, and human trafficking. WSI and the IWG identified the importance of Beijing as a major opportunity to 'recognise that sport is a legitimate topic for discussion on the women's agenda' (Iivula-Ithana, 1995).⁴

Elsewhere, statistics laid bare the inequality for women in the Olympic Movement going into the 1990s. At the 1988 Summer Olympic Games in Seoul, South Korea, women comprised 26% of the athletes. Regarding leadership, 3% was the same total for the number of women presidents or general secretaries of National Olympic Committees as it was for International Federations (Kluka 1993). From 1987 to 1995, the IOC added 54 members, of which only three were women, despite Juan Antonio Samaranch (IOC President 1980-2001) calling the 1981 election of the first two women, Flor Isava Fonseca and Pirjo Häggman, a 'revolution' (Wilson 1996). Pape (2020, p. 100) explains that from 1967-1995, the IOC was 'able to construct leadership as gender-neutral and meritocratic in large part because the inclusion of women athletes under conditions of segregation established women's lesser status and ability as an organisational norm'. As such, the IOC ignored the discursive barriers and challenges encountered by women leaders whilst discounting the privilege afforded to men. Women's leadership in sport is symbolic to advocacy efforts because of the control and power afforded to decision-makers in sport. Throughout the 1980s, research, workshops and conferences

⁴ Sport was first specifically recognised as a human right in 1978 by UNESCO.

heightened the significance of women's underrepresentation as leaders in sport to the extent that it became a core component of advocacy efforts ever since (Fasting 1993a).

The month of September 1995 was very important for women and sport advocacy. The UN published the Beijing Platform for Action and, in doing so, for the first time included three statements explicitly relating to women, physical activity and sport. The same month, the IOC signed the Brighton Declaration and discussed proposals to increase women as decision-makers in the Olympic Movement. Just over a year later, the IOC had a working group, hosted its own World Conference, and produced a resolution on women and sport. Notwithstanding, little is known about how and why these events happened, who was involved, nor the relations between those who were influencing the direction for women and sport advocacy and advances. Hargreaves (1999, p. 466) provides a critical summary of the aims and intentions of the IWG and WSI and the environment they were engaged with but does not analyse their inter-relations nor provide any depth to the changes made by the IOC. It is important to understand how these relations contributed to the political advance of women and sport advocacy.

Therefore, this article focuses on events and activity between May 1994 and October 1996 to explain the reasons for why the UN and the IOC addressed the topic of women and sport, including the significance of advocacy by the IWG and WSI. This article also shows how the composition and resources available to the IWG and WSI enabled and constrained their ability to influence dominant political organisations such as the UN and the IOC, including manoeuvring through formal and informal organisational cultures and processes. Inter-relations between the IWG and WSI in the push for change are explored, including understanding the relationship between NGOs and government-oriented organisations.

118 Social movement studies

Social movement studies comprise a broad field of approaches that are employed to understand social movements. Scholars have discussed whether a movement for women and sport exists (see Author 2019, Hargreaves 1999). Of interest to this article is the use of concepts from the resource mobilisation approach. Formed in the 1970s, its proponents argued how social movements move from interdependent networks of dissatisfied people to co-ordinated movements of mobilised resources aiming to directly influence and lever change. Thus, 'instead of trying to discover what grievance gave rise to which movement, the focus of attention should be upon *how* social movements mobilise successfully' (Chesters and Welsh 2011, p. 7). The ability to measure social movements through units of analysis was kickstarted.

The concept of a social movement organisation (SMO) is used to describe groups that identify with and attempt to implement the goals of a movement, with 'the amount of activity directed toward goal accomplishment being crudely a function of the resources controlled by an organisation' (McCarthy and Zald 1977, p. 1221). The concept 'helps us to understand that movements are a complex system of connected, interdependent organisations' (Della Porta and Diani 2006, p. 139). The IWG and WSI are examples of SMOs.

A political opportunity structure helps to contextualise how movements emerge and impact upon society. The term is used to explore relationships between constantly negotiating political environments. It allows scholars to account for why social movements thrive in some societies and not others by moving the focus of analysis away from social movements and towards the dynamics of society (Klandermans and Staggenborg 2002). In other words, it is 'the relation between social movements and their political environment - the system of alliances and oppositions, and the structure of the state' (Giugni 1998, p. 381). Political structures are not static. The actors that comprise political structures are constantly shifting and changing in

response to ideological objectives (Kriesi 2004, Tilly 1995). As such, Tarrow (1998, p. 71) argues that, 'when institutional access opens, rifts appear within elites, allies become available, and state capacity for repression declines, challengers find opportunities to advance their claims'. During the twentieth century, women's movements diversified to an extent that feminisms gradually influenced state and institutions through equality laws and gender mainstreaming (Staggenborg and Taylor 2005). This article shows how women and sport SMOs negotiated the institutional opportunities and allies accessible to them, though this was not straightforward.

Social movement studies have also explored relations *within* a movement. This is important because advocacy by SMOs is complex and nonlinear. Della Porta and Diani (2006, p. 157) provide an overview of interorganisational relationships and how, even though advocacy efforts may appear desirable and worthwhile, they 'vary markedly in both content and intensity, so we can ask whether SMOs are in competition ... [for] ... essential resources for action by tapping the same (limited) mobilisation potential'. Figure 1 shows various patterns of interorganisational relations among SMOs.

INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

Most of the time, SMOs have *neutral* relations. They have forged their own niche in the movement and are pursuing their aims within sectors different to other SMOs. Even though each SMO has an affinity to the overall goal of the movement, there is little direct cooperation or competition for resources between SMOs here.

Non-competitive cooperation is when different movements and SMOs coalesce around a similar agenda because they have 'sufficient interests and motives for convergence to activate

joint mobilisations' (Della Porta and Diani 2006, p. 158). For the women and sport movement,
SMOs around the world left the Brighton Conference under the consensus of the International
Strategy, and particularly the Brighton Declaration (see Author 2020). They approached their
national governments, ministries and sports federations calling for change. *Competitive cooperation* is when two or more SMOs are keen to work together on a particular
issue or approach an organisation 'but at the same time they find themselves facing stiff mutual

competition for the same support base, and for similar sectors of public opinion whose interests
they wish to represent' (Della Porta and Diani 2006, p. 159). This article identifies how WSI
and the IWG both wished to influence the IOC but were competing against each other whilst
doing so to earn legitimacy for themselves within and outside of the movement.

A lack of cooperation mixed with high levels of competition leads to *factionalism*. Della Porta and Diani (2006) cite examples of highly competitive dynamics between SMOs that eventually leads to absent cooperation and, then, division. The differences between SMOs are emphasised because of their constrained potential to mobilise resources. During the efforts to lobby the IOC and the UN, WSI and the IWG also demonstrated conflict between each other. This was predominantly born out of the increasing formalisation of the IWG that threatened similar aims already established by WSI. Importantly, this strained relationship was never made public to avoid threatening the legitimacy of the SMOs and damaging the cohesiveness of the movement. As such, this example affords an opportunity to manoeuvre within the typology because factionalism does not adequately explain the strained relationship.

Instead, *contentious cooperation* is more apt. This is an extension of the typology that sits between competitive cooperation and factionalism to explain how transnational SMOs in sport succeed in collectively effecting change despite conflicting with one another. It is a more dynamic relationship than one that may lead to division, and is replete with contradictions and

tensions, which in turn has consequences for how groups themselves develop and change. Each
SMO is working toward the end goal of the movement and by cooperating and competing for
resources available, continually negotiate their relationship based upon the differences in their
ideologies.

Introducing contentious coordination enables an exploration of disagreements and challenges to the ideologies and outlooks of each SMO rather than focusing attention on relations about accruing resources. Indeed, the resource mobilisation approach has been critiqued because of its rationality and economically determined foundations (Giugni 1999). The role of politics, identity and emotions by and with movement actors are seen as relative constants when interacting with resources. Thus, it is important to humanise this approach and its useful terms and concepts. Moreover, the method employed for this project meant the experiences of SMO leaders were core to exploring SMO relations.

203 Method

Data was collated as part of a broader project critically examining the origins, development and outcomes of a social movement for women and sport. An interpretive thematic analysis of documents housed in the Anita White Foundation (AWF) International Women and Sport Archive at the University of Chichester were complemented by semi-structured interviews with 24 individuals principally involved with advocacy for women and sport since the 1980s.

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The Archive contains over one hundred EcopHant archival quality storage boxes containing private and public correspondence, meeting minutes and reference papers belonging to donors who were core to advocacy efforts. The Archive was identified in May 2010 as the central repository for historical documentation about the IWG and also contains comprehensive private communications and official publications of WSI (AWF 2020). Two-thirds of the boxes were

analysed over a six-month period, with approximately 450,000 words typed onto a laptop because many documents are not digitised, and included developments and relations within and between sports organisations and transnational, continental and numerous national women and sport SMOs. The remaining boxes were not central to the scope of the research given they include hardcopy research papers of prominent figures in the field, conference materials and delegate packs, and extensive coverage of the development of the Women's Sport Foundation in the UK (since renamed the Women's Sport and Fitness Foundation and now called Women in Sport). Data were chronologically ordered into time-periods to be manageable ahead of an interpretive thematic analysis into higher and lower-order themes based on key terms and concepts from social movement studies. This included: the processes involved with the formulation and development of SMOs; SMO relationships between each other; and, SMO relationships with institutions inside and outside of sport.

Semi-structured interviews with original or co-founding members of WSI, secretariat members or representatives for the IWG in the mid-1990s, and a member of the IOC are most pertinent for this article⁵. As will be shown, these organisations were at the forefront of coordinating and negotiating such advocacy efforts and, for the purposes of this article, their insights and lived experiences are crucial. The key criteria for inclusion was that interviewees were a leader or major representative of any transnational or national women and sport SMO since the 1980s. Interviewees not included in this article took stewardship of these organisations after the time period for this article, represented other SMOs who were not as closely involved with such

⁵ Celia Brackenridge was an academic and was central to the creation of WSI and the national women and sport advocacy organisation in the UK. Anita DeFrantz competed in the Montreal Olympics in 1976, was involved with the Organising Committee of the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics, and was elected as a member of the IOC in 1986. Margaret 'Ann' Hall is an academic who played formative roles in the creation of WSI and the national women and sport advocacy organisation in Canada. Sue Neill was Head of Policy, Research and Planning at Sport Canada and was IWG co-Chair from 1998-2002. Margaret Talbot was an academic and held senior positions in European and international women and sport, recreation and dance advocacy organisations throughout the 1990s. Anita White's designation can be found in footnote three.

discussions, or were academics operating within the advocacy sphere. Interviewees were contacted via email to participate in the study in most instances. The researcher's connections with the AWF were significant here and facilitated access to many key figures, though snowball sampling did result in securing DeFrantz and Hall. Interviews were conducted in-person or via Skype, with the average duration being two hours. Interviewees were asked for reflections, experiences and information about their involvement with SMOs, key events and their thoughts on advocacy for women and sport.

The researcher acknowledges his demographic as a cisgender man when conducting this women-centred research, the impact of men conducting research on women (Oakley, 2005; Stanley and Wise, 1993), and the role of malestream texts that have dominated the social study of sport. Kimmel (1998) and bell hooks (2000) argue that men should contribute to feminist discourse in order to better understand gender relations of power, though acknowledge men should not be central to the discourse. As such, this research amplifies the voices of women engaged in advocacy for women and sport.

Working with the AWF – a women and sport advocacy organisation headed by Anita White – certainly benefitted the legitimacy of the researcher to the interviewees. Nonetheless, as a man with a significant age gap to the women interviewees, the researcher still felt a need to earn their respect. After archival analysis was completed, the researcher often found himself aiding the interviewees in pinpointing dates or events that they had forgotten. A stronger connection resulted during the interviews because his knowledge was recognised by the interviewees. They sometimes spent time richly articulating their version of events too. Many had never been asked to share their histories for an academic purpose in this way before, so reflected that they enjoyed reminiscing on the advances and challenges they had encountered.

Findings

The remainder of this article is ordered into three overlapping sections to show that, despite being broadly collaborative in their efforts, the IWG and WSI exhibited competitive cooperation and contentious cooperation when lobbying the UN and the IOC in the mid-1990s. The first section reveals the extent of the strained relations and why much of the conflict emanated from the characteristics of the SMOs themselves. From mid-1994 to late-1996, there was collaboration on behalf of the IWG to WSI, but scepticism and concern on behalf of WSI to the IWG. The reasons for this emanate from the development of the IWG, the resources available to both SMOs, and how both SMOs competed for relations with powerful sporting and non-sporting bodies. For example, Neill recounted that 'I think one of the things that caused WSI to get their knickers in a knot was the thought that the IWG might become a structured organisation like they are and become yet another organisation that winds up competing for scarce resources'.

The second and third sections show how, despite the strained relations, agents from both SMOs continued the advocacy momentum to lobby for greater rights for women and girls in sport and physical activity in official publications and actions of both the UN and the IOC. Across each section, the significance of the shifting politicisation of women and sport is demonstrated.

276 Competitive and contentious cooperation

The 'IWG' first appears in correspondence in July 1994, when White (1994) tells Darlison how the IWG's lifespan depended upon its effectiveness leading up to the next World Conference in Namibia in 1998 and that the 'crucial and important difference' to WSI was that the IWG was not a membership-based organisation. White (1994) also stated that the IWG's rationale is to coordinate and monitor the implementation of the Strategy agreed at Brighton, including

communicating with a range of sporting and non-sporting organisations, such as the IOC and
the UN. This intention was to be a root cause of tension for WSI over the next year, mainly
because WSI's executive board felt they had stated their position and aims strongly before,
during, and after Brighton, yet the emerging IWG was disrupting their progress and expanding
beyond the remit agreed by conference delegates (Darlison, 1994b). Nevertheless, WSI agreed
to be represented by Darlison as the sole NGO on the IWG.

Brackenridge (interview) believed that because both groups formed in the same year, the IWG 'a little hijacked the foundation of WSI because women who had never heard of either got confused and thought, "oh, which one should I join?" and didn't understand the differences or the objectives'. For example, Darlison had invited Iivula-Ithana onto WSI's advisory board yet did not know she had already accepted co-Chairship of the IWG in preparation for the 1998 Namibia Conference. White (1994) told Darlison that Iivula-Ithana 'did not realise that WSI was a different organisation' and said Iivula-Ithana had asked, "Anyway the difference is almost the same isn't it?"".

Worries that the Iivula-Ithana example was being replicated elsewhere, as well as the uncertain objectives and undetermined timeframe for IWG's existence, concerned WSI. The annual membership fees of \$15-150USD were a key financial resource to WSI and were used to pay for Darlison's travel, office space, and communication costs. Despite making new contacts at Brighton, Darlison (1995b) stated that 'without a strong membership we will simply not survive beyond June [1995] and we will be criticised for being elitist and non-representative'. In contrast, IWG was resourced by the GB Sports Council which was significant for several reasons.

Firstly, an international women and sport SMO had been professionalised. Ann Hall
 (interview), who helped found WSI, acknowledged the IWG was an example of 'whole-change

in sport; we basically moved from a volunteer kitchen-table type organisation to organisations
that are now fully-funded and hire professional staff'. Unlike the origins of national advocacy
groups (see Hall 1995), from its inception the IWG immediately had communications resources
from the Sports Council (office, desk, computer) and 10-20% of the staff time of Andreas
Hansen who acted as general secretary for the IWG.

Secondly, Darlison (1994a) recognised that this resource meant that White carried 'baggage...In other words she has her political masters and must be seen to be doing certain things if the group is to get secretariat funding and ongoing support'. The SMO had not become institutionalised but existed *because of* the politicisation of women and sport throughout the 1980s and early 1990s. In the early 1990s, the Sports Council was developing the concept of sports equity, despite increasing governmental influence toward international excellence and performance discourse (Houlihan and White 2002). As such, the IWG was receiving criticism that it was not going to 'challenge the male-dominated and male-defined nature of sport' (Hall 1996, p. 102). However, White (interview) stated the Sports Council 'permitted the women and sport work even though it was not aligned to their priorities at the time'. For example, Hansen was based in the International Affairs Unit at the Sports Council, whose brief was international relations and increasing the UK's international influence in sport. As such, directing his resource to the IWG adhered to Sports Council expectations of international leadership and excellence.

WSI (1995) openly stated that they were 'simply not interested in "adding more women and stirring", but in working to change sport itself so it becomes more "female friendly" and responsive to women's needs and interests'. WSI's concerns with IWG's development heightened from March-May 1995 during the first of a series of carefully prepared faxes between Darlison and White. Darlison (1995g) argued that decisions taken at the IWG's first annual meeting in Ottawa, Canada, in November 1994 meant the IWG was looking 'much

more like another international women and sport "organisation" than an interim Working Group'. The fear by WSI was that the IWG would approach international organisations, act as a knowledge exchange mechanism, and compete for similar resources (Darlison 1994a). Unfortunately for all involved, a WSI representative invited to the Ottawa meeting was unwell and failed to report its content back to WSI, resulting in 'knowledge deficit' (Darlison 1995h). The result was a confusing and tense period between the SMOs made more significant because WSI were in progressive communication with the IOC and had been to the UN in New York (see next sections).

White (1995b) believed 'a common philosophy, but different emphases and methods can be very positive' between WSI and the IWG, yet Darlison (1995h) argued the duplication of work would be damaging. She bemoans the fact that WSI is membership-based, whilst the IWG pursues representatives to join it, resulting in people not paying for WSI membership because they think both groups replicate each other. Darlison (1995h) bluntly summarises, 'I don't think that it is very productive to continue talking about areas of concern between the IWG and WSI unless they are going to change and I think we both know they are not'.

The issue continued into the next IWG annual meeting in July 1995. It was acknowledged that the IWG would focus on policy and international strategies and WSI would concentrate on issues and implementation of policies, though the division 'cannot be a hermetically sealed one' (IWG 1996). Moreover, the governmental-oriented IWG 'felt that it was necessary to maintain and build-up contact' with international sport federations and agreed to inviting a representative from the IOC onto the IWG. The non-governmental WSI disagreed with this ambition. Darlison relayed her thoughts and experiences of the meeting to the WSI Executive Board and Brackenridge (1996) responded, 'you appear to be fighting a lonely battle against an ever-expanding and well-resourced IWG. I think [IWG] are progressing on the basis of

optimistic pragmatism – in other words, they'll keep going "til the bubble bursts and/or the
money runs out".

The Brighton Declaration's traceability to the IWG was also not lost on Darlison (1995k) who believed the IWG were "playing smart" and getting a great deal of publicity and recognition by "monitoring and coordinating" and getting others (e.g. regional governments) to do the actual work'. Indeed by 1996 the Declaration was becoming part of the global language of sport with 51 national and international organisations having endorsed it (IWG 1996).

The impact of resources on the relationship between WSI and IWG was intensifying. Darlison (1995k) gradually became aware that 'having those sorts of resources makes a big difference'. Over the next year, being an NGO was both a blessing and a curse to WSI. The following sections will show how WSI managed to directly impact both the UN and IOC whilst progressing their issue-based task forces. But in doing so, it spread its initiatives so wide that in November 1995, Darlison (1995n) claimed 'the workload has been full-time for much of the time, but the pay well below the poverty line'.

Conversely, the thrust of the IWG's advocacy efforts were due to their representative links. It was indicative of the IWG's development and WSI's problems that the support of the Sports Council enabled White and Hansen to attend and contribute to conferences, workshops and meetings in Canada, Colombia, Egypt and Indonesia during this period. However, correspondence within the Sports Council throughout early-1995 shows that there was 'a general lack of progress since December [1994] due to pressing commitments' in White and Hansen's day-jobs, signifying that the resources were not equitable to the workload (IWG 1995a).

The relationship between the two SMOs during this time was 'difficult' (Brackenridge interview) and 'delicate' (Neill interview) but demonstrates how social movement

development is not linear and involves challenges between SMOs. It is clear from correspondence that WSI were unhappy at the IWG's development. Brackenridge (interview) called their overlap 'fuzzy'. Yet White (interview) acknowledged that whilst 'there were some tensions in relation to establishing our legitimacy with the UN and IOC, our relationship was generally collaborative'. The tensions were kept private and Neill (interview) agreed that there was a strong mutual respect for the work each was achieving. These comments are demonstrative of contentious cooperation given that there were 'tensions' between the cooperative efforts of each SMO as they competed to establish themselves in an emerging political environment. The structural organisation of each SMO enabled and constrained them in various ways. Both WSI and IWG had socio-organisational resources through their networks and contacts, but crucially IWG had greater material resources through its financial dependency on the Sports Council (Edwards and McCarthy 2004). This also meant IWG had to cater to the olicy Sports Council's ideology and direction.

The UN Beijing Platform for Action

Producing the Beijing Platform for Action was a complicated process. A UN governmental Platform for Action was formed from the 39th session (15th March-4th April 1995, New York, USA) of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) - "the principal global intergovernmental body exclusively dedicated to the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women' (UN Women 2020a). Here, UN member states, NGOs and regions reported on the status of women and considered ten critical areas of concern identified by the UN (e.g. the persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women). At the accompanying NGO Forum to the session in New York, an NGO Platform for Action was considered. It was based on the UN governmental version but had many amendments, additions and redefinitions resulting from regional NGO forums around the world. The NGO Platform for Action would

be used to lobby the UN governmental Platform for Action in the hope that the Final Draft
going to the Beijing Conference in September 1995 was as suitable as possible. Before these
events, sport and physical activity had never been on any UN Women's agenda. This section
outlines how WSI, the IWG and national SMOs manoeuvred the topics into major non-sport
discourse for the first time.

WSI wrote a comprehensive report to the UN in November 1994 and were granted NGO official status and accreditation for the Beijing NGO Forum soon after. The IWG secretariat had applied to attend but experienced constraints due to its governmental relations. The UK government did not have a Ministry nor Minister for Women. As such, the lack of 'a convenient single point of focus and an authority on behalf of women's issues' meant that 'coordinating' Sports Council activities on women in sport with the rest of the Government is more complicated' (Public Policy Unit 1995). The Sports Council were advised that their language needed to be consistent with government policies on women and those of the delegation being sent to Beijing, led by the Department for Employment. The correspondence ends with a recommendation that 'it may be helpful to remind Employment Ministers of the Prime Minister's interest in promoting competitive sport as an essential tool for instilling "discipline, commitment and courage" in young people' (Public Policy Unit 1995). Such a narrow view of sport for women and girls had been critiqued in literature (Hargreaves 1994) and explored at length at the Brighton Conference.

424 The NGO Forum and CSW Session in New York

425 National women and sport SMOs in Canada and Australia had lobbied their national
426 governments to ensure sport and physical activity were included in their governmental reports
427 to the UN (IWG 1995b). In Canada's case, this resulted in a statement getting through the

Regional Forum into the Draft NGO Platform for Action under the strategic objective of
Health. The organisational advocacy undertaken since the early 1980s in Canada had led to
national recognition of the barriers encountered by women in sport and were redefined under
broader objectives to suit global discourse for women generally (Ferree and Mueller 2004).

Darlison's (1995f) comprehensive reflections on the NGO Forum in New York provide a unique perspective on the political manoeuvrings undertaken to get three statements to sport and physical activity into the Final Draft of the Platform for Action. Darlison reflects she was one of 1,700 women at the Forum, though only she, Marg McGregor (the executive-director of the Canadian women and sport SMO) and later Orie Rogo-Manduli (Chair of a Kenyan women and sport SMO) were lobbying for women, sport and physical activity to be an issue of concern. All realised that sport was regarded as a luxury in many countries, whereas physical activity could be linked to empowerment, human rights, and health which were more easily understood, despite not being a reality for all. Their dialogue when lobbying NGOs changed to account for this, especially as 'we were competing for priority with war, genital mutilation, trafficking and prostitution, amongst others' (Darlison 1995f).

443 Darlison (1995f) admitted that utilising her governmental (Womensport Australia) and NGO 444 (WSI) expertise was 'an advantage'. She also reflected that lobbying with McGregor had, 'at 445 the risk of sounding unduly modest (Joke!!!) worked miracles and we ended up managing to 446 get two more statements in the Draft NGO Platform for Action' (Darlison 1995f). The 447 document still needed be accepted by the NGO Forum, by the CSW, and then pass through 448 discussions to determine whether any amendments, revisions, or additions were to be included 449 in the governmental Platform for Action.

450 Most NGOs did not have consultative status to influence the CSW but were given accreditation 451 to attend the 39th session as observers, including WSI. However, Darlison managed to secure

a pass and lobbied governmental delegations. She also spent much time with Iivula-Ithana (1995) who, whilst representing the Namibian government in one capacity and IWG in another, made an impassioned speech on the topic. Iivula-Ithana had commented on the Draft governmental Platform for Action and Darlison (1995f) used UN computers to amend the document and got it photocopied onto Namibian government-headed paper so that it would be placed on the desks of all government delegates. Darlison (1995e) was told by a representative of the European Commission that the amendments would have more chance of being accepted if they were tabled by a non-Western country. Indeed, Namibia successfully tabled two new statements (Health and Education) and added a sentence to one other (Health). The Brighton Declaration is briefly mentioned but it is uncertain what influence it had. Darlison (1995e) reflected the conference in New York was 'crazy' and that, despite creating the wording for much of the document that livula-Ithana helped put forward, 'you can be sure that WSI will receive absolutely no credit for all of this and at one level it doesn't matter as long as the issue gets up but it's not a very cooperative working environment'. Darlison's comment also belies the continuingly strained relationship between WSI and IWG at this time.

She had been surprised to hear the IWG described as an 'intergovernmental group' after Iivula-Ithana was given special dispensation, meaning she had to 'sit in a special place on the floor and not with her government delegation' (Darlison 1995f). The description enhanced WSI concerns that the IWG's role was expanding. Moreover, White's (1995a) commendation of how WSI and the IWG had worked together also made WSI sense that people were not grasping just how important Darlison's and McGregor's political manoeuvrings had been to ensure either Namibia or Kenya tabled the statements (Brackenridge 1995a). Darlison's comments signify contentious cooperation between leading SMOs who were contributing to the ultimate 'end-goal' of the movement but were irked at the lack of intra-movement recognition (Della Porta and Diana 2006).

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2 3 4	477			
5 6 7	478	The NGO Forum and UN Conference for Women in Beijing		
8 9 10	479	Nearly 30,000 non-governmental activists attended the NGO Forum that accompanied the		
11 12	480	fourth UN Conference for Women in Beijing (UN Women 2020b). There was more focus on		
13 14	481	women, sport and physical activity compared to the New York NGO Forum. Workshops were		
15 16 17	482	hosted by the IOC and an American SMO, the Women's Sports Foundation, for example. This		
18 19	483	meant other SMO personnel were in attendance and enabled Darlison (1995l) to meet with IOC		
20 21 22	484	member, Anita DeFrantz. As such, more delegates were made aware of the benefits of physical		
22 23 24	485	activity and sport for women and girls.		
25 26	486	The Beijing Conference itself was 'a different ball game' (Darlison 19951). Governmental		
27 28 29	487	representatives from 189 countries engaged with complex bureaucracy and formal constraints		
30 31	488	which meant that any lobbying and amendments to the final document were difficult. Attempts		
32 33 34	489	at late revisions were unsuccessful but women and sport SMOs were generally pleased that the		
34 35 36	490	following statements were included in the Beijing Platform for Action (UN 1995) ⁶ :		
37 38	491			
39 40				
41 42 43	492	Strategic objective – Education and Training of Women		
43 44 493 B.4. Develop non-discriminat 45		B.4. Develop non-discriminatory education and training.		
46 47	494	Paragraph 83 (m): Provide accessible recreational and sports facilities and		
48 49 50 51 52	495	establish and strengthen gender-sensitive programmes for girls and women of		
	496	all ages in education and community institutions and support the advancement		
53 54 55	497	of women in all areas of athletics and physical activity, including coaching,		
56 57 58 59		⁶ In addition to the statement paragraphs, there was also recognition under the <i>Women in Power and Decision-making</i> strategic objective that the 'underrepresentation of women in decision-making positions in the areas of art, culture, sports, the media, education, religion and the law have prevented women from having a		

of art, culture, sports, the media, education, religion and the law have prevented women from having a significant impact on many key institutions' (UN 1995, para. 183).

1 2				
3 4	498	training and administration, and as participants at the national, regional and		
5	499	international levels		
6 7	455			
8 9	500			
10 11				
12	501	Strategic objective – Women and Health		
13 14	502			
15 16	502	C.2. Strengthen preventive programmes that promote women's health.		
17 18	503	Paragraph 108 (f): Create and support programmes in the educational system, in		
19	504	the workplace and in the community to make apportunities to participate in		
20 21	504	the workplace and in the community to make opportunities to participate in		
22 23	505	sport, physical activity and recreation available to girls and women of all ages		
24	506	on the same basis as they are made available to men and boys		
25 26				
27 28	507			
29 30				
31	508	Strategic Objective – The Girl Child		
32 33	509	L.4. Eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development and		
34 35				
36 37	510	training.		
38	511	Paragraph 280 (d): Promote the full and equal participation of girls in		
39 40				
41 42	512	extracurricular activities, such as sports, drama and cultural activities.		
43 44	513			
45	010			
46 47	514	The statements were a culmination of decades of lobbying intended to demonstrate the		
48 49	515	significance of access and involvement in sport and physical activity for women and girls.		
50				
51 52	516	Political opportunity structures had shifted to recognise such actions as part of broader		
53 54	517	discussions about empowerment, the development and strengthening of educational		
55 56	518	programmes, and the elimination of discrimination against women and girls. Such work has		
57				
58 59	519	continued in the sport for development sector (see Chawansky and Hayhurst 2015).		
60				

Similar to the Brighton Declaration, the Beijing Platform for Action was a globally agreed document that was not a legally binding treaty or convention. However, it was a 'very strong moral imperative used in conjunction with a range of other treaties' (Darlison 1995l) and thus was another symbolic, material resource for the movement (Edwards and McCarthy 2004). This was also at a time of growing momentum for the use of sport in development agendas and towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals (Kidd 2008). Further insight is required to understand the role and influence at this time of agents in the development sector upon sport, and vice versa, when it comes to advancing rights for women and girls. What is known, however, is that unlike the close relationship between the IWG and the Brighton Declaration, the efforts of SMOs such as WSI is harder to link to the Platform for Action because of the influence of multiple stakeholders. September 1995 was also the same month that the IOC introduced leadership targets for women and sport, as will be explored in the next section.

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534 The IOC leadership targets, Working Group and Conference

535 Background

According to Pape (2020, p. 99), previous attempts to address unequal leadership in the Olympic Movement in the 1970s and 1980s were led by individuals, rather than 'a sustained push', and did not result in meaningful action until 'international shifts in gender politics' led to firmer policies (2020, p. 101). However, advances by the IOC are difficult to address because 'there are relatively few documented and analysed records of women's experiences within the system' (Talbot 2000, p. 4). This section demonstrates how the IOC were influenced to establish an IOC Women and Sport Working Group, a World Conference on Women and Sport, and leadership targets for women during a short period in the mid-1990s.

The IOC met to discuss prominent issues for the Olympic Movement at its Centennial Congress in September 1994 in Paris, France. Fasting (1994 emphasis in original) represented WSI and reflected that the Congress was a male-dominated, 'gender-blind ... [and] ... extremely depressive environment'. There were few women speakers and women were 'very seldom mentioned in any of the speeches. *If* they are it is by male journalists or male athletes'.

549 The opportunities to network led Fasting (1994) to speak to female IOC members such as Mary 550 Glen-Haig and Häggman and realise 'the only chance for change is that the pressure from 551 outside becomes very strong'. This was despite Glen-Haig (1994) writing to the IOC President 552 celebrating the Brighton Conference and lobbying for the IOC to sign the Brighton Declaration. 553 Samaranch (1994) responded positively, indicating that the Centennial Congress would be an 554 'excellent opportunity' to share the work.

In the plenary session of the Congress, Samaranch stated 'the participation of women at all levels of sports organisation must be encouraged' (IOC 1994a, p. 400). Fasting (1994) called this 'very interesting – he is smart'. Two of the 61 points included in the final Congress Report concerned women, which surprised Fasting (1994) because 'this wasn't said very much during those four days but perhaps "someone" in the programme-committee thought it was important'. One of the points stated that 'women's accession to positions as sports leaders must be encouraged and accelerated' (IOC 1994b, p. 5).

Over the following months, Darlison (1994c, 1995a) continued to lobby the IOC and position
WSI as a group which, despite being a representative on the IWG and also a distinct separate
organisation, could aid the IOC with regard to its enhanced focus on women and sport. Indeed,
a full-page feature on the Brighton Conference in the Olympic Review – the official publication
of the Olympic Movement – is notable because the lead contact for further information about
the International Strategy are WSI (IOC 1994c). This demonstrates how WSI had manoeuvred

itself after Brighton, yet may have also contributed to confusion from outsiders between it and the IWG. Hansen (1995) called the coverage 'excellent', WSI as a contact point 'surprising' and the whole scenario as potentially 'embarrassing' to the IWG should they contact the IOC. The lobbying was benefitted by Darlison's relationship with Kevan Gosper; a Vice-President of the IOC from 1990-1994. Gosper was her former boss and helped to broker conversations. In February 1995, Darlison (1995c) was told by Gosper that WSI communications had been received 'extremely positively' and that a Centennial Congress Study Commission had been established to study and follow-up the Congress outcomes and 'I believe that out of this, it is just possible that a Commission of Women may be set up'. The straightforward, constructive lobbying appealed to the IOC and, a month later, Fekrou Kidane (1995), the Director of Cooperation at the IOC, told Darlison, 'the only concerned and very constructive organisation on women and sport is yours'. He also recommended to the IOC Executive Board that it should cooperate with WSI and, as editor-in-chief of the Olympic Review, praised WSI for 'moving intelligently in the right direction ... to ... discover and tackle subjects of importance for women in the areas of sport and physical activity' (IOC 1995a, p. 60). The IWG had sent communications to Kidane but received little response.

The progress by the IOC should not be exaggerated, despite platitudes by Samaranch continuing in meetings. After praising WSI, the following pages of the Olympic Review (IOC 1995a, p. 64-67) listed the twelve newly co-opted members from the Centennial Congress in Paris; all of whom were men. Indeed, Darlison (1995d) bemoaned to Kidane that many women had 'given up in frustration at what they see as the IOC's intransigence and lack of action when it comes to promoting the advancement of women in sport'.

590 This 'long and a sensitive process' (Darlison, 1995g) of relationship-building took place during
591 Darlison's preparation and involvement in the NGO Forum in New York, and the strained

relations with the IWG. In May 1995, Darlison (1995i) issued a stern warning to the IWG Secretariat that communications with the IOC had taken six months and she 'did not want anything to jeopardise the hard work', including cooperation with the IWG; signifying the strength of contention by WSI to the IWG. At its annual meeting shortly after, the IWG stated it would approach the IOC and International Federations to become representatives, confirming the initial thoughts of WSI's executive board that the IWG was 'untrustworthy' (Darlison 1995j).

Leadership targets

The Centennial Congress Study Commission met over several meetings from 1994-1996. Talbot (2000) obtained the minutes of these meetings which were the founding discussions for the IOC leadership targets. She states that 'it was clear that I was reading illustrations of struggle for and resistance to gender equity in the Olympic Movement, which are rarely available'. When interviewed, Talbot said 'I got riveted because it actually showed how tough it was for Anita DeFrantz and how leading people were quite resistant'. DeFrantz (interview) said she was 'an outsider and once I got inside I worked on making sure there was sports for women'. She was an advocate within an institution other SMOs were trying to influence.

Pape (2020, p. 92) identified that in the decades preceding the 1990s, 'IOC leaders increasingly resisted recognising the absence of women from their ranks as discriminatory, preferring instead to frame leadership in the organisation as based on the neutral criteria of merit and ability'. According to Talbot (2000), the minutes broadly testify to this continued practice. One recorded dismissal of the potential targets by an IOC Member was because 'a quota of 10% women was not possible for developing countries ... It was difficult to find women who were able or willing to take up positions in African countries'. Another dismissal, by Isava Fonseca,

is that women 'were merely not interested in playing a role in sports leadership because of other demands placed upon them' (Talbot 2000). Due to the strength of opposition by vocal IOC Members, at a meeting in April 1995 DeFrantz 'agreed to drop the call' for targets (Talbot 2000). Gosper, who was in contact with Darlison throughout this period, re-proposed the idea but it was rejected and 'the issue appeared to be closed' (Talbot 2000). It was not until September 1995 that the issue re-appeared. Talbot (2000, interview) stated that the IOC President personally intervened in a meeting and completely redirected discussions toward women's participation in sports governing bodies. Samaranch suggested the Olympic Movement introduce a progressive target that 'at least 10% of seats on decision-making bodies were occupied by women in the year 2000 and 20% by the year 2005 and hoped a proposal could be with him by the end of the week'. In subsequent discussions, DeFrantz focussed on the importance of the 'at least' part of Samaranch's statement and there was reference to the Brighton Declaration, but it is unclear to what extent. Talbot (2000) surmised: 'It was very clear that the IOC President's personal intervention had been crucial. What is not known, however, is how he was informed of the lack of support for the issue being shown by the Commission, or the ways in which it was decided that his intervention should be made'. The IOC was working closely with the UN and Samaranch was due to speak at the UN General Assembly in New York a few months later. Thus Talbot's (interview) assertion that 'I think Samaranch knew the time was now, you know, that if the IOC didn't show some kind of commitment they would be even more criticised' rings true. In a feature about the Beijing

Conference earlier that month, the Olympic Review states that, 'for its part, the IOC

acknowledges that it will have to work much harder to further women's integration into its

technical and administrative structures' (IOC 1995b, p. 55). Moreover, the Brighton

Declaration was gaining traction globally and attendees at the Brighton Conference, which included representatives of National Olympic Committees and International Federations, had returned home and lobbied for actions like meetings, workshops and conferences (IWG 1998). The political opportunity structure of sport was shifting slightly, albeit significantly, away from male-dominated hegemony and toward greater recognition of, and accountability for, the inclusion of women and girls. As a result of the above, Samaranch and the IOC *had* to start changing. The IOC endorsed the Brighton Declaration that same month (IWG 1998).

The proposal for targets to be introduced by the IOC was announced a few weeks later in October 1995. The most powerful organisation in sport had, in principle, committed to making sure that at least a tenth of all leadership roles would be staffed by women. Moreover, the Olympic Charter would be amended to explicitly include reference to action needed on women in sport ⁷. Upon hearing the news, Brackenridge (1995b) admitted to 'nearly falling off her breakfast stool'. Darlison (1995m) confirmed the news in more detail after receiving information from Kidane and speaking to Gosper, who told her 'the fight was long and hard to get this modest increase and that the attitude and the work of WSI has been instrumental in getting them this far'. WSI were increasingly well-connected within the IOC, primarily because of the purposive commitment shown to the SMO by its core women (Taylor 1989), including Darlison (1995n) who was by this point working 'below the poverty line'.

There is a general sense through correspondence that the targets were 'lower than what we would have liked' (Darlison 1995o), and even 'paltry' (Darlison 1995m), but that they could have considerable impact and very positive consequences. Indeed, White (interview) recognised them as an important first step as 'the IOC are a very, very powerful voice in international sport so to have them singing from the same hymn-sheet so to speak was

⁷ The addition under rule 2 of the Olympic Charter was ratified in July 1996 by the 105th IOC Session in Atlanta, USA (IOC 1996a).

absolutely great'. Talbot (interview) added that DeFrantz 'was actually quite brave to push it
through ... you have to admire her tenacity in pushing it'. DeFrantz (interview) herself was
'delighted' that the targets were passed but was reserved regarding her role in the process:

666 'You know, from time to time because it is an organisation where people can 667 speak their mind we have met with some resistance and again sometimes we 668 move backwards instead of forwards but over time I think the IOC has become 669 very comfortable with the notion that we have to do more for women'.

Her statement complements Talbot's (2000) assertions that DeFrantz's 'public presentation of
the targets has (to my knowledge) never reflected these dynamics, or her own part in them;
they are presented as unproblematic in their production, if not in their achievement'. The lack
of acknowledgment masks the complex realities of gendered practice and formulating policy
in sport decision-making (Evans and Pfister 2020, Houlihan and Lindsey 2013).

Y.C.

676 Working Group and Conference

According to Darlison (19951, 1996b), who had met DeFrantz in Beijing during the UN Conference for Women in September 1995, DeFrantz did not want an IOC Women and Sport Commission because she thought it further marginalised women in the IOC and would lead to 'all issues to do with women only ever being dumped in its lap'. DeFrantz (interview) echoed similar sentiments when interviewed decades later: 'I didn't believe ever that it should be a Commission exclusively to work on women's promotion because I believe that the IOC needed to always be working for the promotion of all humanity'. She got her wish in December 1995 when a Working Group was established 'to advise the IOC Executive Board and its President on the measures which should be taken to enhance women's participation in sport and in its administrative structures' (IWG 1998, p. 16). The movement had another SMO working toward

a similar end-goal, this time principally within the Olympic Movement; a structure very
different to those WSI and the IWG were operating in. Its first meeting was in March 1996 in
Lausanne, Switzerland.

Darlison (1996a) was invited by Samaranch to become a member of the Working Group and informed WSI's Executive Board of its 'fascinating' composition and membership: 'obviously very carefully picked to suit several IOC purposes'. She continues that '[WSI] needs to have an influence on this body so if you know anyone, let's do some lobbying – fast because you can bet the IWG and other bodies will do the same' (Darlison 1996a). She was fearing a repetition of events that occurred after the IWG was formed. However, Hansen (1996) found it 'somewhat disappointing' that it was not informed of the creation of the group or invited to join it, especially due to Darlison's involvement. He ends by acknowledging 'it is good news that the IOC has given the issue such high and public priority. We can't work against them, so let's work with them'. This is further evidence for the competitive relations between WSI and the IWG throughout the IOC developments, at a time when WSI was 'simply out of funds' (Darlison 1996b) and the IWG were positively affecting global activities.

Nonetheless, the relations did not derail the intentions of both SMO's to lever change. White (1996) and Darlison (1996c) recognised the importance of the first IOC World Conference on Women and Sport to their SMOs but, more significantly, as a pivotal moment to form a critical mass to influence the IOC. Planning for the Conference occurred from February 1996⁸ and included session proposals developed by a range of women and sport SMOs eager to influence the IOC (Darlison 1996b). Darlison (1996c) wanted the mass 'to stand by their principles and not be either frightened, or seduced by, their association with the IOC'. Darlison, DeFrantz, Fasting, and White were all among the speakers and Kidane was the Conference Director.

⁸ DeFrantz (interview) and White (interview) both acknowledged how the IOC and IWG World Conferences were staggered to avoid competition.

White (1996) reflected afterward that 'it seemed to me (and others) that the IOC had seen the Conference as an end in itself' and had not considered actions that may result. She praised 'pressure from the floor and behind the scenes', particularly by a small group of individuals, including herself and Darlison, who 'worked hard to ensure that the Conference came up with a comprehensive but realistic set of proposals and resolutions'. The Resolution produced from the Conference (IOC 1996b) was strongly influenced by collaborative efforts between personnel from women and sport SMOs such as WSI and the IWG. It contains seventeen points which range from requesting that women and sport commissions be formed at national and international level to urging the IOC to discontinue the process of gender verification during the Olympic Games. Significantly, the document served as another important recognition that women were subordinated in sport and that change needed to occur. One of the more immediate changes was that DeFrantz became an IOC Vice-President in 1997. The pace of progress by the IOC was also not lost on Darlison (1996c) who stated that in just over one year, the IOC had managed to 'somehow be able to elect more women than they have since women were first on the IOC. Amazing what you can do if you try – or if you have to'.

Darlison (1996d) believed that WSI was 'the only' SMO able to offer leadership and guidance at the international level after the Conference. However, WSI was by now critically short of resources and went on to suffer from scant communication between its voluntary executive committee until late-1997. It has since been restructured a few times, continued to achieve success with its task forces (WSI, 2020), notably wrote an issue of Women2000 and Beyond on women and sport for the UN Division for the Advancement of Women, which was published to promote the goals of the Beijing Platform For Action (UNDAW 2007), and attained United Nations Expert Status with the Economic Social Council in 2011. The IWG has hosted quadrennial World Conferences on Women and Sport and continued to influence governments and NGO networks for women and sport ever since. In 2014, the Brighton Declaration was

updated by the IWG to become the Brighton Plus Helsinki Declaration to better reflect
contemporary issues and advances within existing topics for women and girls in sport and
physical activity (IWG 2018). The Declaration has been signed by nearly six hundred
organisations (IWG, 2020).

The IOC Women and Sport Working Group kept statistics and monitored change (see Henry
and Robinson 2010), hosted leadership seminars and advised the Executive Board until the
third IOC World Conference on Women and Sport in Marrakech, Morocco, in March 2004,
when it eventually became the Commission for Women and Sport (DeFrantz interview).
DeFrantz (interview) blamed herself for the length of time this transformation took:

'I kind of stuck with having it called a Working Group until finally I realised
that was just my silliness and it needed to be called a Commission because inhouse at the IOC, Commissions have more stature. So for too long it was called
a Working Group but again, that was all me! It always had the stature and
structure of a Commission but it was called something different'.

In 2018, the IOC published a Gender Equality Review report to address the continued unequal gendered representation, funding, portrayal, leadership and organisational cultures throughout the Olympic Movement (IOC 2018). Further insight is needed into the advocacy behind this document, given that linear development and progress toward gender equality are presumed throughout the publication.

Summary

This article has sought to bring attention to May 1994 to October 1996 – a significant period of
political progress for women and sport. The mid-1990s saw outcomes of decades of advocacy

at national, regional and international levels for women and sport. In just over a year, the women
and sport movement had its own self-produced resource in the Brighton Declaration, could
leverage to their advantage the three statements for women and girls' participation in sport and
physical activity in the UN Beijing Platform for Action, and saw the most powerful sport
organisation amend its Charter, introduce targets for women leaders, create a Working Group,
and host its own World Conference with resultant Resolutions.

These advances were not solely down to the SMOs named in this article, but their role was significant. The IWG was predominantly comprised of governmental representatives and support, yet also welcomed NGO representation from WSI. Led by a core group of academics and sport practitioners, WSI felt aggrieved at the growing development of the IWG, fearing it could harm their own ability to accrue, use and mobilise resources needed for advocacy in their formative period. The IWG were coordinating an International Strategy and, by inviting WSI to become a representative, signified a hierarchy between them that WSI were displeased with.

Analysis of correspondence at the time and interviews conducted decades later acknowledge multiple relations between the IWG and WSI occurring at once. In their broader advocacy toward the end-goal of the movement, non-competitive cooperation defined their relationship. But when it came to clarifying their *modus operandi* and lobbying significant constituencies such as the UN and, particularly, the IOC, the relationship was competitive, cooperative and contentious all at once. This points to the need for a different term to define this dynamic relationship; one of contentious cooperation.

Collaboration between the IWG and WSI may not have always been harmonious but was crucial
to ensure the momentum for change continued. Their similarities and differences defined them
and enabled a collective capacity to pursue policy change on several fronts that might not have
happened if there was a single SMO. Their interdependency, and different resources and

capacities, meant they succeeded collectively in instigating change despite their contentious cooperation. Moreover, the development of WSI and the IWG occurred in relation to a shifting global discourse toward both 'women', and 'women in sport'. The growing politicisation of women and sport as an issue added significant credence to their lobbying efforts because it provided SMOs with politically legitimised resources for activism. WSI (1996) heralded how women's previously marginal voice in sport was now central to policy and social change going forward in sport.

The advance by the IOC in the mid-1990s raised consciousness about women in sport in the most powerful and dominant sport structures globally. But among the interviewees was a feeling that the IOC was reacting to the work of *their* movement rather than being proactive toward the issue. For example, Neill (interview) said 'there had been so much good done by the IWG, the fact [was] that the IOC totally didn't recognise that work and the world of women and sport began when the IOC decided to do something about it'. This quote is indicative of the complexity of efforts by multiple agencies to drive social change. Further insights are needed into the lobbying efforts for social change in sport, including the relations between adherents and adversaries.

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	Cooperation	Lack of cooperation
Competition for similar constituency	Competitive cooperation	Factionalism
Lack of competition	Non-competitive cooperation	Neutrality
Figure 1 Patterns of interorg	anisational relations among SMC)s (Dalla Porta and Diani 2006
p. 157)		os (Dena 1 oria ana Diam 2000,