

Examining the influence of skin tone on playing position in the Premier and English Football Leagues

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Abstract

Within the present manuscript we explore the role of skin tone on playing position within English football's top four professional leagues. Player data (N = 4,515) was collected across five seasons (2010-2015). Results indicate that in general, darker skin toned players are more likely to operate within peripheral rather than central positions. Using both one and two-way ANOVAs, results suggest significant differences between skin tone and individual playing positions. Between league differences were, however, non-significant. Although darker skin toned players are still more likely to occupy peripheral positions, the situation is more nuanced than first thought. Instead of segregating players by central versus peripheral roles, it appears that darker skin toned players occupy positions associated with athleticism. In contrast, lighter skin toned players appear to fulfill roles requiring organization and communication skills.

Keywords: Racial stacking; Racial Stereotypes; Racial Stratification; Soccer; Positional Segregation

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Lapchick, Dominguez, Haldane, Loomer, & Pelts (2014) suggest that although coaches are less likely to assign position based on race than they were in the 1980s, they are still, in part, basing their decisions on outdated notions of social Darwinism. Although epidemiological differences between light and dark skin toned individuals are often anecdotally cited (Entine, 2000), the notion of increased skin pigmentation improving athlete physiology or performance is absurd (Kerr, 2010). Instead, variation in physiological capabilities is largely derived from the environment in which an individual was born into, rather than the tone of one's skin (Harpalani, 2004). For example, although Kenyan athletes have become synonymous with long-distance running, it is not their skin-tone that dictates the level of performance. Instead, the Kenyan people's success in this field is far more likely to be the result of how they have adapted to their environment and the way in which distance running is revered socially within their culture (Larsen, 2003). As such it is highly unlikely that the tone of one's skin or any other physical characteristic used to define race has any discernible bearing on the ability to run long distances. As Harpalani (2004) suggests, race is neither a genetically nor biologically sound paradigm, but rather a social construct based on Western society's obsession with superficial physical features.

Despite these examples, skin tone and race are still regularly referred to within sport as having an influence on sporting performance and playing characteristics (Furley & Dicks, 2014; Rasmussen, Esgate & Turner, 2005). Within the media, for example, it is commonplace for broadcasters to discuss darker skin toned players as naturally athletic and lighter skin toned players as intelligent (Buffington & Fraley, 2011, Eastman & Billings 2001; Stone, Lynch, Sjomeling, & Darley, 1997). Recently, former footballer turned pundit, Mark Lawrenson, made

24 the following statement about Middlesbrough Football Club's Adama Traore: "When he has to
25 think about things, he struggles, [but] when it's instinctive, it's easy" (Finch, 2016, November
26 21). Although such comments may at first appear benign, if an individual repeatedly suggests
27 that certain characteristics are representative of a social group (e.g., that darker skin toned
28 players lack game intelligence), this suggests that stereotypes are being drawn upon in the
29 evaluative process. According to Koch, Sackett, and D'Mello (2014) such stereotypes are
30 cognitive shortcuts that represent a set of qualities that are thought to represent the essence of
31 group membership. In other words, stereotypes are the typical picture that quickly comes to mind
32 when considering a specific social group (Lippmann 1922). However, the speed in which
33 stereotypes can be recalled often comes at the expense of considering individual qualities
34 (Macrae, Milne & Bodenhausen, 1994).

35 Beyond reflecting general beliefs about the traits which characterize typical group
36 membership, stereotypes also provide contextual information around social groups (e.g., the
37 social roles) and generate expectations about group members' anticipated behavior (Dovidio,
38 Hewstone, Glick, & Esses, 2010). When applied at a group level, stereotypes often result in the
39 systematic and favorable evaluation of one's own membership group (i.e., in-group) as opposed
40 to those outside who fall outside of own group membership (i.e., outgroup). Steele (1997)
41 suggests that when an occupant of a social group becomes aware of a negative stereotype related
42 to the task being undertaken, their performance may become impeded. Steele and Aronson
43 (1995) first defined this phenomenon as 'stereotype threat' and suggest that it is the by-product
44 of one's reduced working memory capacity. Similar to the phenomenon of 'choking' when under
45 pressure, scholars believe stereotype threats are the result of heightened attention to tasks
46 typically completed instinctively (Beilock, Rydell, & McConnell., 2007; Schmader & Johns,

47 2003) or by a lowering of effort (Stone, 2002). Stereotype threat may also lead to self-stacking,
48 by which the pressure to conform to stereotypes influences the individual's choice of playing
49 position (Anderson, 2010). Eitzen (2016) argues that stacking refers to situations in which
50 minority group members are relegated to specific team roles and excluded from competing for
51 others. Consequently, stacking can lead to a form of racial stratification, whereby players are
52 categorized based on the tone of their skin. Within soccer these stereotypical beliefs may lead
53 coaches to conclude that such individuals are more suited to peripheral (i.e., full back and wide
54 midfield) positions. In contrast, players of a lighter skin tone are viewed as creative, intelligent
55 and ultimately, more suited for central (i.e., goalkeeper, central defense, central midfield and
56 forward) positions.

57 **Prior literature and the need for further exploration.**

58 Given the documented influence of skin tone on playing positions within sport, it is
59 somewhat surprising that only limited research has explored this phenomenon outside of North
60 America (Furley & Dicks, 2014). Although the consequences of racial stereotyping have been
61 explored extensively in basketball and American football (for a review see Coakley, 2010), only
62 Melnick (1988) and Norris and Jones (1998) have empirically examined the aforementioned
63 processes within English football. Although the previously mentioned research has undoubtedly
64 advanced our understanding, both studies are somewhat outdated and have methodological
65 limitations that cannot be overlooked. For example, Melnick (1988) gathered player information
66 by contacting the public relations officers of 22-football clubs and requested that they provide a
67 list of their players names (n = 468), primary playing position, and race. It is worth noting here
68 that by 'race', Melnick appeared to solely refer to the tone of skin as no further physical, social,
69 or ancestral characteristics were requested. Using a playing position x race (i.e., binary skin tone)

70 chi-square, Melnick's results suggest an under representation of darker skin toned players in
71 midfield and goalkeeping positions, an overrepresentation in attacking positions, and equal
72 representation in defensive positions. Next, Norris and Jones (1998) evaluated 10 pre-recorded
73 Premier League games before assembling squad information (n = 1937) for each of the 92-
74 football leagues clubs based on newspaper reports during the first 20-games of the 1994-95
75 season. Using the same binary black-white distinction as Melnick (1988), Norris and Jones
76 (1998) also reported a disproportionate representation of skin tone x playing position. For
77 example, they found that black goalkeepers were underrepresented when compared to white
78 goalkeepers, while black centre forwards, were overrepresented when compared to white centre
79 forwards. Building upon this initial observation, Norris and Jones (1998) contacted 25 of the 92
80 teams evaluated for their perceptions on whether some positions are more important for team
81 success than others. Of the 25-managers contacted, 10 replied and suggested that the three key
82 positions are: (1) goalkeeper, (2) central defense, and (3) central midfield. Unfortunately, they
83 did not state why only 25 team managers were contacted, which newspaper was used to generate
84 the squad lists or how race was identified within their study. Although these studies are not
85 without limitation, they do provide a baseline for further research to examine if and how attitudes
86 have changed.

87 **Data and method**

88 Our data comprise 4,515 male professional football players across five seasons (i.e., 2010
89 to 2015) and four leagues (i.e., English Premier League, Championship, League One, and
90 League Two). For each player the data consists of a unique player ID, name, date of birth,
91 leagues in which the player has played in during the 2010-2015 season's, primary playing
92 position (i.e., the position in which the player made the most appearances), nationality, ethnicity,

93 and skin tone. The latter is rated on a 20-point scale from lightest skin tone to darkest. Each of
94 the variables included within the present study have gone through the following four-stage
95 quality assurance process: (i) Each club is assigned their own researcher who is required to
96 watch each player regularly throughout the season. Within the leagues included, it is expected
97 that researchers attend at least one game per week (i.e., First, reserve, and youth teams). A
98 constant comparative approach is also adopted at club level, whereby researchers compare
99 reports when observing each other's teams for accuracy. Across the five seasons reported, this
100 equates to approximately 380-460 observations of the 4,515 players included. (ii) Club
101 researchers report to league researchers who then cross-check the data against photographic and
102 video evidence three times per season. (iii) The data are then re-checked by a six-person internal
103 research department. (iv) The data is checked for errors by two-million users with errors reported
104 via a dedicated forum.

105 Our analytic strategy is to first investigate the question of whether skin tone has an effect
106 on central versus peripheral playing positions in English football (Melnick, 1988), before
107 exploring in greater detail the possible differences between individual playing positions and
108 leagues. In Melnick's study, skin tone was judged by club officials and based on a black versus
109 white dichotomized scale. However, we are uncomfortable in adopting the same approach, as for
110 us, skin tone is a continuous variable. Due to the methodological limitation of previous research
111 within this area, the present study is not identical in design as those that have gone before, which
112 limits us from conducting confirmatory research. However, the notion of identifying whether
113 there is a relationship between position and tone of skin remains. Finally, as there are now vast
114 financial discrepancies between the top four divisions in English football, we investigate the
115 question of whether there are between league differences in playing position by skin tone.

116

Results

117 We began these analyses by examining conducting descriptive analysis (see Table 1) to
118 outline the basic features of the population. From there the distribution of players across skin
119 tone and playing position were assessed (see Table 2). A t-test was then conducted to examine
120 potential differences in skin tone between central and wide playing positions across the four
121 professional leagues in England (i.e., the Premier League, the Championship, League One, and
122 League Two). The results suggest that, like Melnick (1988) we report a significant difference in
123 the skin tone of players who occupy either a central (i.e., goalkeeper, central defender, defensive
124 midfielder, central midfielder, attacking midfielder, and striker; $M = 8.14$, $SD = 4.69$) or
125 peripheral (i.e., right fullback, left fullback, right wing, and left wing; $M = 8.80$, $SD = 4.78$)
126 playing position; $t(4513) = -4.24$, $p < .001$, $d = .14$.

127 [insert table 3 around here]

128 A One-way ANOVA was then conducted (see Figure 1) to provide a more detailed
129 analysis of how playing position may vary according to skin tone ($F(9, 4505) = 31.10$, $p < .001$,
130 partial $\omega^2 = .06$). Tukey post-hoc comparisons demonstrated significant differences in skin tone
131 based on playing position (see Table 3).

132 [insert figure 1 around here]

133 A two-way ANOVA was then conducted to explore the effect of skin tone on playing
134 position across the four professional football leagues in England (See Figure 2). Results suggest
135 that there is no statistically significant interaction between skin tone and playing position across
136 the four leagues. Although the previously identified differences between positions are still
137 observed, they relatively consistent across the four leagues.

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[insert figure 2 around here]

Discussion

The current manuscript investigated the role skin tone plays in positional allocation in English league football. By building on the methodological underpinnings of previous investigations (e.g. Melnick, 1988; Norris & Jones, 1998), the results suggest that darker skin toned players are more likely to operate in peripheral rather than central positions. As such, our results are in line and consistent with previous literature examining racial stacking (Pitts & Yost, 2012; Stone et al., 1999). The present study also advances the literature by being the first to assess the role skin tone plays in positional allocation across the entire population of the English professional football leagues. Further, the present study is also the first to demonstrate a detailed analysis of where the imbalances occur. For example, the results suggest that although darker skin toned players may occupy central roles, lighter skin toned players still dominate the types of positions traditionally associated with organization and communication (i.e., central and attacking midfield, and goalkeeper). In contrast, darker skin toned players appear to primarily fulfil positions linked to athleticism (i.e., full back, wide midfield, and striker).

The findings also suggest relative parity in the distribution of skin tone by playing position across the four professional leagues assessed (i.e., Premier League, Championship, League One, and League Two). Given the financial resources available in the Premier League, it was thought that clubs would purchase the most suitable candidate for the position. However, this fails to consider that, according to Pitts and Yost (2012), the most suitable candidate may also mean the one who best fits the stereotype. As Melnick (1988, p. 126) states:

161 “In the absence of any compelling evidence to support the belief that white and black
162 soccer players possess certain physical and/or psychological characteristics which make
163 them better suited for playing particular positions, one must look elsewhere for an
164 explanation of these findings.”

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166 With this in mind, we consider whether issues such as stereotype threat and racial stratification,
167 result in players experiencing such processes upon entering sport; therefore, culturally
168 normalizing the phenomena in childhood (Thomas, Good & Gross, 2015). Further, the lack of
169 exemplars available to counter the stereotypes may also function to perpetuate the cycle. As our
170 data show, there are outliers who counter the stereotype within the population, within some
171 positions (e.g., goalkeeper, and attacking midfield), however, such individuals are few and far
172 between. Research examining the processes in which playing positions are allocated should
173 therefore investigate potential barriers to access and solutions to resolve this disparity.

174 It is worth noting that although issues around racial stereotyping and stratification are
175 inferred within the present manuscript, as an exploration of cross-sectional data, causality is by
176 no means implied. Although we have advanced the literature by conducting a detailed
177 exploration of the present landscape in English football, further analyses are required that
178 explore the processes discussed in other parts of Europe, North and South America, Africa, Asia,
179 and Australasia. Additional research that examines both why and how this phenomenon occurs is
180 also required. Given that many of the processes described are likely to operate at a subconscious
181 level, special attention should be paid to better understanding how implicit attitudes and
182 stereotypes are formed, accessed, and acted upon. To achieve these aims, a longitudinal design
183 could be adopted to identify why and how racial stereotypes in sport develop. Further, quasi-

184 experimental research could be conducted to examine whether existing attitudes can be modified
185 and if so, what effect this has on providing more equitable opportunities. Given the socially
186 sensitive nature of such attitudes, the authors encourage the development of an indirect measure,
187 which is capable of assessing stereotypical views while limiting the impact of social desirability
188 bias (Fazio & Olson, 2003).

189 Finally, although the data presented here suggest that some barriers may be in the process
190 of being broken down, there is much still to be done. As Thomas, Good, and Gross (2015)
191 conclude, we as fans, coaches, scouts, directors, and pundits must do more to recognize when
192 stereotypes are being perpetuated and attempt to fairly evaluate players on their individual
193 merits. Within the present manuscript, we have taken a valuable first step in highlighting the
194 disparities within English football and hope that this will allow others to move forward and begin
195 the process of testing the phenomena we have discussed.

196 **Perspective**

197 Discrimination, be it in the form of self-stacking or racial stratification, would still appear
198 to be prevalent within English football. For example, the findings presented here demonstrate
199 that as skin pigmentation decreases, so does the likelihood that players will operate in the
200 positions of goalkeeper, central midfield, and attacking midfield. Despite vast differences in
201 available resources within the four English professional leagues, skin tone x playing position
202 variance remained relatively stable. Although the empirical evidence of the cause of this
203 phenomenon is unavailable, factors such as the media, lack of role models, and persistent notions
204 of social Darwinism are thought to play a role. Resolving such discrimination is not without
205 challenge and research can support this effort through identifying the mechanisms and situations
206 where the processes described within this manuscript are activated. Although difficult, this

207 challenge should be met as with such understanding players, may eventually be evaluated with
208 clearer eyes and afforded equal opportunities to develop.

209

210 **Disclosure statement**

211 The authors report no conflicts of interest relevant to this research.

212

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216

217 **Contributions**

218 Conception or design of the work – JM / FG / TM

219 Data collection – TM

220 Data analysis and interpretation FG / JM

221 Drafting the article – JM / CI / FG / TM

222 Critical revision of the article – CI

223 Final approval of the version to be published – JM / FG / CI / TM

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	Age	Appearances	Primary Position	Skin Tone
Mean	28.96	36.98	5.92	8.14
Median	28.0	22.0	6	6
Mode	25.00	1.00	10.00	5.00
Standard deviation	5.40	41.20	2.94	4.93
Minimum	18.00	1.00	1	1
Maximum	48.0	223.0	10	20
Standard error	0.0804	0.6132	0.0437	0.0733
Skewness	0.4533	1.6222	-0.0287	0.7583
Kurtosis	2.60	5.37	1.81	2.25

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

Primary Position	Skin Tone																				Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
1. Goalkeeper	0	59	0	25	106	64	69	7	12	0	1	4	4	4	3	1	2	1	1	0	363
2. Right fullback	1	19	6	15	72	46	46	6	4	0	1	9	25	14	22	14	12	9	1	0	322
3. Left fullback	0	0	35	18	75	42	44	5	8	0	0	4	16	16	15	12	5	8	1	0	304
4. Central Defender	0	0	83	47	170	105	105	12	12	3	3	15	34	46	22	35	26	36	2	1	757
5. Right Midfield	0	0	0	39	69	55	44	6	9	1	2	14	26	24	22	26	14	21	4	0	376
6. Left Midfield	0	0	0	46	55	39	25	6	5	0	4	9	14	18	23	16	15	11	3	0	289
7. Central Midfield	0	0	0	140	211	118	104	9	12	2	4	13	22	21	18	28	14	16	6	0	738
8. Defensive Midfield	1	0	0	29	43	32	30	4	5	2	1	4	10	8	5	13	13	18	4	1	223
9. Attacking Midfield	0	0	0	34	49	24	39	1	13	2	0	5	7	3	4	3	4	7	0	0	195
10. Striker	0	0	0	108	190	141	104	11	24	0	9	18	40	40	51	67	51	81	13	0	948
Total	2	78	124	501	1040	666	610	67	104	10	25	95	198	194	185	215	156	208	35	2	4515

Table 2. Contingency table of the distribution on Skin Tone and Playing Position in Professional English Football.

	M	GK	RB	LB	CB	RM	LM	CM	DM	AM	ST
GK	5.72	-	2.82***	2.06***	2.49***	3.79***	3.47***	1.57***	3.49***	1.64***	3.83***
RB	8.55		-	-0.75*	-0.32	0.97**	0.64	-1.24***	0.67	-1.17**	1.01***
LB	7.79			-	0.42	1.72***	1.4***	-0.49	1.42***	-0.41	1.76***
CB	8.22				-	1.3**	0.97**	-0.91***	0.99**	-0.84*	1.34***
RM	9.52					-	-0.32	-2.21***	-0.3	-2.14***	0.03
LM	9.20						-	-1.89***	0.02	-1.82***	0.36
CM	7.30							-	1.91***	0.07	2.25***
DM	9.22								-	-1.84***	0.34
AM	7.37									-	2.18***
ST	9.56										-

1 Table 3. Tukey HSD post hoc analyses of between position mean differences in skin tone. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

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Distribution of Skin tone x Playing position ($N = 4515$)

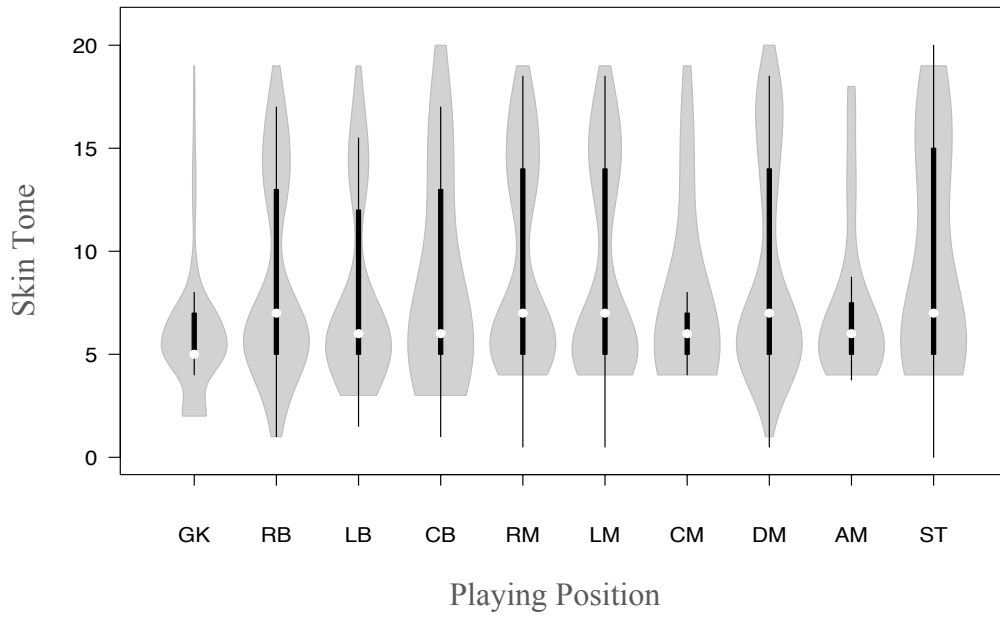
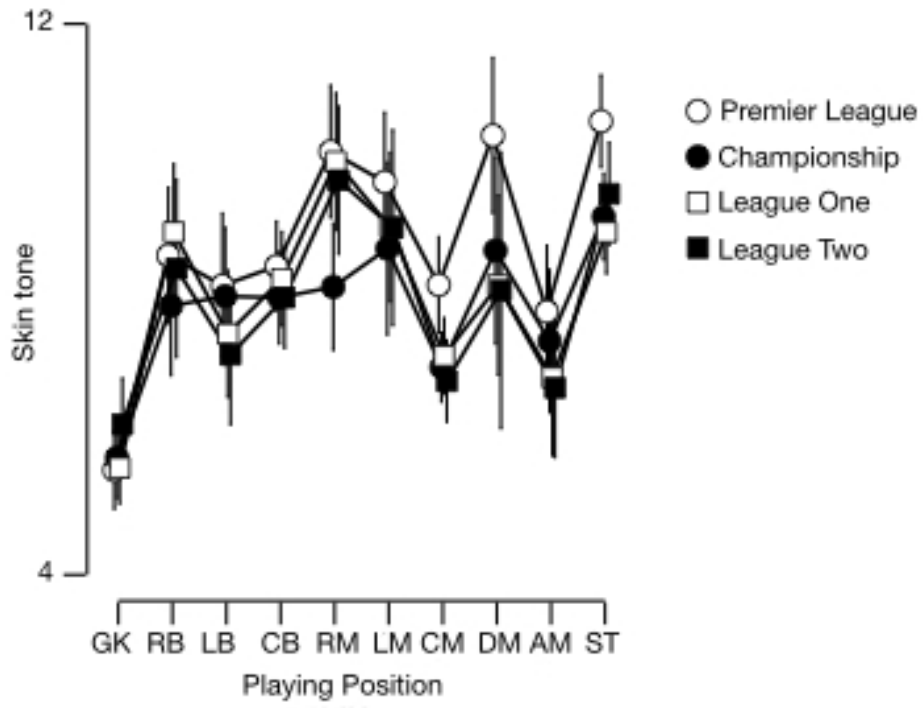


Figure 1. One-way ANOVA ($F(9, 4505) = 31.10, p < .001, \text{partial } \omega^2 = .06$)

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3 *Figure 2.* Two-way between groups ANOVA ($F(27, 4480) = 1.04, p = .41, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .01$).

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