



Questioning Representations of Athletes with Elevated Testosterone Levels in Elite Women's Sports: A Critical Policy Analysis

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Questioning Representations of Athletes with Elevated Testosterone Levels in Elite Women's Sports: A Critical Policy Analysis

Sport sociologists are often required to interpret, question and respond to the ways in which fairness and eligibility concerns in elite sports are represented in policy frameworks produced by sports governing bodies. Drawing on Carol Bacchi's critical policy analysis framework, 'what is the problem represented to be?', this paper explores the importance in developing a critical eye and reading about representations of women athletes with particular differences of sex development (DSD) with elevated testosterone levels and the idea of regulating their testosterone levels in the female classification. Through using the above critical policy analysis line of questioning, this analysis aims to consider what the problem of women athletes with relevant DSDs with elevated testosterone levels in female elite sports is represented to be; what the assumptions underlying these representations of the problem are; how these representations of the problem have come about; what is left unproblematic in this problem representation; what the lived effects produced by these representations of the problem are; and how these representations of the problem have been produced, disseminated, defended, questioned, disrupted and even could be replaced. The critical policy analysis argues that the continuing persistence of policies marking particular women with DSDs as a problem, is related in part to societal views defining particular bodies and athletic abilities in the female classification as either 'right' or 'wrong' and in need of fixing. In moving forward and redressing the problem, it requires the embodiment of biomedical ethics and human rights advocacy work by sports governing bodies.

Keywords: biomedical ethics; intersex; critical policy analysis; sex/gender; women's sport; testosterone

Introduction

On 8 September, 2020, World Champion middle-distance runner, Caster Semenya, lost her Swiss Federal Supreme Court appeal against World Athletics (former IAAF)¹, supported by the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS) (Swiss Federal Supreme Court 2020). This appeal challenged new eligibility regulations for women runners born with particular “differences of sex development [DSD]” (also referred to as intersex variations)². Specifically, the regulation excludes women born with 46 XY and testosterone levels in serum above 5 nmol/L or above and for whom the testosterone has “a material androgenising effect” (WA 2019, 4). That is, Semenya was appealing policy that created an endocrinological definition of ‘female’. The loss of this appeal means that Semenya and others are required to undergo hormone therapy to reduce their naturally occurring elevated levels of testosterone to compete in a number of “restricted events” ranging from 400m to one-mile races and track events in the women’s category. Alternatively, excluded women athletes can compete in the male classification, in which competitors are not required to prove they adhere to sex-specific physiological definitions, or in an as yet non-existent intersex category (WA 2019).

While the CAS three-judge-panel voted 2-1 against Semenya (and “dismissed both requests for arbitration” from the IAAF and Semenya), they also declared the IAAF/WA “Regulations are discriminatory” (CAS, 2019b). The verdict ruled that

on the basis of the evidence submitted by the parties, such discrimination is a necessary, reasonable and proportionate means of achieving the legitimate objective of ensuring fair

1 Following a Congress decision in June 2019, the International Association of Athletics Federation (IAAF) changed its official name to World Athletics (WA). As this research deals with time periods prior to and post the name change, we adopt the acronym IAAF/WA when referring to the organisation throughout this analysis.

2 This analysis will make use of the following terminologies when referring to the same cohort of people: ‘intersex’, ‘differences of sex development’ (DSD), and ‘disorders of sex development’.

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3 competition in female athletics in certain events and protecting the ‘protected class’ of
4 female athletes in those events (CAS, 2019b, 1).
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8 This ruling entrenches sex-based discrimination and is “the latest in a series of regulations
9 that have governed women’s eligibility in sport” in order to maintain a binary-based “level
10 playing field” in elite sport (Karkazis and Carpenter 2018, 579).
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14 Arguments that sex and gender are social and cultural categorisations of physiology
15 are not new (Butler 2004, de Beauvoir 2014 [1949]), and outside of the IAAF/WA policies,
16 “sex” “and, by extension, intersex” (Holmes 2011, 394) are understood to be a combination
17 of social and medical constructions (Davis 2015). Intersex people “are born with physical sex
18 characteristics that don’t fit medical and social norms for female or male bodies” (Intersex
19 Human Rights Australia 2013). Intersex includes more than 40 variations, can apply to one in
20 60 individuals (1.7%). Given this diversity, it is not surprising that intersex is “a term whose
21 meaning is contested” and is variously described in terms of “disorders of sex development”
22 in medical milieus and erroneously still referred to as “hermaphroditism” within the general
23 public (Davis 2015, 2). That is, it is still pathologised and understood in relation to
24 female/male sexual binaries. Intersex Human Rights Australia (IHRA), also suggest that
25 intersex variations present in visible “physical differences in secondary sexual characteristics
26 such as muscle mass, hair distribution, breast development and stature” (2013). We recognise
27 that while the current sex-based sporting classifications remain, solutions to the issues
28 outlined here are very limited. However, as intersex health and rights scholars, we offer our
29 critical analysis of discriminatory policies in women’s sport as an example of where and how
30 the discrimination, regulation and limitation of women and intersex people in sport is
31 produced and maintained by various elite sport policies.
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55 With bodies that challenge wide-held binary understanding of sex/gender, intersex
56 people are commonly targets of discrimination, such as in the current IAAF/WA policy.
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3 Understanding how policy “problems” are represented “carries all sorts of implications for
4 how the issue is thought about and how the people involved are treated, and are evoked to
5 think about themselves” (Bacchi 2009, 1). That is, how the IAAF/WA is able to set
6 endocrinological, as well as gonadal and chromosomal parameters for what they consider a
7 ‘woman’ in the female classification. In recent years, a considerable amount of academic
8 work and research have explored and challenged the ways in which women with intersex
9 variations have had their bodies and athletic performances marked, regulated and disciplined
10 in degrading, sexist and unfair ways through sex tests/femininity testing/gender verifications/
11 hyperandrogenism/DSD regulations and testing technologies in women’s sport (such as
12 Brömdal 2013, Bavington 2018, Carlson 1991, Cooky, Dycus, and Dworkin 2013, Erikainen
13 2019, Healy et al. 2014, Heggie 2010, 2020, Karkazis and Carpenter 2018, Karkazis et al.
14 2012, Karkazis and Jordan-Young 2018, Larned 1976, Montañola and Olivesi 2016, Pieper
15 2016, Ritchie 2003, Shani and Barilan 2012, Schultz 2011, 2019b, Pielke 2017, Pielke,
16 Tucker, and Boye 2019b, Sullivan 2011, Sönksen et al. 2015, Sönksen et al. 2018, Xavier and
17 McGill 2012). Several of the aforementioned publications have also explored the historical
18 evolution of these testing technologies from a post-modern critical feminist lens; what the
19 lived experiences and implications have been for affected intersex women; and highlighted
20 flaws and contradictions in the ways in which the policies and testing technologies have been
21 rationalised and revised over time but nevertheless targeted the same minority few.

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47 Building on this work, in this paper we draw on Carol Bacchi’s (2009) critical policy
48 analysis framework, “What is the Problem Represented to be?” to explore the history,
49 development and implications of the current policy on women. In particular, we focus on
50 how the most recent IAAF/WA policy has been produced to solve a “problem”. Through
51 Bacchi’s framework we highlight the importance of developing a comprehensive critical
52 reading regarding representations of the challenge of managing women’s sport in a way that
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3 maintains the established sex-binary model of elite sport; there are no policies regulating or
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5 policing men born with various intersex variations in the male classification. As such, we
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7 develop a critical analysis about the rationales and socio-political agendas of regulating
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9 athletes with 46 XY DSD in the female classification, the implications this series of
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11 governing have had on the athletes in question, and how the representation of athletes with
12
13 relevant DSD in the women's events as a 'problem' can be interrogated, disturbed or
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15 abolished all together. Bacchi's WRP framework (2009) encourages and equips sport
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17 sociologists to critically analyse this representations in a historically, holistically and
18
19 politically nuanced fashion "interrogating the ways in which [policy] proposals for change
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21 *represent* 'problems'" (Bacchi 2009, vii). To this end, this critical policy analysis is framed
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23 and structured by six research questions exploring:
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- 29 (1) What is the problem of women athletes with relevant DSDs with elevated testosterone
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31 levels in female elite sports represented to be?
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33 (2) What assumptions underlie this representation of the problem of women athletes with
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35 relevant DSDs with elevated testosterone levels in female elite sports?
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37 (3) How has this representation of the problem come about; what are the origins and
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39 history of women athletes with relevant DSDs with elevated testosterone levels in
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41 female elite sports?
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43 (4) What is left unproblematic in this problem representation? What are the gaps and
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45 silences?
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47 (5) What effects are produced by this representation of the problem, such as on women
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49 born with DSDs?
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51 (6) How and where have these representations been produced, disseminated, and
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53 defended? How could they be questioned, disrupted, and replaced?
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3 Taking this approach, we unpack the continuing persistence of policies marking particular
4 intersex women as a ‘problem’, and how these relate to societal views defining particular
5 bodies and athletic abilities in the female classification as either ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ and in
6 need of regulation (Brömdal 2013, Healy et al. 2014, Karkazis et al. 2012, Pape 2019, Pielke
7 2017, Schultz 2011, 2012b). Employing Bacchi’s WRP framework (2009), and through a
8 Foucauldian lens we bring to light *who* are the voices setting this political agenda of
9 problematisation; *who* are the voices producing and circulating physiological truths and
10 knowledges (Foucault 1980) arguing that a particular cohort of intersex women elite athletes
11 ‘disturb’ ideal understandings of ‘femininity’ in terms of their sex, gender, body, embodiment
12 and athletic performance; and *who* have been the beneficiaries of these policies versus *whose*
13 voices have been overlooked, marginalised, and silenced? In framing particular intersex
14 women athletes as the ‘problem’, these questions are significant to better understand how
15 they have been historically framed as a threat to the ‘level playing field’ in women’s elite
16 sports by the IAAF/WA, the International Olympic Committee (IOC), and their allies, but
17 also how these framings can be challenged, dislocated, replaced, and even abolished.
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39 **Methodology and analytical framework**

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42 This critical policy analysis examines official IOC, IAAF/WA, and other national bodies of
43 athletics’ policy frameworks between 1938 and 2018, including policy informing material.
44 More specifically, it considers the official and mandatory rules for competitions for women
45 and sex/femininity/gender verification policies in the female classification by the IOC, the
46 IAAF/WA and other national bodies of athletics between 1938 and 1998, which enforce
47 variations of clinical examinations prior to competing, and depict women athletes with
48 intersex variations as ‘problematic’. These policy documents were all accessed and retrieved
49 from the Historical Archives at the Olympic Museum in Lausanne, Switzerland in 2010 and
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3 2017. Case-by-case inspired IAAF/WA and IOC policies on gender verifications, regulations
4 on females with hyperandrogenism, and regulations for the female classification for athletes
5 with DSDs, released between 2000 and 2018, were all accessible online. Over 20 policies and
6 numerous archival policies informing and illuminating documents were gathered and
7 analysed.
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15 Along with Bacchi's framework, to question representations of athletes with relevant
16 DSD in female elite sports as 'problematic', we have adopted a Foucauldian theoretical
17 approach that examines the construction of knowledges, truths and power relations (Bacchi
18 2009, Foucault 1979, 1980, 1988). In relation to the perceived 'fairness' problem in female
19 elite sport we agree with Foucault, who suggests that what seems to be an obvious truth to us
20 today has had a history and has been shaped to become the truth we know of today primarily
21 by "those who are charged with saying what counts as true" (1980, 131). That is, with those
22 who held authority at the time. Through a Foucauldian lens, Bacchi (2009) encourages us to
23 understand contemporary problems by establishing a "history of the present" (Foucault 1979,
24 31), that results in establishing some ideas and ideals as 'normal' (Cryle and Stephens 2017).
25 Our analysis views policy *as* normalising discourse (Bacchi 2009, Foucault 1972, Goodwin
26 2011) and sees policy-based representations of athletes with relevant DSDs as a socially
27 constructed 'problem' embedded in historical and cultural practices. A policy *as* discourse
28 approach "captures the political ways in which policy shapes the world through the framing
29 of social 'problems' and government 'solutions' and the construction of concepts, categories,
30 distinctions and subject positions" and shifts focus onto "the role of policy in 'making' social
31 problems" (Goodwin 2011, 170). Consequently, the practice of problematisation is at the
32 heart of policy analysis (Bacchi 2009, Goodwin 2011).
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56 As we consider how and why representations of athletes with relevant DSDs in
57 female elite sports and policy frameworks have come to be represented as a 'problem',
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3 Bacchi (2009) and Foucault remind us that the “rationality” behind their making “can be
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Bacchi (2009) and Foucault remind us that the “rationality” behind their making “can be
unmade, as long as we know how it was that they were made” (Foucault 1988, 37).
Following Foucault, Bacchi’s framework recognises that ‘problems’ are inherently political
(2009), and the aim of the critical policy analysis approach is “to challenge problem
representations” (Bacchi 2009, 44) that have harmful effects. In the rest of this discussion, we
will use Bacchi’s WRP framework to examine the assumptions and politics embedded in the
current IAAF/WA policy, as well as the impacts these have on athletes’ lives. Bacchi’s WRP
framework disrupts assumptions that the ‘problems’ themselves “are fixed and
uncontroversial starting points for policy development” and “reminds us that the banal and
vague notion of ‘the problem’ and its partner ‘the solution’ are heavily laden with meaning”
(Bacchi 2012, 23). In this case, our critical policy analysis aims to interrogate the politics
embedded in representations of regulating intersex women with elevated and functional
levels of testosterone, including particular chromosomal, gonadal and/or anatomic sex, which
not only has implications for women with targeted intersex variations but on broader
biomedical ethics and fairness debates in elite sports.

**What is the problem of women athletes with relevant DSDs with elevated
testosterone levels in female elite sports represented to be?**

The IAAF/WA’s November 2019 policy, *Eligibility Regulations for the Female
Classification (Athletes with Differences of Sex Development [DSD])*, introduced and defined
regulations governing the eligibility of particular intersex women with elevated levels of
functional testosterone, which the policy refers to as “relevant athletes” (2019). Specifically,
the IAAF/WA make use of a funnelled criteria approach where they first name seven

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3 identified categories of 46 XY DSDs³, all which also challenge binary understandings of
4 around chromosomal, gonadal and/or anatomic sex. People associated with these categories
5 become of interest if they have 5 nmol/L or more circulating testosterone in blood but
6 become “relevant” if that testosterone translates into a “material androgenising effects”.
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8 Hence, only intersex women who meet all three criteria are problematised by the policy.
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11 Specifically, the IAAF/WA (2019, 21) stipulates that “the normal female range” of
12 testosterone circulating in the blood is anywhere from 0.06 to 1.68 nmol/L in blood post
13 puberty, while the “normal male range” is considerably higher ranging from 7.7 to 29.4
14 nmol/L. The IAAF/WA defend their targeted policy by stipulating that “women (including
15 female athletes) with DSDs covered by these Regulations can have serum levels of
16 testosterone above 5 nmol/L and well into (or even above) the normal male range.” (2019,
17 20). The IAAF/WA (2019, 3) cites “broad medical and scientific consensus” on these claims,
18 and that rigorous review of the data has established validity of the idea that a range of 5 and
19 10 nmol/L “can significantly enhance their sporting performance.” From this position, the
20 policy identifies relevant intersex women athletes as posing a ‘problem’ for the IAAF/WA’s
21 political priority of protecting and guaranteeing “a level playing-field” in the female
22 classification by eliminating the risk of any “unfair competition conditions that deny athletes
23 a fair opportunity to succeed” (2019, 2), through regulatory means.
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27 In addition to the fairness and meaningful competition debate, the IAAF/WA also
28 identifies and presents a secondary ‘problem’ where there are potential health implications
29 for women athletes with “relevant” DSDs if their “condition” is undiagnosed and/or untreated
30 (2019, 21). Here, the IAAF/WA argue that they are ‘detecting’ and ‘solving’ potential future
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35 3 These particular DSDs are a) 5 α -reductase type 2 deficiency; b) partial androgen insensitivity
36 syndrome (PAIS); c) 17 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 3 (17 β -HSD3) deficiency; d)
37 congenital adrenal hyperplasia; e) 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase deficiency; f) ovotesticular
38 DSD; or g) any other genetic disorder involving disordered gonadal steroidogenesis.
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3 health problems in the best interests of the athlete (2011, 2019). This secondary health
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5 problem, can as a result of this policy and its main problem formulation, also be ‘solved’.
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8 In order to guarantee fairness and to allow “relevant” intersex women the opportunity
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10 for “meaningful competition” in the “restricted [women’s] events”, the IAAF/WA regulations
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12 stipulate that all women athletes wanting to compete at an international competition or to set
13
14 a world record must meet three “eligibility conditions” (2019, 4-5). More specifically, the
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16 person must be legally recognised as either “female or as intersex”; reduce their blood
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18 testosterone level to below 5 nmol/L through the use of hormonal contraceptives for at least
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20 six months; and maintain their blood testosterone level below 5 nmol/L for as long as they
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22 want to stay eligible to compete at an international level or set a world record in a “restricted
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24 event” (2019, 4-5).
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28 To evidence their claims that sports performance is ultimately linked to functional
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30 levels of testosterone, the IAAF/WA (2019, 20) draws on research and interventions from the
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32 Director of the IAAF/WA Health and Science Department (Bermon 2017, Bermon and
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34 Garnier 2017, Bermon et al. 2018, Handelsman, Hirschberg, and Bermon 2018). This
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36 research uses the example of three intersex women athletes whose performance declined by
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38 an average of 5.7% after engaging in hormonal contraceptives reducing their circulating
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40 testosterone levels from 21-25 nmol/L to 2 nmol/L. As Bermon (2017), Bermon and Garnier
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42 (2017), Bermon et al. (2018) have 1) “shown exploratory evidence that female athletes with
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44 the highest T concentration have a significant competitive advantage over those with lower T
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46 concentration, in 400 m, 400 m hurdles, 800 m and hammer throw”, and 2) showcased “that
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48 there is a very strong correlation between testosterone levels and best results obtained in the
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50 World Championships in those events” (Bermon et al. 2018, 2). The significance of this
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52 example, and the analysis around it, is that it legitimises and justifies the policy and the need
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54 to police and regulate intersex women athletes’ functional testosterone levels. From a WRP
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3 perspective, this research continues to frame this cohort of athletes with DSD as the
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5 ‘problem’ to fairness and meaningful competition in the female classification.
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8 To better appreciate the “deep-seated cultural values” (Bacchi 2009, 5) and the
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10 “conceptual logics” underpinning how women athletes with relevant DSDs are represented as
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12 ‘problematic’, our next question examines the assumptions that underlie this problem
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14 representation.
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16 17 18 **What assumptions underlie this representation of the problem of women athletes** 19 20 **with relevant DSDs with elevated testosterone levels in female elite sports?** 21

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23 In the next step of the WRP framework, Bacchi (2009, 5) prompts us to uncover the
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25 “assumed”, “taken-for-granted” and “rel[ie]d upon” knowledges within this problem
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27 representation “to be accorded intelligibility”. In this section, we unpack how “meaning is
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29 created” within governing policy frameworks by “identifying and interrogating binaries, key
30
31 concepts and categories operating within” them (Bacchi 2009, 7). That is, we highlight two
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33 key assumptions, that women are not as athletic as men, and that testosterone is a male
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35 hormone, excesses of which in women leads to an unfair advantage in women’s sport.
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39 Particular physiological assumptions have underpinned a hierarchical correlation
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41 between circulating testosterone concentration and athletic excellence (Bermon 2017, Borgen
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43 2020, Karkazis and Jordan-Young 2018, Schultz 2019b, Sudai 2017). As we saw in the 2020
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45 Swiss Federal Supreme Court and the 2019 CAS rulings, endocrinologically compliant
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47 women – the majority of women athletes – are positioned as in need of protection against a
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49 minority cohort of women, who are deemed to have “unfair competitive advantages that
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51 violate fair play” (Handelsman, Hirschberg, and Bermon 2018, 803). This idea has been
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53 previously entrenched in IAAF/WA policy. For example, the IAAF/WA *Regulations*
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55 *Governing Eligibility of Females with Hyperandrogenism to Compete in Women’s*
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57 *Competition* (2011) articulated sex/gender binary-based hierarchies by stressing that male
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3 and female Athletics have been divided into separate categories because they have very
4 different and “specific physical aptitude and performance”, and that the classification
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6 division is “predominantly due to higher levels of androgen hormones in males resulting in
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8 increased strength and muscle development” (2011, 1). The IAAF/WA explicitly uses gender
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10 to build their argument “that there are rare cases of young females...who are affected by
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12 hyperandrogenism...[who] often display masculine traits and have uncommon athletic
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14 capacity in relation to their fellow female competitors” (2011, 1). As Schultz reminds us “the
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16 values we associate with masculinity – strength, speed, stamina, muscularity – are the same
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18 we associate with athleticism, so when women are charged with looking or performing in an
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20 ostensibly gender-incongruent way, the underlying logic is that they are not supposed to be
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22 that good in sport” (2012b, 32).
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28 Historically, women athletes have been scrutinised based on underlying sex/gender
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30 binary assumptions related to hormone production, internal and external genitalia and
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32 chromosome composition as defining female classification. These assumptions have been
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34 translated into policy frameworks and actions governing participation in elite women’s sport
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36 (Brömdal 2013, Pape 2019). In 2011 the lead author conducted an interview with the former
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38 Medical and Scientific Director of the IOC, Dr Patrick Schamasch, and asked why women
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40 with hyperandrogenism/elevated levels of functional testosterone seem to threaten the ‘level-
41
42 playing field’ more than any other biological and innate ingredient in women’s sports
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44 (Brömdal 2013). Schamasch’s response was heavily gendered, highlighting the lack of
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46 reflection on the role of socio-cultural norms in how we think about women and particular
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48 intersex athletes:
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54 As you know if these females, or ladies, have functional hyperandrogenism with active
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56 receptors, [it] means that they then have testosterone in the male range. And we have
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58 defined what is potentially the male range. This means that they will have an advantage
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60 because..., testosterone is the hormone which boosts the muscles, so if they have more

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3 testosterone than a normal lady, they will potentially have more muscles which could
4 lead to a better performance because muscles are directly linked with performance. That
5 is why we think that it could be abnormal and not totally fair to allow these ladies to
6 compete with ladies who have lower testosterone or within the female range. (Schamasch
7 in Brömdal 2013, 129-130)
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12 Schamasch is emphatic in conveying as established fact, the idea that testosterone is the
13 hormone that boosts muscles and that functional androgen levels are directly linked with
14 competitive advantages. The assumption behind Schamasch's rhetoric suggests that this
15 singular biological parameter outranks the influence on performance compared to any other
16 factor and consequently disrupts the level playing field in the female classifications. In
17 expressing his message, Schamasch explicitly recognises that the IOC "have defined what is
18 potentially the male range" and, thus, the female range of testosterone in the body; equally
19 suggesting that it can be 'redefined'.
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31 As we illustrated in the last section, since the hyperandrogenism policy in 2011, the
32 IAAF/WA has made use of, and commissioned, several studies to support this line of
33 argument (WA 2019). Yet, despite the role that testosterone plays in conferring an unfair
34 advantage, limitations are not placed on male athletic classifications. Lisa Bavington (2016)
35 interviewed an IAAF/WA official about why regulations related to testosterone have not been
36 put in place in men's athletics. The official responded that there is no direct relationship
37 between physical performance and testosterone levels in the upper male range and that a
38 10nmol/L increase in this range will not have a noticeable effect on performance. However,
39 the respondent was very clear about the 'effect' that can be seen in women (Bavington 2016).
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51 Fast-forwarding this to 2020, this sex-based correlation and rhetoric has become
52 increasingly entrenched, such as when the CAS panel endorsed the current regulations by
53 arguing that "discrimination is a necessary, reasonable and proportionate means of achieving
54 the IAAF/WA's aims of preserving the integrity of female athletes in the Restricted Events"
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3 (CAS, 2019a) and when the Swiss Federal Supreme Court supported this ruling (2020). The
4
5 assumptions underlying the representation of the problem are constructed and can therefore
6
7 also be undone (Sudai 2017). In order to do so we need to learn how these assumptions about
8
9 the ‘problem’ of women athletes with DSD have arisen.

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14 **How has this representation of the problem come about; what are the origins and**
15 **history of women athletes with relevant DSD with elevated testosterone levels in**
16 **female elite sports?**
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19 Inspired by Foucault’s use of genealogy, Bacchi (2009) suggests the next step in the WRP
20
21 framework is to “highlight the conditions that allow” the representation of women athletes
22
23 with particular DSDs in specific women’s sporting events as ‘problematic’ and to then
24
25 “assume dominance” (11). This step in Bacchi’s framework shows the genealogy of the
26
27 developments in sex testing/femininity testing/gender verification/hyperandrogenism/DSD
28
29 regulations in women’s sport through various testing technologies and nomenclatures from
30
31 the 1930s till current time. It provides an important context to the current IAAF/WA policy.
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35 There are comprehensive histories critically analysing the development of sex-gender
36
37 testing and regulations in women’s athletics (Bavington 2018, Brömdal 2013, Erikainen
38
39 2019, Heggie 2010, 2020, Pieper 2016, Rogol and Pieper 2018, Schultz 2012a). Collectively,
40
41 these histories illustrate the united voices of medical representatives proposing the need for
42
43 policies to “protect” athletes in women’s competition from “unfair competition” since the
44
45 1930s. The target group of such policies has consistently been women with intersex
46
47 variations, however which intersex variations, and the language used to refer to the
48
49 ‘undesirable’ athletes, have shifted numerous times. When tracing the history and the
50
51 justifications for introducing the sex tests, they were linked to anxieties around female
52
53 ‘authenticity’ in response to fears and rumours that “hermaphrodites” , “hybrid beings”,
54
55 “intersexuals”, or men disguised as women were participating in women’s events (Brundage
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3 1936, 1, Hay 1974, 20, Thiébault 1968, 2, 5). Although these angsts became a concern as
4
5 early as 1928 the 1936 Olympic Games in Berlin seems to be the first time a woman, the
6
7 American 100m sprinter Helen Stephens, was sex tested due to her “muscular” appearance
8
9 (Time Magazine 1936b, 60). Following this case and that of an English athlete who had gone
10
11 through gender affirming procedures Avery Brundage (1936), the chairman of the US
12
13 Olympic Committee, proposed that women athletes should undergo physical examinations to
14
15 ensure that they were 100% female and for individual sport federations to implement the
16
17 matter (Time Magazine 1936a, 40 & 42). Two years later, this resulted in the requirement by
18
19 the American Amateur Athletics Association (AAU) of external examinations by medical
20
21 professionals and the provision of medical certificates “certifying her fitness for competition”
22
23 (AAU 1938, 86). This practice was taken up by organisations including the IAAF/WA in
24
25 1946 who imposed it on women competing in “athletics” at the 1964 Tokyo Summer
26
27 Olympic Games (Organizing Committee of the XVIII Olympiad 1964, 89-104, 170). Men
28
29 were not required to provide such certificates.
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36 In the 1950s and early 1960s a number of “stunning performance marks achieved by
37
38 women athletes” continued to raise “concerns about the ‘femaleness’ of certain female
39
40 participants in women’s events” (Ljungqvist et al. 2006, 227). This influenced the move
41
42 towards standardising sex tests on an international level in the mid-1960s (Brundage 1966,
43
44 Westerhoff 1966), where event organisers for the 1966 European Athletics Championship in
45
46 Budapest required that all 243 female athletes underwent “on-site inspections”, where they
47
48 “paraded in the nude before a panel of gynaecologists” (Larned 1976, 10). The IOC quickly
49
50 replaced these humiliating protocols creating “an unpleasant atmosphere” (Reczek 1967)
51
52 with laboratory-based chromosomal tests in 1968 after women complained the on-site
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54 inspections were both “crude and degrading” as they also included gynaecological
55
56 examinations (Turnbull 1988, 61). These chromosomal tests became the first rigorous and
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1
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3 mandatory policy on sex verification and were used between 1968-1992 dictating whether a
4 woman met the sex-based criteria to compete in women's events (Brömdal 2013, 88-89).
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8 In 1992 the IAAF/WA agreed to abandon the tests on a mandatory basis, due to
9 scientific inaccuracy and it being unethical. Despite this, the IAAF/WA still allowed for the
10 medical representative at an event to organise a physical examination of an athlete in
11 combination with hormonal tests if deemed necessary (IOC 1992, 21), while the IOC
12 continued to perform mandatory DNA-based chromosomal tests up until the 2000 Sydney
13 Olympic Games (IOC 1999, 80). Although mandatory testing ceased by 2004, sporting
14 governing bodies nevertheless reserved the right to "gender verify" athletes on a 'case-by-
15 case' basis if particular athletes in the female classification raised 'suspicion' by officials,
16 competitors or alike (Ljungqvist et al. 2006). Until 2009, 'suspicion-based' medical
17 examinations and genetic tests were performed on women whose appearance and gender
18 expression deviated from White, Western, cisgendered heterosexual norms of femininity,
19 equating the tests with a "gender verification" inspired by cultural privilege (Brömdal 2013,
20 Karkazis et al. 2012). The case-by-case motivated "gender verification" (IAAF 2006)
21 resulted in scrutiny of South African sprinter Caster Semenya at the IAAF/WA World
22 Championship in Berlin 2009 (Montañola and Olivesi 2016, Schultz 2011) which, yet again,
23 resulted in the development of a new policy centred around "disorders of sex development"
24 and "hyperandrogenism" (IOC 2010). This marked a new era, where women pathologised
25 with hyperandrogenism were bound by regulations and eligibility conditions to compete
26 (IAAF 2011). This reformulated the enduring 'problem' of maintaining authenticity,
27 'fairness' and 'meaningful competition' in female sporting classifications, in terms of
28 limitations on levels of functional testosterone (Brömdal 2013, Karkazis et al. 2012). In this
29 way, "hyperandrogenism" took precedence over "gender verification", as the incoming way
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3 of maintaining the stability of the sex and gender binary divide and logic in elite sports,
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5 which was yet again reframed in 2018 to the current policy.
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8 To tie it all together, this discussion illustrates the inconsistencies in testing practices
9
10 and language over 80-odd years as governing bodies have tried to establish the physiological
11
12 characteristics that define a woman. The governing testing technologies have been referred to
13
14 as rules for “competitions for women” where women had to provide medical certificates
15
16 including thorough medical examinations and shown fit or feminine enough to compete in
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18 women’s sports (1938-1964); to sex verification/control/checks (1966-1976); to femininity
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20 tests/testing/controls (1976-1984); to gender verifications/controls/tests/testing (1984-2011);
21
22 to testing the eligibility of women with hyperandrogenism; to now testing the eligibility of
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24 women athletes with relevant DSDs in the female classification. The slipperiness of the
25
26 language, and the use of femininity and gender in anyway, underlines the struggle sporting
27
28 organisations were facing in defining what the problem was in maintaining sex-based
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30 authenticity and fairness in women’s sports.
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35 Similarly, the terms the IOC/IAAF/WA have used, when referring to the ‘problem’,
36
37 have equally shifted six times from “hybrids” to “hermaphrodites”, to “intersexuals”, to
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39 women with “Disorders of Sex Development” to women with “hyperandrogenism”, to for
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41 now, women with particular “Differences of Sex Development” in particular events. Even
42
43 though the ‘scientific’ knowledges have changed between the 1930s and today, the
44
45 IOC/IAAF/WA have not been clear nor consistent about what the ‘problem’ has been and
46
47 thus, have been unable to present convincing evidence for the ‘problem’. In particular,
48
49 testosterone is at the heart of the new ‘problem’, in the face of an ongoing fight to maintain
50
51 the female authenticity of women athletes. The shifts in testing technology (alluding to solve
52
53 the problem) and who these women representing the problem are, show the IOC/IAAF/WA
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55 failure in defining the problem and producing ‘convincing’ scientific evidence for the
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3 ‘problem’. This evidences how they have constantly manipulated truths and knowledges
4 about the best or ideal testing technology in meeting their aims as the testing technologies
5 have driven the definition of the ‘problem’. This genesis, continuity and discontinuity
6 therefore strongly highlight how the conditions “that allowed [the] particular problem
7 representation” of women athletes with relevant DSDs in the female classification “to take
8 shape and to assume dominance” (Bacchi 2009, 11).
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19 **What is left unproblematic in this problem representation? What are the gaps and** 20 **silences?** 21

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23 While the current policy claims to be maintaining “fairness” in women’s athletics (WA 2019)
24 representing women athletes’ testosterone levels as both the ‘problem’ and the ‘solution’ to
25 the fairness debate leaves several gaps and silences (Bacchi 2009), especially within the
26 space of science and bioethics.
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32 The first silence in the policy is the contested nature of the science on which these
33 policies are based (Bermon and Garnier 2017, Eklund et al. 2017). While the “IAAF claims
34 there is a medical and scientific consensus that female athletes with naturally high
35 testosterone have an advantage over their peers, not unlike the advantage men typically have
36 over women” (Karkazis and Carpenter 2018, 580), a number of researchers highlight flaws in
37 the IAAF/WA-funded research on which the IAAF/WA policy is based (Borgen 2020,
38 Pielke, Tucker, and Boye 2019a, b, Sönksen et al. 2018). Taking different lines of critique, all
39 articles agree that the research “substantiating the IAAF’s regulation fail to prove that
40 elevated levels of natural testosterone are causally linked to better sporting performance”
41 (Borgen 2020, 750). For example, Borgen’s (2020, 750) critiques are two-fold: the isolation
42 of testosterone from its effects (e.g. on VO₂max) means that there is no evidence “that these
43 elite athletes have better athletic performance *because* of high testosterone level”. Borgen
44 (2020, 751) also argues that to “identify the competitive advantage [of higher testosterone],
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3 we would have to compare elite athletes with different levels of testosterone but who are
4 otherwise equal". Sönksen et al., (2018) critique the focus on correlation found by Bermon
5 and Garnier (2017), whose methodology and findings they find to be "statistically
6
7
8 inappropriate and the lack of adjustment for multiple comparisons a major flaw of the
9
10 analysis" (1481). They compare Bermon and Garnier's work to Eklund and colleagues'
11
12 (2017), who "found no correlation between serum T and physical performance" in women
13
14 Olympic athletes (Eklund et al. 2017, 1306).⁴ Sönksen et al. (2018, 1481) argue that neither
15
16 study "come[s] close to addressing the issue of causality" in their findings, and thus the
17
18 IAAF/WA has not addressed the CAS task of "providing sufficient evidence that female
19
20 athletes with androgen levels in the so-called male range have a competitive advantage over
21
22 their peers, *comparable to that men have over women, previously identified as 10%-12%*"
23
24 (emphasis original).
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30 Finally, Pielke and colleagues (2019a, b), call into question the methodology, the lack
31
32 of transparency in the data used, and the "flawed and unreliable results" (2019b, 20) by
33
34 (Bermon and Garnier 2017, Bermon et al. 2018) in their claims that testosterone levels are
35
36 positively correlated with athletic performance and competition results in elite athletes. They
37
38 are troubled that these studies are funded and conducted by the IAAF, and that the data itself
39
40 has not been peer-reviewed as the "IAAF has refused to release the performance data
41
42 associated with the study to other researchers or even to the journal which published" the
43
44 work (Pielke, Tucker, and Boye 2019b, 20). In their strongly worded conclusion, Pielke and
45
46 colleagues (2019b, 25-26) argue that "Sport regulation should be held to the same high
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48 standards that we expect of researchers in other settings where science informs regulation and
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57 ⁴ While Bermon and Garnier's study (2017) is specifically on IAAF/WA athletes, Eklund *et al.*,
58 (2017, p. 1302) examine "Swedish women athletes participating in the summer (London 2012,
59 n=81) OR winter Olympic Games (Sochi 2014, n=45)".
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3 policy”. In particular, the IAAF/WA should “provide research funding to an independent
4
5 body which could request proposals from researchers unaffiliated with the IAAF/WA to
6
7 address the scientific questions at issue” (Pielke, Tucker, and Boye 2019b, 25). In this way,
8
9 Pielke and colleagues highlight genuine silences in the research ethics and transparency of
10
11 the data used to justify the IAAF/WA policies.
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14
15 The second issue is the inconsistencies, silences and “limits in the underlying problem
16
17 representation” (Bacchi 2009, 12) also appear when we consider the regulation of
18
19 testosterone in terms of maintaining ‘fairness’. Schultz (2018) argues that “without
20
21 explanation, the new guidelines omit both the pole vault and hammer throw, where high-
22
23 testosterone women ostensibly enjoy the greatest advantage, and add the women’s 1500-
24
25 metre race, even though it was not one of the events in which testosterone seemed to matter.
26
27 The hormone, the study concluded, does not affect men in ‘any of the male athletic events’”.
28
29 In pointing out this inconsistency, Silvia Camporesi (2016) brings our attention to two key
30
31 issues left unproblematic in the current policy. First, is that “setting a limit on
32
33 hyperandrogenism and singling it out from other biological variations that may confer an
34
35 advantage is – at best – an inconsistent policy” (Camporesi 2016). As Camporesi (2016)
36
37 outlines, there are more than 200 identified genetic variations that can provide an athletic
38
39 advantage in elite sport. These can “affect a variety of functions including blood flow to
40
41 muscles, muscle structure, oxygen transport, lactate turnover, and energy production”, yet are
42
43 not consistently considered unfair for competition by the IAAF/WA or governing bodies in
44
45 other sports (Camporesi 2016). The second is that the policy is only applied to women’s
46
47 events, which follows the previously outlined assumptions about ‘normal’ testosterone levels
48
49 in women’s and men’s bodies (Camporesi 2016, Schultz 2018). Men competing in the male
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51 classification are both assumed and allowed to have higher levels than women (IAAF, 2011,
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53 WA 2019). Indeed, men who have been diagnosed with low testosterone (such as being
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3 diagnosed with the intersex variation Klinefelter's syndrome) are allowed to take synthetic
4 testosterone for health reasons in line with the World Anti-Doping Agency's (WADA)
5 Therapeutic Use Exemptions (TUE) Guidelines (WADA, 2018) which raise noteworthy
6 contradictions. More specifically this waiver seems to suggest that it is every man's right to
7 compete in elite sports with healthy and high levels of testosterone while athletes in the
8 female classification with an intersex variation generating too high levels of functional
9 testosterone, are subjected to penalties and exclusion (Brömdal 2013, Brömdal and Davis
10 2020) if not conforming to these hierarchy implied and constructed binary norms.

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22 As critiques of both the science and the ethics of focusing on the role of testosterone
23 in establishing 'fairness' in women's sport argue, given the biological and genetic diversity
24 of human bodies there can be no fairness in sport, and any attempt to create one can only ever
25 be inconsistent and discriminatory. Indeed, elite sport *relies* on variations in individual
26 physiologies, abilities and psychologies within its categories – age, sex/gender, weight – in
27 order to create exciting competition and growth in performance outcomes.

28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 **What effects are produced by this representation of the problem, such as on** 38 **women born with DSDs?**

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41 Bacchi (2009, 15) next encourages one to assume that “some problem representations create
42 difficulties (forms of harm) for members of some social groups more so than for members of
43 other groups”. Hence, in using contested science to protect the idea of a fair or a level-
44 playing field for women's athletics, IAAF/WA policies further normalise historical, social
45 and cultural assumptions and knowledges that: a) women are defined by bounded
46 endocrinological terms, thus pathologising intersex variations and women's bodies; b)
47 women are less physically capable than men, and; c) women's sport must be protected and
48 thus sex/gender must remain a fundamental and necessary classification in how we play
49 sport. Collectively, these assumptions lead to the normalisation of men's sport as superior,
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3 with women's sporting classification still fighting for recognition and resources. The
4
5 continuing lack of resources for women's participation in sport remains a significant barrier
6
7 to their development as athletes in comparison to boys/men, as do many of the cultural
8
9 limitations placed on girls/women in many societies (Benn and Dagkas 2013, McLachlan
10
11 2019).

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13
14 These are broader social effects, however there are also more personal and harmful
15
16 impacts (Bacchi 2009) on the athletes whose bodies come under suspicion or are accused of
17
18 being a DSD 'relevant' athlete. The most obvious is the invasion of athletes' privacy both
19
20 through the patronising of their bodies through medical procedures, and then by international
21
22 audiences, with private information about women athletes' bodies made public without their
23
24 permission. Semenya herself has spoken about this issue, linking it to issues of human rights:
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30 Since my victory in the female 800 meter event at the Berlin World Championships in
31
32 August last year, I have been subjected to unwarranted and invasive scrutiny of the most
33
34 intimate and private details of my being. Some of the occurrences leading up to and
35
36 immediately following the Berlin World Championships have infringed on not only my
37
38 rights as an athlete but also my fundamental and human rights including my rights to
39
40 dignity and privacy (The Guardian 2010).

41
42 Sexuality and sex/gender can be fraught issues in diverse national, cultural and religious
43
44 communities, so the public release of private information about athletes' health and bodies
45
46 might have additional, isolating effects for athletes in their sports, families and communities.
47
48 For example, after a gender verification following her silver-medal-win at the 2006 Asian
49
50 Games in Doha, Indian middle-distance runner, Santhi Soundarajan, was stripped of her
51
52 medal and banned from further competing (Mitra 2014, Soundarajan 2012). In addition to
53
54 these impacts, she was confused as to why she was required to undergo testing:
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58 I do not know, who has told them that I am not a woman. I have told them that I am a
59
60 woman... Nobody has [ever] questioned me. All the other athletes treated me as a female

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3 and as a friend... I did not think otherwise. I felt like a girl, like a woman only. I want to
4 live like a woman and stay a woman only (Soundarajan 2012).
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8 Soundarajan came to know about the verdict after seeing it reported on the news. She felt
9 discriminated against by the Indian Olympic Association officials as they did not take an
10 interest in supporting her investigation into the gender allegations, nor did they trust her
11 identification as a woman – pushing her to attempt suicide (Soundarajan 2012). What may
12 further explain the poor treatment of Soundarajan, besides the fact that she was interrupting
13 normative sex/gender/body/embodiment idea(1)s is that she belongs to the lowest caste of
14 Indian society – the Dalits (Shapiro 2012). Even though the caste system has been legally
15 banned, it still has a strong influence on how persons from different castes are treated socio-
16 politically in India (Rao 2010).
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28 These cases highlight how the recent IAAF/WA policies privileges White, Western
29 women in women's sport, and is having disproportionate effects on Black, Indigenous and
30 women athletes of colour, whose bodies are targeted as "suspicious" (Karkazis et al. 2012,
31 Karkazis and Jordan-Young 2018, 26). Even White, women athletes competing against
32 Semenya have attacked her publicly. In 2009, the New York Times reported that, "Some of
33 Semenya's competitors in the 800 meters considered the issue straightforward after Semenya
34 romped to a commanding victory at the world championships Wednesday. 'Just look at her,'
35 said Mariya Savinova of Russia, who finished fifth" (Clarey and Kolata 2009). Similarly, the
36 Italian competitor Elisa Cusma, "who was sixth, told Italian journalists: 'These kind of
37 people should not run with us. For me, she's not a woman. She's a man'" (Clarey and Kolata
38 2009).
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54 Retired athlete, Madeleine Pape competed as an 800-metre runner at the same 2009
55 events as Semenya and admits to being part of these attacks. She changed her perspective
56 during her PhD studies in Sociology, which led her to question the assumptions underpinning
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3 her thinking about the role of testosterone in women's sport. Pape wrote about her change of
4
5 mind in 2016, where she highlighted the racialised aspects of the issue and the IAAF/WA
6
7 policy:
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11 Semenya is a black, queer, tomboy from South Africa, making her a marginal character
12
13 in a sport that is predominantly straight, historically dominated by White Europeans,
14
15 organised around strict gender segregation and objectification of women's bodies, and
16
17 where women are often fairly feminine in their self-presentation. I do not think these
18
19 details are peripheral to the story, I think they are at the heart of it (Pape 2016).

20
21 Further to this Pape suggests "Perhaps the worst part is that we – female athletes – police
22
23 ourselves by policing Semenya and others who we presume to have intersex characteristics.
24
25 We are scared to see in Semenya a champion worth celebrating" (Pape 2016).

26
27 Pape's comments reflect racialised assumptions about authentic forms of femininity
28
29 that are embedded in IAAF/WA policies and practices related to relevant DSD characteristics
30
31 as a measure of sex/gender verification. White, women athletes are seldom scrutinised as
32
33 they, arguably, visually conform to Western imagined ideals about femininity and female-
34
35 ness (Camporesi in Kessel 2018). While women from eastern European countries were
36
37 previously in focus, in the recent past Black women and women of colour have had a
38
39 disproportionately high rate of investigation (e.g. Semenya, Soundarajan, the Simpore sisters,
40
41 Chand) (Bavington 2016, Brömdal 2013). Karkazis and Jordan-Young (2018) highlight that
42
43 the policy of suspicion-targeted testing is based on appearance and success; the default
44
45 femininity in global sport remains that of cisgendered, White women. Hence, by embedding
46
47 policy that regulates women with particular DSDs as ensuring 'fairness' for all, sports
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49 organisations embed (endo)sexist, racist ideas about the women who participate in sport.
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3 **How and where have these representations been produced, disseminated, and**
4 **defended? How could they be questioned, disrupted, and replaced?**
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8 The last question within the WRP approach extends Question Three, and “directs attention
9
10 to...the possibility of challenging [these] problem representations that are judged to be
11
12 harmful” (Bacchi 2009, 19) and explore how one can reframe the issue at stake. As we have
13
14 seen, the problem of regulating sex/gender in elite women’s sport is linked to historical and
15
16 contemporary assumptions about women in sport and society. In the context of elite athletics,
17
18 the IAAF/WA have been the key institution in producing, disseminating and defending
19
20 current iterations of this problem, including how women are able to be ‘defined’, along with
21
22 some sport science researchers and media sources. Questions and disruptions also come from
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24 researchers and media sources but are driven by the activism of impacted athletes and human
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26 rights groups.
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31 Much scientific research about sport normalises ideas about men as athletes, as well
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33 as pathologising women athletes’ bodies, especially intersex bodies. The discrimination flows
34
35 from the assumptions and methodologies used to produce knowledge which stems from the
36
37 scientists and policymakers themselves. Driving this is 1) the continued dominance of men
38
39 and patriarchal structures in leadership and policy-making roles across sporting
40
41 organisations; and 2) the influence of these men in actively leading research projects and
42
43 ‘producing’ data to support IAAF/WA’s political agenda of policing women’s sporting
44
45 classifications, particular for intersex women. Men in positions of organisational power, are
46
47 able to make decisions about female and intersex athlete’s bodies – about what is normal and
48
49 correct – while framing these decisions in terms of fairness and protected by misplaced
50
51 narrative of care for women’s health. More specifically, the majority of medical experts
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53 named in the 2011 and the current IAAF/WA policy include mainly men and a few women in
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55 Western research and medical institutions who have long-standing relationships with the
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3 IAAF/WA/IOC/national sporting organisations, and have produced research informing and
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5 justifying the IAAF'/WAs past and present political agenda governing particular intersex
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7 women elite athletes (Bermon et al. 2013, Bermon et al. 2015, Elsas et al. 2000, Ljungqvist
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9 and Simpson 1992, Bermon and Garnier 2017, Bermon et al. 2018, Handelsman, Hirschberg,
10
11 and Bermon 2018).

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14 For example, Angelica Lindén Hirschberg, Stéphane Bermon, and colleagues
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16 (Hirschberg 2020, Hirschberg et al. 2020) have also had research funded by the International
17
18 Athletics Foundation tasked with informing and legitimising the current eligibility policy.
19
20 During 2017-2018 the authors conducted a trial study with physically active and healthy
21
22 women aged 18-35 years, and randomly gave them a daily 10mg testosterone cream or a
23
24 placebo cream for 10 weeks. Based on the authors' findings "that exogenous testosterone
25
26 elevates the muscle mass and improves the physical performance of young, physically active
27
28 women" it is "unfair to allow female athletes with endogenous testosterone levels in the male
29
30 range... to compete against those with normal female androgen levels" (Hirschberg 2020,
31
32 R81 & R87). While their claims are confident, their results are unconvincing; the project rests
33
34 on assumptions about testosterone as a defining physiological characteristic for regulating
35
36 participation in elite women's sport and standardising the normal range of testosterone levels
37
38 for all women. Here we must remember that men have no endocrinological definitions that
39
40 limit their participation, instead, as suggested earlier, they are allowed to take testosterone
41
42 supplements to elevate their levels for health reasons. The associations of these research
43
44 projects, reproducing and defending IAAF/WA's existing agenda, raises many questions
45
46 about research ethics/integrity, methodologies, conflicts of interests, and research funding
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48 distributions.
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55 Other researchers have also been important in challenging IAAF/WA's policies.

56 While this includes biomedical researchers, it has been scholars in the humanities and social
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3 sciences who have been vocal in their critiques of the IAAF/WA policies. The scope of this
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5 work runs throughout our discussion and includes scholars from fields as diverse as
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7 sociology, history, bioethics, and political science.
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10 Although the IAAF/WA argue that they are ‘detecting’ and ‘solving’ potential future
11 health problems in the best interests of the athlete (2011, 2019), the lack of care for athletes’
12 health and wellbeing in the pursuit of “fairness” extends to the lack of consideration of the
13 consequences of medical interventions into bodily and hormone modification for intersex
14 athletes specifically. This is one area medical professions have been active in challenging the
15 IAAF/WA’s policies and narratives about the effects of testosterone and hyperandrogenism
16 on women’s sport. In April 2019, prior to the CAS ruling, the World Medical Association
17 (WMA) issued a statement that “called on physicians around the world to take no part in
18 implementing new eligibility regulations for classifying female athletes” (2019b). At their
19 Council meeting, “the WMA demanded the immediate withdrawal of the regulations” and
20 argued the new policy regulations “constitute a flagrant discrimination based on the genetic
21 variation of female athletes and are contrary to international medical ethics and human rights
22 standards” (2019b). Their position was based on ethical concerns related to athletes’ health,
23 including the IAAF/WA encouraging athletes to take “unjustified” medical products and
24 engage in unwarranted medical procedures (WMA 2019b). The WMA also raised concerns
25 about the validity of the science that supports the IAAF/WA policy, which they argue is
26 “based on weak evidence from a single study, which is currently being widely debated by the
27 scientific community” (2019b).
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52 **Conclusion**

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54 The IAAF/WA’s representations of intersex women’s testosterone levels in female elite
55 sports as a problem that requires governing solutions to ensure competitive fairness draws on
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3 narrow, binary and normative assumptions about what constitutes being a woman in elite
4 sports. The IAAF/WA policy strongly suggests that “the broad class of female athletes” are in
5 need of and will “benefit” from ‘protection’ against a particular cohort of women who
6 challenge IAAF/WA’s political mission to “ensure fair and meaningful competition within
7 the female classification” (2019, 3). These representations also legitimately label these
8 athletes as a group of women who in a utilitarian fashion ‘needs’ to be “discriminated”
9 against to achieve IAAF/WA’s mission of “preserving the integrity of female athletics”
10 (Schultz 2019a, CAS, 2019a). Challenging these binary, endosexist and normative
11 assumptions about who is allowed to compete in elite sports, requires ongoing bioethical and
12 human rights advocacy work.
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26 In line with WMA, we strongly agree that “it is the ethical duty of physicians to
27 respect the dignity and integrity of people” aside from what their gender identity or biological
28 sex configuration may be and “medical treatment for the sole purpose of altering the
29 performance in sport is not permissible” (2019a). Considering the current political landscape
30 in track and field, athletes are currently positioned to pick between “an impossible set of
31 choices” (Karkazis and Carpenter 2018, 586). As such, we hope that that the days when
32 doctors, physicians, sporting bodies, and their allies can “through humiliation, stigmatization,
33 and fear” (Karkazis and Carpenter 2018, 586) govern, institutionalise and standardise bodies
34 of women athletes with 46 XY DSD with elevated testosterone levels to eligibly compete in
35 the female classification, *should* hopefully soon be over.
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