



Sports Economics, Management and Policy  
*Series Editor: Dennis Coates*

Kirstin Hallmann  
Karen Petry *Editors*

# Comparative Sport Development

Systems, Participation and Public Policy

 Springer

# **Sports Economics, Management and Policy**

*Series Editor*

Dennis Coates

For further volumes:

<http://www.springer.com/series/8343>



Kirstin Hallmann • Karen Petry  
Editors

# Comparative Sport Development

Systems, Participation and Public Policy

 Springer

*Editors*

Kirstin Hallmann  
German Sport University Cologne  
Cologne, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Germany

Karen Petry  
German Sport University Cologne  
Cologne, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Germany

ISSN 2191-298X

ISBN 978-1-4614-8904-7

DOI 10.1007/978-1-4614-8905-4

Springer New York Heidelberg Dordrecht London

ISSN 2191-2998 (electronic)

ISBN 978-1-4614-8905-4 (eBook)

Library of Congress Control Number: 2013953695

© Springer Science+Business Media New York 2013

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are reserved by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed. Exempted from this legal reservation are brief excerpts in connection with reviews or scholarly analysis or material supplied specifically for the purpose of being entered and executed on a computer system, for exclusive use by the purchaser of the work. Duplication of this publication or parts thereof is permitted only under the provisions of the Copyright Law of the Publisher's location, in its current version, and permission for use must always be obtained from Springer. Permissions for use may be obtained through RightsLink at the Copyright Clearance Center. Violations are liable to prosecution under the respective Copyright Law.

The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use.

While the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication, neither the authors nor the editors nor the publisher can accept any legal responsibility for any errors or omissions that may be made. The publisher makes no warranty, express or implied, with respect to the material contained herein.

Printed on acid-free paper

Springer is part of Springer Science+Business Media ([www.springer.com](http://www.springer.com))

# Preface

The ideas behind this book grew out of discussions of research on sport participation. Assessing different issues in this regard such as measuring sport participation and its different approaches and the underlying policies of the different countries, it became evident that comparative books in this regard were scarce. The starting point for this book was thus initiated at the workshop ‘Myths and facts about sports participation’ of the 2011 Play the Game Conference which was held in Cologne based on discussions with colleagues from Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Hungary and the Netherlands.

We discussed the idea of this book with Dennis Coates, the editor of this book series on ‘Sports Economics, Management and Policy’, and decided thereafter to not only take a European perspective but to investigate ‘Sport Development – Systems, Participation and Public Policy’ from a truly global perspective. That is why countries from all continents were included.

We would like to thank Dennis Coates for supporting us with the book and the team at Springer.

We would like to thank in particular all colleagues contributing to this book and also our research students Sören Dallmeyer, Bernardo Fiorini, Tobias Freund and Magnus Metz for their efforts in preparing the final version of this book.

We sincerely hope that the book will stimulate and provoke further discussions on the subject.

Cologne, Germany

Kirstin Hallmann  
Karen Petry



# MEASURE (Meeting for European Sport Participation and Sport Culture Research)

MEASURE was founded in 2010 by the Mulier Institute/NL and the KU Leuven/BE. MEASURE is a Network of social scientists and statisticians with an interest in sport participation issues. The letters in MEASURE stand for Meeting for European Sport Participation and Sport Culture Research. The reference to ‘culture’ expresses that debates over sport participation within MEASURE are not restricted to share numbers and statistics. It is understood that in order to be able to explain differences in sport participation, one needs to understand the position that sports hold within society at large and the broader culture of which sport is part and parcel. Analyses of these (sporting) cultures may include quantitative as well as qualitative methods, albeit that the former are generally more predominant than the latter within the MEASURE context.

The objectives are to

- *Improve the access to reliable sport participation data and the possibility for researchers to exchange information*
- *Improve the quality of sport participation data*
- *Improve the understanding of differences in sport participation between countries and social groups*
- *Raise interest in sport participation research among policymakers*

To reach these goals, the MEASURE network meets once or twice a year, often in combination with well-attended international conferences. In addition, a website (<http://www.measuresport.eu>) is maintained to gather and disseminate relevant recent research reports and policy documents.





# Contents

<b>1 Introduction</b> .....	1
Kirstin Hallmann and Karen Petry	
<b>2 Belgium: Flanders</b> .....	7
Jeroen Scheerder and Steven Vos	
<b>3 Cyprus</b> .....	23
Nicos L. Kartakoullis and Christina Loizou	
<b>4 Estonia</b> .....	33
Lennart Raudsepp, Vahur Ööpik, and Peeter Lusmägi	
<b>5 Finland</b> .....	47
Hanna Vehmas and Kalervo Ilmanen	
<b>6 France</b> .....	61
Christoph Fischer	
<b>7 Germany</b> .....	75
Karen Petry and Kirstin Hallmann	
<b>8 Hungary</b> .....	87
Szilvia Perényi	
<b>9 Ireland</b> .....	101
Ann Bourke	
<b>10 The Netherlands</b> .....	119
Remco Hoekman and Koen Breedveld	
<b>11 Poland</b> .....	135
Jolanta Żyśko	
<b>12 Spain</b> .....	149
Fernando Lera-López and Enrique Lizalde-Gil	

<b>13 UK: England</b> .....	167
Chris Gratton, Peter Taylor, and Nick Rowe	
<b>14 China</b> .....	181
Fan Hong, Liu Li, Min Ge, and Guan Zhixun	
<b>15 Japan</b> .....	193
Mitsuru Kurosu	
<b>16 India</b> .....	211
Packianathan Chelladurai, Usha Nair, and Sheila Stephen	
<b>17 Australia</b> .....	225
Graham Cuskelly, Pamela Wicker, and Wendy O'Brien	
<b>18 New Zealand</b> .....	237
Geoff Dickson and Michael Naylor	
<b>19 South Africa</b> .....	253
David Maralack, Marion Keim, and Christo de Coning	
<b>20 Uganda</b> .....	269
Sandra S.B. Kasoma	
<b>21 Mexico</b> .....	281
Isra Villalpando Arzamendi	
<b>22 Brazil</b> .....	301
Ana Cláudia Couto, Mauricio Couto, Cláudio Boschi, and Kátia Lemos	
<b>23 United States</b> .....	311
Jane E. Ruseski and Negar Razavilar	
<b>24 Canada</b> .....	323
Alison Doherty and Ryan Clutterbuck	
<b>25 Conclusion</b> .....	343
Kirstin Hallmann and Karen Petry	

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

**Kirstin Hallmann and Karen Petry**

This section starts giving an overview about why governments implement sport policies and finance sport. Thereafter, details about the comparative approach as well as the structure of the different book chapters – which is similar for all chapters – are provided highlighting the different sections and raising arguments for including particular elements. Finally, a summary of the countries presented in this book is given.

There is a widespread interest to describe and analyze national sport systems in the past 10 years. Groups of researchers in Europe (like MEASURE or COMPASS)<sup>1</sup> as well researchers from an international perspective discuss the different sport structures, responsibilities of stakeholders, financial issues, sport participation, and organization as well as elite sport structures. There are notwithstanding several works that have presented and analyzed some of these issues such as sport development (Houlihan and Green 2008; Houlihan and White 2002), sport participation (Nicholson et al. 2011; Scheerder et al. 2011; van Bottenburg et al. 2005), national sport policy (Chalip et al. 1996; Henry and Ko 2013), and sport systems (Tokarski et al. 2004; Tokarski et al. 2009). The main reason for the comparison is to learn from each other and to understand the cultural and political circumstances of each nation involved.

---

<sup>1</sup>MEASURE stands for “Meeting for European Sports Participation and Sport culture Research,” while COMPASS stands for “Community of Providers of Physical Activity and Sports.”

K. Hallmann (✉)

Institute of Sport Economics and Management, German Sport University Cologne,  
Cologne, Germany  
e-mail: k.hallmann@dshs-koeln.de

K. Petry

Institute of European Sport Development and Leisure Studies, German Sport University  
Cologne, Cologne, Germany  
e-mail: Petry@dshs-koeln.de

Cultural values, historical contexts, and political configurations of a nation are evident in their sport system (Heinemann 2005). Sport is important for governments and offers several effects: athlete's success at major sport events may lead to increased pride and a feel-good factor (Forrest and Simmons 2003; Breuer and Hallmann 2011; Allmers and Maennig 2009), though this might be only short term (Kavetsos and Szymanski 2010), and increased number of physically active people (Rahmann et al. 2000) which in turn could lead to increased health and subsequently to disburden the health system (Jinxia 2011). These facts underline the interrelationship of elite sport and sport for all.

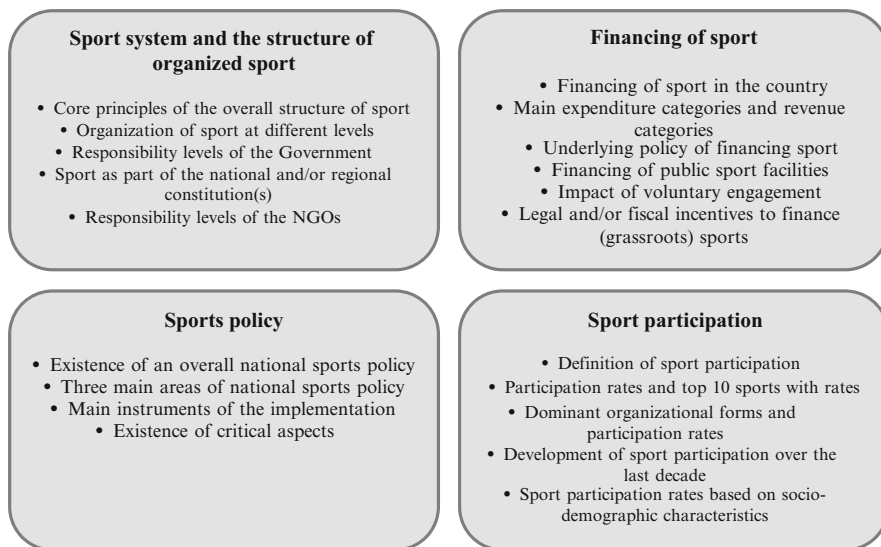
The significance of taking part in sports for health and well-being has been shown in several studies (e.g., Fox 1999; Galloway and Jokl 2000). Taking into account raising concerns for health issues such as obesity and the role of sport participation in improving this area of individual's lives has become integral for policy makers. Considering additionally that sport does not only play a major role for health but also for integration and social inclusion (Heinemann 2005), it becomes obvious that sport development at the crossroad of systems, participation, and public policy is vital for national governments.

## 1.1 Transnational and Comparative Approach of the Book

The aim of this book is to provide an overview of perspectives and approaches to sports development focusing on four themes: sport systems, financing of sport, public policy towards sports, and sport participation using a comparative perspective. This shall facilitate an understanding for the diversity of sport systems and its underlying cultures.

As outlined by Henry and the Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy (2007) and Henry and Ko (2013), the methodology in comparative and transnational sports policy research is sometimes not very well outlined, and there is a lack of discussion regarding the problematic issue of how to compare different sport systems. Their approach is a fourfold typology, defining the following types of comparative analysis (Henry and Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy 2007, p. 22 ff.): Type 1 "Seeking similarities statistically," Type 2 "Describing differences," Type 3 "Theorizing the transnational," and Type 4 "Defining discourse."

For this book, we considered it as useful to look mainly at the differences (and sometimes similarities). When describing differences, it is obvious that the distinctive features of a society or country are in the center of the attention and some other relevant aspects are not mentioned. The advantage of this type of approach is the significance of the historical dimension and the consideration of the overall societal framework of the sport system in a country. As stated by Henry and Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy (2007, p. 27), "comparison of a large number of exemplar states, or policy systems, is not possible because of the complexity of detailed analysis and description, and thus the core problem for the 'describing differences' approach is that of validation of interpretation and moving beyond the descriptive."



**Fig. 1.1** Comparative focus of the book

We decided for this book to use nonetheless Henry's second type (focusing on differences) and to try to draw a clear picture of what is in place in a range of different countries. Critical readers could complain that this approach is superficial since we do not go far beyond the descriptive. After careful consideration we argue that collecting information facilitates the status quo to create actually the necessary transparency for a comparative discussion (going thus beyond mere description). The comparative aspect is nonetheless immanent in all chapters since all authors were asked to follow a strict set of guidelines. Additionally, the conclusion of this book discusses a range of differences facilitating the comparative approach more. Further (deeper) analyses might be afterwards necessary in order to fulfill the next steps in comparative research of national sport systems.

Furthermore, the information provided in the different chapters by the authors represents the current state of knowledge in the respective country. These vary immensely, as the reader will experience. All authors have compiled the information as well as it was possible by answering questions relating to the four mentioned themes. Figure 1.1 provides an overview about the themes the authors were asked to tackle in their country chapters.

A clear set of guidelines as well as a fixed structure was used (see Fig. 1.1) to describe the sport systems of nations based on governmental, intermediary, and nongovernmental structures at national, regional, and local levels (Tokarski et al. 2004). All authors were asked to provide this structure of their nation's sport system indicating hierarchical relationships, voluntary memberships, and financial resources in a figure. This figure is a simplified map of existing organizations and shows the relationships and dependencies of the relevant stakeholders. As it is not possible to map the complexity of the overall national sport structure, some relevant

stakeholders are not integrated into the structure (such as the Paralympic Movement, commercial providers, or physical education in schools).

Another key aspect of this book is to compare how sport is financed in the different countries. Without doubt, sport has a financial (economic) impact for states. As Pawlowski and Breuer (2012) pointed out, it is possible to distinguish between four cost and benefit categories, namely, sport-related direct income (e.g., taxes), societal benefits (e.g., health, integration), sport-related direct expenditure (e.g., public funding of sport), and the abdication of sport income (e.g. subsidies and tax-exempt; p. 2). This categorization is very useful but clearly indicates how problematic it is to assess all financial impact, in particular intangible benefits such as increased health and well-being. As a consequence, a particular focus is set on financing the sport system, but also (if data was available) on sport facilities since they are a pivotal prerequisite to take part in particular sports.

In addition, the contribution of volunteers was also analyzed since they are in many countries, especially in those where the sport system is based on voluntary organizations, the backbone of the sport system. That is why their contribution shall also be investigated.

Furthermore, the most relevant sport policy documents that contribute to a wider notion of sport within the society are described. The authors were asked to mention the overall national sports policy (if existing) and to describe three main areas of national sports policy (such as health, sports for all, social inclusion, racism and violence, elite sport development, anti-doping, and development policy). Furthermore, main instruments of the implementation (such as law, programs, and interventions) and critical aspects are (in some cases) mentioned.

Sport participation shall be investigated in the lens of policy that includes the existence of national participation surveys. Emphasis shall be laid on participation rates in general, top 10 sports, and organizational forms. Thus, the following issues were suggested to include in this section: (1) clear definition how sport participation is usually measured in the country and what it entails (e.g., 30-min physical activity including walking the dog at least once a week), (2) participation rates in general, (3) top 10 sports and the participation rates for it, (4) dominant organizational forms and participation rates for the different organizational forms (e.g., nonprofit sport clubs and commercial sport centers), (5) development of sport participation over the last decade and eventual changes, and (6) sport participation rates based on sociodemographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, income, and migration background/ethnicity). Nicholson et al. (2011) already noted several differences with regard to sport participation in different countries, and Scheerder and colleagues (Scheerder et al. 2011) have emphasized the different research traditions in the field of sport within the European Union. These notions shall be extended by this section.

All authors were invited to add what was called “specific application” relating to any of the issues raised in the particular country chapter to provide additional insights. The following countries chose this option with the following themes: Ireland (emphasis on the sport system within the regular chapter structure), The Netherlands (sport facilities), Spain (sport consumption), and Canada (athlete development model).

Consequently, the comparative focus of this book is facilitated by the country chapters and their equal structure and finally by the conclusion focusing on the four main issues and analyzing the main differences (and some similarities) between the selected countries.

## 1.2 Selection of Countries

The discussion includes 12 European countries covering all regions of Europe, presenting a unique and European perspective, on the one hand, and compares it, on the other hand, with 11 additional countries from around the globe. The objective is to reflect on the diversity of approaches taken to sport development, focusing on the different sport systems (e.g., voluntary sport clubs versus state) and how sport is financed, the underlying applications of sport policy and how it is reflected in sport participation. The country selection was based on these objectives and since the idea to edit this book was based on thoughts and initiatives within Europe to sum up the different research traditions on policies and participation. Starting from 12 European countries, additionally countries from all other continents (Africa, Asia, North America, Oceania, and South America) were included to broaden the perspectives. Obviously, accessibility to authors in this particular field also mattered, so that sometimes a pragmatic approach was also taken. The countries included from Europe are Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, The Netherlands, Poland, Spain, and the UK accounting for Northern and Southern as well as Western and Eastern Europe. From the other continents China, Japan, India, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Uganda, Mexico, Brazil, the USA, and Canada were included. Some of those countries are integrated for the first time in edited books in the area of sport development, policy, and participation.

## References

- Allmers, S., & Maennig, W. (2009). Economic impacts of the FIFA Soccer World Cups in France 1998, Germany 2006, and outlook for South Africa 2010. *Eastern Economic Journal*, 35(4), 500–519.
- Breuer, C., & Hallmann, K. (2011). *Die gesellschaftliche Relevanz des Spitzensports in Deutschland*. Köln: Sportverlag Strauß.
- Chalip, L., Johnson, A., & Stachura, L. (1996). *National sports policy*. London: Greenwood Press.
- Forrest, D., & Simmons, R. (2003). Sport and gambling. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, 19(4), 598–611.
- Fox, K. R. (1999). The influence of physical activity on mental well-being. *Public Health Nutrition*, 2, 411–418.
- Galloway, M. T., & Jokl, P. (2000). Aging successfully: The importance of physical activity in maintaining health and function. *The Journal of the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons*, 8(1), 37–44.
- Heinemann, K. (2005). Sport and the welfare state in Europe. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 5(4), 181–188.



- Henry, I., & Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy. (2007). *Transnational and comparative research in sport – globalisation, governance and sport policy*. London: Routledge.
- Henry, I., & Ko, L.-M. (2013). *Routledge handbook of sport policy*. London: Routledge.
- Houlihan, B., & Green, M. (2008). *Comparative elite sport development*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Houlihan, B., & White, A. (2002). *The politics of sports development*. London: Routledge.
- Jinxia, D. (2011). The Beijing games, national identity and modernization in China. *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, 27(16–18), 2798–2820.
- Kavetsos, G., & Szymanski, S. (2010). National well-being and international sports events. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 31(2), 158–171.
- Nicholson, M., Hoye, R., & Houlihan, B. (2011). *Participation in sport – international policy perspectives*. London: Routledge.
- Pawlowski, T., & Breuer, C. (2012). *Die finanzpolitische Bedeutung des Sports in Deutschland*. Wiesbaden: Springer Gabler.
- Rahmann, B., Weber, W., Groening, Y., Kurscheidt, M., Napp, H.-G., & Pauli, M. (2000). *Sozio-ökonomische Analyse der Fußball-Weltmeisterschaft 2006 in Deutschland: Gesellschaftliche Wirkungen Kosten-Nutzen Analyse und Finanzierungsmodelle einer Sportgroßveranstaltung*. Köln: Sport und Buch Strauß.
- Scheerder, J., Vandermeerschen, H., van Tuyckom, C., Hoekman, R., Breedveld, K., & Vos, S. (2011). *Understanding the game: sport participation in Europe: Facts, reflections and recommendations*. Leuven: Katholieke Universiteit Leuven.
- Tokarski, W., Petry, K., Groll, M., & Mittag, J. (2009). *A perfect match? Sport in the European Union*. Maidenhead: Meyer & Meyer.
- Tokarski, W., Steinbach, D., Petry, K., & Jesse, B. (2004). *Two players – one goals? Sport in the European Union*. Oxford: Meyer & Meyer.
- van Bottenburg, M., Rijnen, B., & van Sterkenburg, J. (2005). *Sports participation in the European Union*. Nieuwegein: Arko Sports Media.

# Chapter 2

## Belgium: Flanders

Jeroen Scheerder and Steven Vos

### 2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the governmental as well as nongovernmental organization of sports in Belgium will be discussed. However, in the framework of this book, it is not possible to present an in-depth analysis. Therefore, this contribution should be considered as a brief overview of the most relevant features of sport policy and sport participation in Belgium. First, we describe the sport system, including the core principles of the organization of sport in Belgium. Second, attention is given to the financing of sport, with a special focus on household expenditures on sport as well as the economic equivalence of sport volunteerism. Third, the sport policies of the three communities are shortly described. In the last section, the focus is on the active involvement in sport. Here, sport participation rates and trends are studied, along with the issue of social stratification. Due to the specific political structuration of Belgium, the present study mainly focuses on the sport system and sport participation in the northern part of this country, that is, Flanders. Future research is needed to present a more complete study of sport policy and sport participation for the country as a whole.

---

J. Scheerder (✉)

Policy in Sports and Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology,  
University of Leuven, Leuven, Belgium  
e-mail: jeroen.scheerder@faber.kuleuven.be

S. Vos

Policy in Sports and Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology,  
University of Leuven, Leuven, Belgium

School of Sport Studies, Fontys University of Applied Sciences, Eindhoven,  
The Netherlands

e-mail: steven.vos@faber.kuleuven.be; steven.vos@fontys.nl

## 2.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

### 2.2.1 Core Principles of the Organization of Sport

The overall structure of sport in Belgium can be explained by the so-called Church Model of Sport (Scheerder et al. 2011b). This model (see Fig. 2.1) provides an alternative for the pyramid model of sport, which is considered as a prototype of club-organized sport. However, with regard to the sport pyramid, some critical comments can be made (see, e.g., Eichberg 2008; Palm 1991; Renson 1983). Among others, this model is a hierarchical representation of sport with grassroots sport at the bottom and elite sport at the top of it. Although elite sport is based on mass sport – for example, for the recruitment of potential talents – a growing part of the world of sport no longer fits into the hierarchical structure of the pyramid model. In fact, there is a strong growth of non-club-organized sport activities such as running, recreational biking, and recreational walking (see further in this chapter). These so-called light communities in sport are growing in popularity (Scheerder and Vos 2011). Moreover, club-organized sport is becoming a smaller part of the mass sport picture (Scheerder et al. 2011a).

According to the Church Model, performance sport and participation sport are both responsible for the largest portion of active sport participation. They coexist and form the main body of the church (see Fig. 2.1). The tower of the church represents high-level competitive sport and elite sport. This tower is built on a limited part of the performance sport basis, as many people participate in sport for health

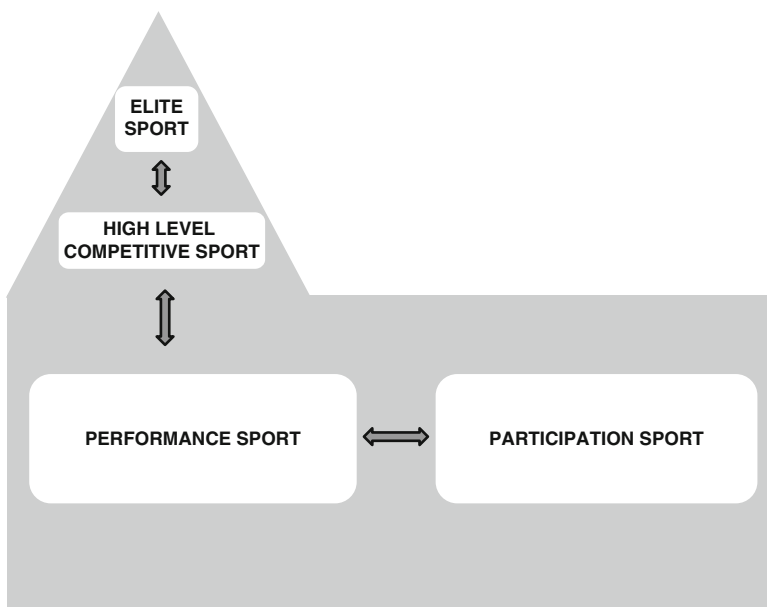


Fig. 2.1 The Church Model of Sport (Scheerder et al. 2011b, p. 8)

and social reasons, but do not care so much about winning, records, or high-level performances (Scheerder et al. 2011b).

## ***2.2.2 The Organization of Sport***

### **2.2.2.1 The Federal State of Belgium**

Belgium is a regulated welfare state in Western Europe with a population of 11 million. Its policy corresponds to the Rhineland model which is based on consensus, a long-term policy vision, an active involvement from the government, and social entrepreneurship (Albert 1991, 1992). Belgium is a federal state whose political power and institutions are separated into three levels: (i) a federal government, (ii) three community governments (Flemish Community, French Community, and German-speaking Community), and (iii) three regional governments (Flemish Region, Walloon Region, and Brussels-Capital Region). As a part of the cultural sphere, governmental competences with regard to sport, such as the organization of sport, the sport policy planning, and the subsidizing of sport federations, are the exclusive responsibility of the three communities (Scheerder et al. 2011a).

### **2.2.2.2 The Governmental Structure of Sport**

The organization of sport in Belgium is strongly influenced by the structure of the Belgian state (Scheerder et al. 2011a; Vanreusel et al. 1999). The political institutions of the communities and regions (parliament, government, and public administration) represent a significant amount of legislative and executive power as regards the policy matters prescribed by the Belgian Constitution. Communities have authority in fields such as culture, education, health, and social welfare. As a consequence, after 1970 (i.e., the constitutional revision in Belgium), no national governmental system on sport exists in Belgium anymore. However, this does not mean that there are no national, nongovernmental organizations for sport (Scheerder et al. 2011a).

The legislative power and the executive power are distinguishing features within the political representation, whereas the public administration can be characterized by development and evaluation agencies on the one hand and implementation and inspection agencies on the other. All of these governmental functions are institutionalized at the levels of the communities, provinces, and municipalities, but not at the national level due to the political structure of Belgium. Hence, every language area has its own political representation institution, public administration, and advisory body regarding sport matters (except the bilingual Brussels-Capital language area; Scheerder et al. 2011a). Thus, the Flemish Community, the French Community, and the German-speaking Community each have the opportunity to work out their own policy in the field of sport.

As the process of federalization has been gradually implemented from the 1970s onwards, sport policies to a large extent differ between the three communities. At present, each of the three communities in Belgium has its own policy structures and

legal instruments (e.g., decrees) to rule sport matters. Consequently, the communities regulate, among others, the recognition and subsidizing of community sport federations, the qualification of persons responsible for managing sport, and the coordination of elite sport through the community ministry in charge of sport competences.

Due to the separated sport policy by the communities, the national sport federations need to have autonomous wings within their organization in order to qualify for state subventions. Belgian sport federations, however, still exist, but usually they merely function as a national umbrella to represent the country in international sport organizations and competitions (Scheerder et al. 2011a).

A key element in the governmental organization of sport policy in Belgium is the principle of subsidiarity, as is the case for most of the (Western) European countries (Scheerder and Vermeersch 2009). Subsidiarity is one of the main features of federalism. It is an organizing principle laying down that matters ought to be handled by the lowest possible political and administrative level and as close to the citizens as possible.

Figure 2.2 displays the organization of sport (i) at the national, regional, and local level and (ii) for governmental, intermediary, and nongovernmental structures. As regards the regional and local level, the focus is on Flanders.

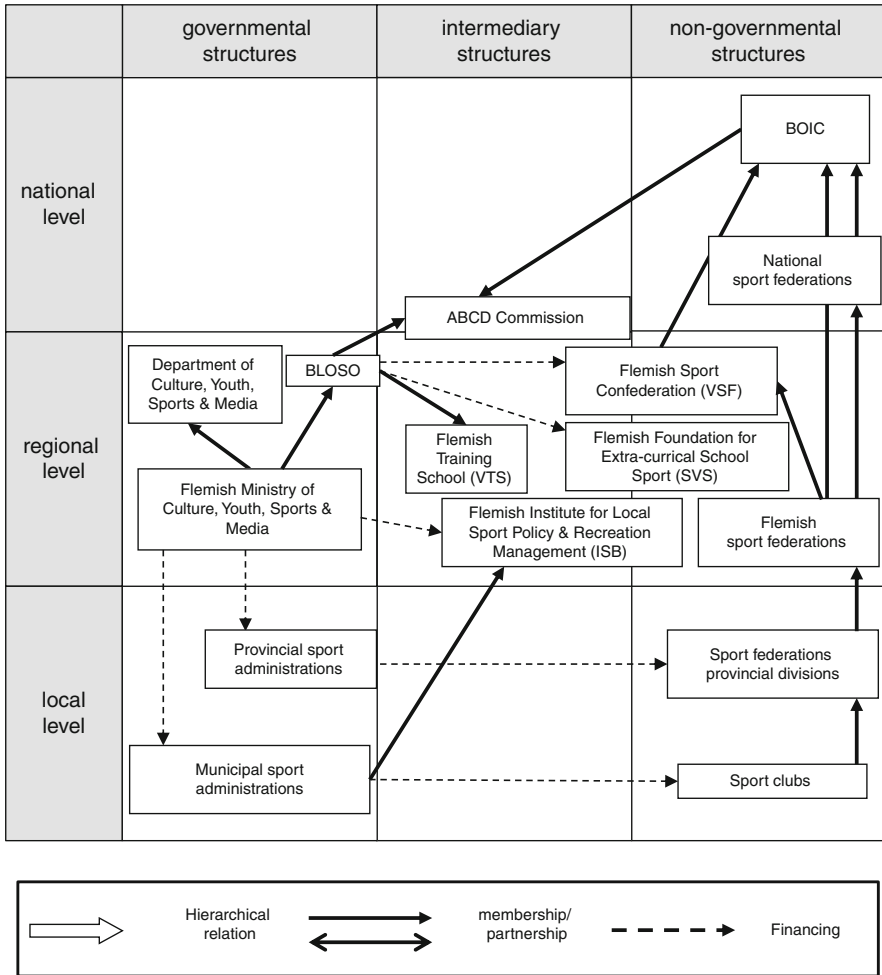
### 2.2.2.3 State, Civil Society, and Market

Like in most Western European countries, in Belgium leisure-time sport has traditionally been dominated by voluntary sport clubs, driven by voluntary work (Taks et al. 1999). During the last two decades, however, the monopoly of sport clubs has dwindled. As a consequence, the actual provision of mass sport is characterized by a complex mixture of three main types of providers: nonprofit sport clubs as a prototype of the voluntary or civic sector, local sport authorities as a prototype of the public or state sector, and for-profit fitness and health clubs as a prototype of the commercial or market sector (Scheerder et al. 2011b, c; Vos 2012; Vos et al. 2012a).

In Flanders there are about 23,900 sport clubs and sociocultural associations with a sport program (i.e., 20,147 sport clubs; see Table 2.1), of which almost 7 out of 10 belong to a sport federation that is recognized and/or subsidized by the Flemish government (Scheerder et al. 2011b; Van Lierde and Willems 2006). The total number of sport federations in Flanders, including non-recognized federations, is 182 (Scheerder et al. 2011a).

In Wallonia, there are 6,300 sport clubs (Scheerder et al. 2011a). Compared to European standards, Flanders and Wallonia have a dense network of sport clubs: for every 100,000 inhabitants there are 319 clubs in Flanders and 190 clubs in Wallonia (Zintz and Bodson 2007).

Although civil society with its sport clubs and light sport communities still plays an important role in Belgium as regards the organization of sport practices, it is also clear that its function is increasingly challenged by the growing impact of the market (e.g., fitness and health clubs, bowling centers, dancing studios, and indoor kart racing clubs). At present, there are about 778 fitness clubs in Belgium. Most of them are located in Flanders, in the neighborhood of cities (Scheerder et al. 2011a).



**Fig. 2.2** The organization of sport in Belgium/Flanders. Note: *BLOSO* Agentschap voor de Bevordering van de Lichamelijke Ontwikkeling, de Sport en de Openlucht recreatie, Flemish Sport Administration, *BOIC* Belgian Olympic and Interfederal Committee, *ABCD* uses the first letter of four organizations that it consists of, namely, ADEPS (Administration de l'Éducation Physique, du Sport et de la Vie en Plein Air as Walloon Sport Administration), *BLOSO*, *COIB* (Comité Olympique et Interfédérale Belge, Belgian Olympic Committee), and Deutschsprachige Gemeinschaft (German-speaking Community in Belgium)

**Table 2.1** Number of sport organizations in the public, civic, and commercial sector in Belgium

	Flanders	Wallonia	Brussels-Capital Region
Provincial sport authorities	5	5	–
Municipal sport authorities	308	44	19
Sport federations	182	Not available	–
Sport clubs	20,147	6,300	1,562
Fitness and health clubs	453	249	76

Source: Scheerder et al. (2011a)

Besides the sport federations and their clubs, in Flanders and Wallonia there also exist separated umbrella organizations for (i) sport federations, (ii) municipal sport services, and (iii) extracurricular sport in schools (see Fig. 2.2). The umbrella sport federation in Flanders is the *Vlaamse Sportfederatie*, abbreviated as VSF (Flemish Sport Confederation). In the French Community the coordinating organization is the *Association Interfédérale du Sport Francophone* (AISF) or Sport Confederation of the French Community. In total, the VSF and AISF have around 140 member federations. There are also umbrella organizations with regard to the municipal sport services and the extracurricular sport in schools (Scheerder et al. 2011a).

The Belgian Olympic and Interfederal Committee (BOIC) can be considered to be the main and almost only coordinating sport organization at the national level in Belgium (Scheerder et al. 2011b). It is in charge of the selection and sending of athletes to international sport competitions such as the Olympic Games and the World Games. In order to fulfill the previous missions in the Belgian federal state where the communities have the responsibilities for elite sport as well as for Sport for All, an ABCD Commission [A (ADEPS<sup>1</sup>), B (BLOSO<sup>2</sup>), C (COIB<sup>3</sup>), D (Deutschsprachige Gemeinschaft)] exists (see Fig. 2.2). The aim of the ABCD Commission is to ensure the subsidiarity between the respective partners in order to avoid that contradictory decisions with regard to elite sport would be taken (Scheerder et al. 2011a).

## 2.3 Financing Sport

In line with the community competences with regard to sport, the public financing of sport is the responsibility of the communities and also of the provinces and municipalities. To our knowledge detailed data on this topic are only available for the authorities in Flanders. Hence, in this section we will focus on the financing of sport in this community.

### 2.3.1 Funding of Sport in Flanders

Public funding is crucial for both grassroots sport and elite sport in Flanders. In a study by Késenne et al. (2007), both regular and non-regular public financial flows

---

<sup>1</sup> Administration de l'Éducation physique, du Sport et de la Vie en Plein Air (Public Administration for Physical Education, Sport and Outdoor Recreation).

<sup>2</sup> Agentschap voor de Bevordering van de Lichamelijke Ontwikkeling, de Sport en het Openluchtlevens (Public Agency for the Promotion of Physical Development, Sport and Outdoor Recreation).

<sup>3</sup> Comité Olympique et Interfédéral Belge/Belgisch Olympisch en Interfederaal Comité (Belgian Olympic and Interfederal Committee).

**Table 2.2** Public funding for sport in Flanders in 2004, in EUR

	EUR
Regular funding	432,419,000
Flemish Community	101,666,000
Provinces	16,429,000
Municipalities	314,324,000
Non-regular funding	66,032,703
Flemish Community	28,033,246
Federal authorities	37,999,457
<b>Total</b>	<b>498,451,703</b>

Source: Késenne et al. (2007)

in Flanders were calculated. Regular financial flows cover funding by central and local government agencies with formal competences regarding sport. Non-regular financial flows refer to public spending by other public bodies, such as the National Lottery and tourism agencies. In 2004, central and local governments have spent about half a billion euros on sport (see Table 2.2). The majority of this is covered by regular financial flows (i.e., EUR 430 million). Municipalities are responsible for about 75 % of the regular public funding in Flanders. These local governments receive funds from the central Flemish government to develop their local Sport for All policy (Vos 2012). By means of these financial resources, municipalities, among other things, pay specific attention to the support of voluntary sport clubs and the inclusion in sport of specific target groups. The subsidizing of voluntary clubs is one of the main competences of local governments. For its part, the central Flemish government is responsible for the recognition and subsidizing of community sport federations. Késenne et al. (2007) have calculated that about 85 % of the regular public funding is spent on grassroots sport.

### 2.3.2 Household Expenditures on Sport

A recent study commissioned by the European Commission estimated the funding for grassroots sport in all 27 member states (see Eurostrategies 2011). According to this study, households in Flanders are the main contributor to financing of sport. Their contribution accounts for 57 % of all revenues allocated to the sport sector (Eurostrategies 2011). Local authorities were found to contribute twice more than the federal government to the funding of sport (Eurostrategies 2011).

Scheerder et al. (2013) have estimated the economic significance of the sport industry in Flanders. Based on household expenditures on sport, it was estimated that the sport industry in Flanders accounts for EUR 3.5 billion, or almost 2 % of the gross regional product in Flanders. This estimation does not take public funding into account. The economic significance of the sport apparel industry is estimated around EUR 1.5 billion (Scheerder et al. 2013).



### ***2.3.3 Voluntary Engagement in the Flemish Sport Club Sector***

In Flanders there is a growing debate on the professionalization of nonprofit sport clubs (such as more paid staff) and the remuneration of sport volunteers. Approximately 417,000 volunteers (i.e., 18,000 FTEs) are active in the Flemish club-organized sport sector. The majority of these FTEs hold management positions (i.e., 11,982 FTEs; Vos et al. 2012a).

In a recent study by Vos et al. (2012a), the economic value of the voluntary engagement in sport clubs was calculated based on a market price of equivalency model. The economic value of the voluntary work in the sport club sector, taking the different function levels into account, is estimated around EUR 420 million per year, or 0.2 % of the gross regional product in Flanders. Three quarter of the economic value is covered by management positions (i.e., EUR 295 million). In the same study the hypothetical HR cost of volunteer work in nonprofit sport clubs was compared with the actual HR cost of for-profit sport providers (i.e., fitness and health clubs). The results show that fitness and health clubs are found to be more efficient, in terms of the unit human resources cost. However, nonprofit sport clubs have a distinctive economic structure and own rationality. Hence, it seems not appropriate to transfer the economic efficiency approach of for-profits blindly to nonprofit sport clubs as the added value of volunteer work to individuals, organizations, and the society as a whole (cf. positive externalities) is neglected (Vos et al. 2012a).

Albeit that volunteer workers *stricto sensu* are not paid for their activities, a growing tendency to reward volunteers is noticed (Vos et al. 2012b). Reimbursements beyond the scope of regulations and labor law can be considered as expressions of undeclared work. Legal refund schemes were found to be used in an improper way. Reimbursement schemes provided by law are often used to pay wages and, hence, cover undeclared work. A respectable number of sport volunteers in Flanders were found to be undeclared workers, especially people holding sport technical functions (cf., qualified people). A substantial number of these people have another job in which social security contributions are paid. Because of the importance of (qualified) volunteers for the viability of nonprofit sport clubs, and the sport sector in general, probably a new statute that tackles the gray zone between unpaid volunteer work (except for the reimbursement of real costs) and paid work may be necessary (Vos et al. 2012b).

## **2.4 Sport Policy**

As already mentioned above, in Belgium the Flemish Community, the French Community, and the German-speaking Community each have their own policy in the field of sports. The two large communities (i.e., Flanders and Wallonia) show differences with regard to their sport policy. Sport policy in Wallonia, the

French-speaking southern part of Belgium, is characterized more or less by regulation and monitoring. Flanders, the Dutch-speaking northern part of Belgium, has a strong civic involvement in sport (Vos et al. 2013). Since the sport policy in Flanders is characterized by a strong commitment to the Sport for All ideology, this policy system will be shortly described in this section.

At the end of the 1960s, Flanders was, together with the Nordic countries, one of the pioneering regions in Europe to launch large-scale Sport for All campaigns (Scheerder et al. 2013; Vanreusel et al. 2002). In recent years, the subsidiarity principle has been emphasized in Sport for All policies, laying down that matters need to be handled by the least centralized competent authority.

As mentioned before, the central Flemish government is responsible for the recognition and subsidizing of community sport federations. In contrast, the support and subsidizing of voluntary sport clubs is the main competence of local governments (i.e., municipalities). This was emphasized in 2007 by issuing a new decree concerning Sport for All policy at the local level (Vos 2012). Crucial in this legislation is the decentralization of sport policy actions, as well as the emphasized role of local sport authorities as regulators of grassroots sport policies. Local sport authorities in Flanders (i.e., municipalities;  $N=308$ ) receive funds from the central Flemish government to develop Sport for All policies (i.e., an annual financial support of about EUR 14 million for a 6-year period). According to the 2007 decree, local authorities in Flanders had to develop a sport policy plan for the 2008–2013 period. In this policy document, strategic and operational goals are presented with regard to the organization and the support of grassroots sport. A participative, bottom-up approach was followed in the elaboration of the sport policy plans.

Thus, central policy objectives are built into conditioned subsidies that are used by the local authorities for their Sport for All policy programs towards, among others, the sport clubs.

## 2.5 Sport Participation

Sport participation data covering Belgium are lacking. Due to the divided sport policy system in Belgium (see above), no national research tradition into active sport participation exists. Moreover, the use of different definitions and methodologies makes it difficult to compare the findings from available studies as regards the three communities in Belgium. From a European perspective, Van Tuyckom and Scheerder (2010) showed that in Belgium 64 % of the population aged 15 and older are actively partaking in leisure-time sport, whereas the average sport participation rate for the EU-27 member states equals 61 %. For Flanders, however, sport participation data are available from 1969 onwards (Scheerder and Vos 2011), whereas for Wallonia sport participation figures are somewhat scarce and more limited. Hence, the focus for this section is on Flanders.

### **2.5.1 Definition**

In Flanders a broad definition of sport participation is used. It is defined as a physical activity that requires a sufficient rate of exertion and that takes place in a sportive context (Scheerder et al. 2002, 2005). It refers to nonprofessional participation in leisure-time sport, over a 1-year period, prior to the investigation. Organized and non-organized physical sport activities as well as recreational and competitive physical sport activities are included. The level, the frequency, the context, nor the location of the sport involvement is decisive to be considered as a sport participant. Recreational pastimes like recreational biking and recreational walking, as well as season-related sports such as sailing or skiing, are included as leisure-time sport activities. Club-organized sports are those sports that take place in the context of a sport club. It includes competitive and/or recreational sport activities. Non-organized sport consists of all leisure-time sport activities, with the exception of club-organized sport (Scheerder and Vos 2011).

### **2.5.2 Participation Rates**

Most recent data for Flanders are available for 2009. In 2009, sport participation has become a leisure-time physical activity in which over 6 out of 10 adults are actively involved. Almost 9 out of 10 children (6–12 years of age; 89 %) and youngsters (13–18 years of age; 86 %) are actively involved in leisure-time sports. In 2009, 25 % of the adults in Flanders participated in a sport club. About 50 % of the children (50.8 %) and youngsters (52.2 %) are a member of one or more sport clubs (Scheerder et al. 2013).

Apart from the traditional sport clubs, other organizational arrangements such as so-called light sporting communities and commercial sport providers arise (Scheerder and Vos 2011). Sport participants such as recreational bikers, runners, swimmers, and recreational walkers join each other in self-organized groups and/or participate in light sporting settings such as cycle rides, city runs, and walking tours. An overview of the 10 most practiced sports confirms this trend (see Table 2.3).

These days, running, recreational biking, and swimming make up the top three of the most popular sport activities among adults. Fitness and recreational walking complete the top five. All of these sports can be easily practiced without the need for a strong club structure and membership. Therefore, they can be defined as typically individual and free-booting sports (Scheerder and Vos 2011; Scheerder et al. 2013).

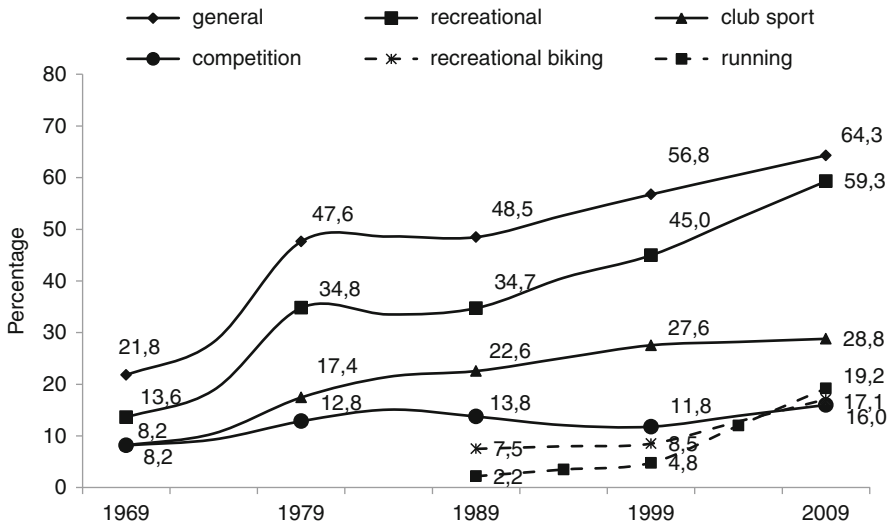
### **2.5.3 Trends in Sport Participation**

Data are available from five large-scale surveys used to collect information on sport participation of households in Flanders. Data were gathered in 1969, 1979, 1989, 1999, and 2009 (Scheerder et al. 2013). The data allow for a time-trend analysis of

**Table 2.3** Sport preferences among children, youngsters, and adults in Flanders in 2009

	Children (6–12 years of age)	Youngsters (13–18 years of age)	Adults
1	Recreational swimming	Recreational swimming	Running
2	Soccer	Soccer	Recreational biking
3	Recreational biking	Recreational biking	Swimming
4	Dancing	Running	Fitness
5	Gymnastics	Dancing	Walking
6	Tennis	Fitness	Tennis
7	Skiing	Tennis	Soccer
8	Swimming	Skiing	Skiing
9	Horse riding	Badminton	Cycle touring
10	Basketball	Volleyball	Mountain bike

Source: Scheerder et al. (2013)



**Fig. 2.3** Time-trend analysis of active sport participation among 12–75-year-old people in Flanders, 1969–2009. Source: Scheerder et al. (2013)

active sport involvement over a period of 40 years. In each wave the same standardized questionnaire was used in order to collect information on leisure-time sport activities of school-aged children and their parents.

From Fig. 2.3 it can be seen that sport participation among 12–75-year-old people in Flanders in general has increased over the last four decades. Once considered as an exceptional form of behavior, active participation in sport nowadays has evolved to an accepted and even normative lifestyle behavior. The most spectacular increase in the level of sport participation can be situated during the 1970s. At that time ambitious Sport for All campaigns were launched in order to stimulate the population to participate in leisure-time sport. Similar to the growth in sport

participation between the 1960s and 1970s, also the last decade is characterized by a relatively strong increase of leisure-time sport participants (Scheerder et al. 2013).

There is a clear rise of non-organized sport participation (see Fig. 2.3). In contrast, sport club participation has only slightly risen during the past decades. This implies that the rise of sport participation in Flanders can be mainly put on the account of non-organized sport participants. Along with this development, the participation in light sporting communities has grown in popularity.

#### ***2.5.4 Social Stratification of Sport Participation***

Once an activity practiced mainly by men, sport participation in Flanders has become gender neutral in 2009. Nowadays, women have caught up with their male counterparts. This trend started since the late 1970s, where the sport participation difference between women and men started to diminish (Scheerder and Vos 2011). On the one hand, with regard to the organizational context of sport participation, the results are scattered. Gender differences are found for club-organized sport participation. Sport active men are more involved in a sport club than women, whereas a decade before (i.e., late 1990s) no gender differences could be found. However, both among men and women, sport club memberships decreased in the last decade. On the other hand, no gender differences could be found regarding non-organized sport participation. In the last decade large numbers of men and women have become non-organized sport practitioners (Scheerder and Vos 2011; Scheerder et al. 2013).

Over the last four decades, there has been an increase in sport participation for all age groups, but differences between the age groups still remain. People between 35 and 49 years of age show the highest levels of sport participation. People under 35 and over 49 years of age have a slightly lower participation rate. Except for people between 45 and 49 years of age, the participation in club-organized sport has decreased for all age groups in the last decade. Contrary, participation in non-organized sport increased. The youngest and the oldest adults are less likely to partake in club-organized sport. No differences, however, can be noticed for the participation in non-organized sport (Scheerder and Vos 2011; Scheerder et al. 2013).

With regard to educational status, in Flanders active involvement in sport is still socially stratified. People with a higher educational status are more likely to be involved in active sport. Over the years, however, there has been an increase in sport participation for all educational status groups (Scheerder and Vos 2011; Scheerder et al. 2013).

## **2.6 Conclusion**

In this chapter, the governmental as well as nongovernmental organization of sport in Belgium is discussed. Moreover, the most relevant features of sport policy and sport participation in Belgium are presented. Belgium is a federal state whose

political power and institutions are separated into three levels. As a part of the cultural domain, governmental competences with regard to sport are the exclusive responsibility of the three communities (i.e., the Flemish Community, the French Community, and the German-speaking Community).

The sport system in Belgium is strongly influenced by the federal structure of the Belgian state. Due to the specific political structuration of Belgium, this chapter mainly focused on the sport system in the northern part of this country, that is, Flanders.

Public funding is crucial for both grassroots sport and elite sport in Flanders. Municipalities are responsible for about 75 % of the regular public funding in Flanders. These local governments receive funds from the central Flemish government to develop their local Sport for All policy. Households in Flanders are the main contributor to financing of sport. According to Scheerder et al. (2013), the sport industry in Flanders, based on household expenditures on sport, accounts for EUR 3.5 billion, or almost 2 % of the gross regional product in Flanders. Last but not least, it is shown that also sport volunteerism has a considerable significance. The economic value of the voluntary work in the sport club sector is estimated around EUR 420 million per year or 0.2 % of the gross regional product in Flanders.

With regard to sport policy, each community in Belgium has its own policy in the field of sports. The two large communities (i.e., Flanders and Wallonia) show differences with regard to their sport policy. The sport policy in Wallonia, the French-speaking southern part of Belgium, is characterized more or less by regulation and monitoring. Flanders, the Dutch-speaking northern part of Belgium, has a strong civic involvement in sport. In recent years, the subsidiarity principle has been emphasized in Sport for All policies, laying down that matters need to be handled by the least centralized competent authority. Central policy objectives are built into conditioned subsidies that are used by the local authorities for their Sport for All policy programs towards, among others, the sport clubs.

In Flanders, sport participation has become a leisure-time physical activity in which over 6 out of 10 adults are actively involved. Once considered as an exceptional form of leisure behavior, active participation in sport nowadays has evolved to an accepted and even normative and gender neutral lifestyle behavior. A quarter of the adults in Flanders participate in a sport club. Apart from the traditional sport clubs, other organizational arrangements such as so-called light sporting communities and commercial sport providers are on the rise. These days, running, recreational biking, and swimming are the most popular sport activities among adults. Fitness and recreational walking complete the top five. With regard to educational status, active involvement in sport is still socially stratified. People with a higher educational status are more likely to be involved in active sport.

## References

- Albert, M. (1991). *Capitalisme contre capitalisme [Capitalism versus capitalism]*. Paris: Editions du Seuil.
- Albert, M. (1992). The Rhine model of capitalism: an investigation. *European Business Journal*, 4(3), 8–22.

- Eichberg, H. (2008). *Pyramid or democracy in sports? Alternative ways in European sports policies*. <http://www.idrottsforum.org/articles/eichberg/eichberg080206.pdf>
- Eurostrategies. (2011). *Funding of grassroots sport in the EU*. Brussels: Eurostrategies.
- Kéenne, S., Vanreusel, B., Van Langendonck, N., & Steens, G. (2007). *Publieke geldstromen voor de sport in Vlaanderen [Public funding of sport in Flanders]*. Brussels: Steunpunt Sport, Beweging & Gezondheid.
- Palm, J. (1991). *Sport for all: Approaches from utopia to reality* (Sport Sciences Studies, Vol. 5). Schorndorf: Hofmann.
- Renson, R. (1983). Sport for all. New perspectives in text and context. In A. Van Lierde, & L. De Clercq (Eds.), *Evaluation of the impact of sport for all policies and programmes* (1st meeting of the European project group, Dudzele, 1983) (pp. 121–135). Brussels: BLOSO.
- Scheerder, J., & Vermeersch, A. (2009). Sport en beleid in Europees perspectief. Een inleidend kader [European sports policy. An introduction]. In J. Scheerder, C. Van Tuyckom, & A. Vermeersch (Eds.), *Europa in beweging. Sport vanuit Europees perspectief [Europe on the move. Sports from a European perspective]* (Management & Governance in Sport, Vol. 1). (pp. 3–50). Ghent: Academia Press.
- Scheerder, J., & Vos, S. (2011). Social stratification in adults' sports participation from a time-trend perspective. Results from a 40-year household study. *European Journal for Sport and Society*, 8(1/2), 31–44.
- Scheerder, J., Vanreusel, B., Taks, M., & Renson, R. (2002). Social sports stratification in Flanders 1969–1999 intergenerational reproduction of social inequalities? *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 37(2), 219–245.
- Scheerder, J., Vanreusel, B., Taks, M., & Renson, R. (2005). Social stratification patterns in adolescents' active sports participation behaviour: a time trend analysis 1969–1999. *European Physical Education Review*, 11(1), 5–27.
- Scheerder, J., Thibaut, E., Pauwels, G., Vandermeerschen, H., & Vos, S. (2011a). *Sport in clubverband (Deel 1). Analyse van de cluborganiseerde sport in Vlaanderen [Analysis of club-organised sport (Part 1)]* (Sport Policy & Management, Vol. 8). Leuven: KU Leuven/Research Unit of Social Kinesiology & Sport Management.
- Scheerder, J., Vandermeerschen, H., Van Tuyckom, C., Hoekman, R., Breedveld, K., & Vos, S. (2011b). *Understanding the game: sport participation in Europe. Facts, reflections and recommendations* (Sport Policy & Management, Vol. 10). Leuven: KU Leuven/Research Unit of Social Kinesiology & Sport Management.
- Scheerder, J., Zintz, T., & Delheye, P. (2011c). The organisation of sports in Belgium. Between public, economic and social profit. In C. Sobry (Ed.), *Sports governance in the world: A socio-historic approach. The organization of sport in Europe: A patch-work of institutions, with few shared points* (pp. 84–113). Paris: Le Manuscrit.
- Scheerder, J., Vandermeerschen, H., Borgers, J., Thibaut, E., & Vos, S. (2013). *Vlaanderen sport! Vier decennia sportbeleid en sportparticipatie [Sport in Flanders! Four decades of sport policy and sport participation]* (SBS Series, Vol. 5). Ghent: Academia Press.
- Taks, M., Renson, R., & Vanreusel, B. (1999). Organised sport in transition; development, structure and trends of sports clubs in Belgium. In K. Heinemann (Ed.), *Sport clubs in various European countries* (Series club of Cologne, Vol. 1, pp. 183–223). Cologne: Hofmann & Schattaer.
- Van Lierde, A., & Willems, T. (2006). Hoe goed zit het met de Vlaamse sportclubs? [Sports clubs in Flanders: How are they doing?]. In P. De Knop (Ed.), *Sportbeleid in Vlaanderen: studies [Sports policy in Flanders: Research studies]* (Vol. 2, pp. 127–135). Brussels: BLOSO.
- Van Tuyckom, C., & Scheerder, J. (2010). Sport for All? Insight into stratification and compensation mechanisms of sporting activity in the EU-27. *Sport, Education & Society*, 15(4), 495–512.
- Vanreusel, B., Renson, R., & Tolleneer, J. (1999). Divided sports in a divided Belgium. In J. Sugden & A. Bairner (Eds.), *Sport in divided societies* (pp. 97–111). Aachen: Meyer & Meyer Sport.

- Vanreusel, B., Taks, M., & Renson, R. (2002). Belgium-Flanders: Origins, development and trends of sport for all. In L. P. DaCosta & A. Miragaya (Eds.), *Worldwide experiences and trends in sport for all* (pp. 379–400). Oxford: Meyer & Meyer Sport.
- Vos, S. (2012). *Triangle relationships in mass sport provision. Analysing similarities, differences and interorganisational relationships across civic, public and market sectors*. Ghent: Academia Press.
- Vos, S., Breesch, D., Késenne, S., Lagae, W., Hoecke, J. V., Vanreusel, B., & Scheerder, J. (2012a). The value of human resources in non-public sports providers: The importance of volunteers in non-profit sports clubs versus professionals in for-profit fitness and health clubs. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 11(1), 3–25.
- Vos, S., Breesch, D., & Scheerder, J. (2012b). Undeclared work in non-profit sports clubs: A mixed method approach for assessing the size and motives. *Voluntas*, 23(4), 846–869.
- Vos, S., Wicker, P., Breuer, C., & Scheerder, J. (2013). Sports policy systems in regulated Rhineland welfare states: similarities and differences in financial structures of sports clubs. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 5(1), 55–71.
- Zintz, T., & Bodson, D. (2007). *Enquête sur les pratiques sportives des jeunes de 6 à 18 ans en Communauté française de Belgique 2006–2007*. Brussels: Communauté française de Belgique/Ministère des Sports.



# Chapter 3

## Cyprus

Nicos L. Kartakoullis and Christina Loizou

### 3.1 Introduction

The Republic of Cyprus became an independent state in 1960. It has an area of 9,250 km<sup>2</sup> and a population of approximately 800,000. It became a member of the United Nations in 1960, of the Council of Europe in 1961, and of the European Union in 2004. Since 1974, it has been divided de facto, and efforts to reunify the island have not yet been successful. Cyprus is considered a soccer-loving nation given the substantial attendances in soccer matches as well as the extensive coverage of the sport in the media. It is not surprising, therefore, that when the two big soccer teams of the country play against each other, they attract crowds of more than 25,000 people, which is indeed big, considering the small size of the country.

### 3.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

Sports strategic planning and policy is under the auspices of the Cyprus Sport Organization (CSO), which is the highest sports authority in the Republic of Cyprus. The Cyprus Sport Organization is a legal entity according to the provisions of the Law of 41/1969 and is responsible for both competitive and mass sport. The CSO is governed by a Board of Directors composed of nine members: a president plus eight members, which are appointed by the President of the Republic and the Council of Ministers. The CSO provides financial support, develops infrastructure, and monitors the work of National Sports Federations and sports clubs at all levels, from competitive to mass sport, including grassroots sports. The National Federations are

---

N.L. Kartakoullis (✉) • C. Loizou  
University of Nicosia, Nicosia, Cyprus  
e-mail: kartakoullis.n@unic.ac.cy; loizou.c@unic.ac.cy

autonomous bodies that operate independently as they conduct their operations based on the principles of the International Sports Federations and the International Olympic Committee.

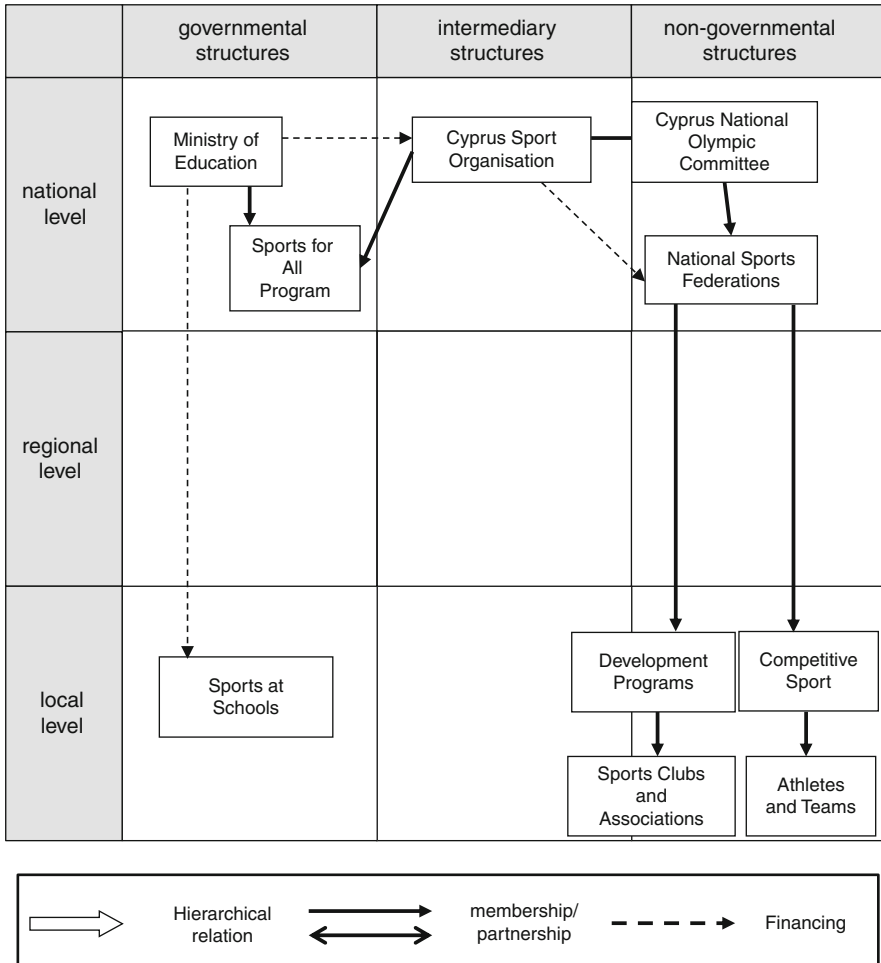
It should be noted that apart from soccer in Cyprus and its governing body, the Cyprus Soccer Association, the rest of the National Sports Federations depend entirely on the funding they receive from the state through the CSO. Apart from the Cyprus Soccer Association, which is financially independent and it employs around 40 people as full-time staff, the rest of the National Federations employ a very small number of full-time staff. The Boards of the National Federations (including part of the Cyprus Soccer Association employees) are composed of volunteers, and National Federations do not have full-time board members. Thus, as it can be realized, sport is managed through a system of volunteers and a small amount of full-time administrators. It has to be noted that the sport system of Cyprus developed over the years based on the volunteer work of people that loved sports, but in many instances they were not properly qualified or well experienced to run sport. In view of this, besides the development of sport, still there are many problems that need to be resolved regarding the management aspect of sport as in many instances many National Federations are poorly run, and this is the result of bad management practices. This is indeed one of the major challenges that the sport system is facing today in Cyprus. The point of limited management capacity is a major gap that has been identified for the sport system in Cyprus, and a major reason for this is that the sport system greatly relies on volunteers (CSO Press-Promotion Office 2011).

The Cyprus National Olympic Committee (Cyprus NOC) is responsible for developing the Olympic Movement and the Olympic ideals in Cyprus in collaboration with the National Sports Federations. They are additionally in charge of the preparation and selection of athletes for international competitions like the Olympic Games, Commonwealth Games, and the Mediterranean Games.

The CSO is a legal entity and is considered to be a semigovernmental organization. It is funded through the government budget each year, and it is in charge of allocating the money to the National Sports Federations. The other sports scheme provided by the CSO is the National Scheme of Developmental Sports Support. The NSDSS basically supports the team sports club academies, but during its course, it also included a small number of individual sports with potential of development and which needed support. The NSDSS covers athletes aged 12–16, while a parallel planning (adolescents) covers ages 16–18 in 3 team sports (basketball, volleyball, and handball) for which the relevant federations organize teenage championships (CSO Press-Promotion Office 2008).

Other stakeholders that provide leisure spots activities provided data regarding programs that they offer and the sports facilities, but there is no real data of the number of people that use these services. The stakeholders who provided information are the following:

- The Ministries of Education (Schools and Continuous Education Programs), Defense (National Guard–Army), and Justice and Public Order (Police Corps and Prisons).
- The municipalities and communities.



**Fig. 3.1** The organization of sport in Cyprus

- The National Sports Federations – federations are also involved in professional sport programs provision and especially in sports academy programs provision.
- Tertiary education institutions – apart from leisure sport, they are also involved in university sports (Fig. 3.1).

### 3.3 Financing of Sport

The CSO receives funding from the government in the form of an annual budget a state subsidy, which is then allocated to the National Sports Federations. A considerable percentage of this money is utilized for the development of infrastructure in

**Table 3.1** Income per item

2011	Euro
State subsidy	36,000,000
Income from the renting of facilities	841,000
Additional income	2,870,010
Loans	850,000
<b>Total income</b>	<b>40,561,110</b>

Cyprus (stadiums, swimming pools, tennis courts, indoor gyms, etc.). In addition to the state support, the CSO raises some income from the renting of sports facilities and from the charges on betting.

As it has already been noted, apart from soccer and the soccer association which is self-sustained, the rest of the National Federations rely entirely on the financial support from the State through the budget of the CSO. For many years this proved to be a successful model, as the CSO developed an allocation point system, on which finances were allocated to the different National Sports Federations. However, in view of the challenging financial times, the government made serious budget cuts for the funding of the sport and the National Sports Federations, something which already has a major negative impact on the development of sport.

The serious budget cuts have two major negative consequences. The first one has to do with the development of sports infrastructure and facilities, which indeed is going to be minimal in view of the fact that funding is very limited. At some stage the sports facilities will need to be upgraded, but money will not be available for this. The second parameter will have to do with the limited funding available to National Sports Federations which will not be able to support athletes for their training and preparation for top-level competitions. Thus, top-level and competitive sport will be affected as well since money coming from sponsorship contracts is very limited, and the great majority of such money available goes to soccer. Other sports, whether team or individual sports, are not that big to attract the attention of sponsors or channels for TV rights like soccer does.

Thus, for example, (Table 3.1) the following table presents this financial information for 2011.

The State subsidized in 2011 the CSO with a total sum of EUR 36,000.000. The CSO based on the allocation point system developed delivered around 50 % of this money to the National Sports Federations for the development of sport. Another 30 % was allocated for the development of sports infrastructure and facilities (mainly maintenance and other works), and the rest was utilized for operating costs. Additional income was raised from the renting of facilities for private events and competitions as well as from registration fees for the sport for all programs.

### 3.4 Sports Policy

The sports policy in Cyprus derives from the Law 41/1969 and gives the charge to the CSO for developing and implementing the sports policy in the country. The Law established in 1969 clearly states that the CSO will be the body in charge for the

development of sport and its educational role. On one side the Ministry of Education is in charge for school sport; on the other side the CSO is responsible for all what concerns school outside schools. Based on the provisions of the Law, the CSO needs to develop a National Sports Policy (Law 41/1969).

The Board of the CSO has developed the 2020 National Sports Policy with the main strategic directions for the next 7 years (Cyprus Sport Organisation 2011). It involves the main strategic areas of development for the years ahead, describing the current situation as well as what is to be achieved. Additionally, with the purpose of monitoring and control, certain basic performance indicators were introduced, to measure if the identified goals are fulfilled or not. The main four areas and strategies of the National Sports Policy are represented in the following section.

The first strategy involves the development of the sport infrastructures, and the main challenge is to upgrade and improve the situation of sport facilities within the country. At the moment only few facilities are in accordance with the international standards; most of them are old and obsolete, and there is a lack of sport infrastructures for the mass sport development. This strategy involves not only the upgrade of facilities or the built of new gyms and fields, but as well the improvement in the utilization of the existing facilities, for both competitive sports and recreational activities. The outcome measured with basic performance indices should result with an increase by 10 % in the utilization time of the facilities and an annual increase by 1 % in the rate of squared meters of sport facilities per citizen including recreational venues. The different National Federations adopt coordinating actions in order to define the needs in the sport field, and local authorities cooperate with the upgrade of sport facilities and establishing administrative policies and action plans with the collaboration of the CSO and the sport institutions.

The second strategy involves more the sport institutions themselves, with the federations' and clubs' competitive programs that aim to increase the general sport involvement in Cyprus and the sport institutions to improve their administrative competences. The data of the CSO report that 70,000 people are involved in the practice of sports, and the main aim of the strategy is to involve more citizens in sport and recreational physical activity, and on the competitive sport side to improve results in national and international competitions in both individual and team sports. Considering the noncompetitive side of sport, an increase by 0.5 % in active sport participation would reach the expectations of the 2020 National Sports Policy (Cyprus Sport Organisation 2011). On the competitive side, the goal is to participate in at least 6 disciplines at the London 2012 Olympic Games, in 6–8 disciplines at the Rio 2016 Olympic Games, and in 8–10 disciplines at the 2020 Olympic Games, winning at least one medal during the 2012 Olympic Games, 1–2 medals during the 2016 Olympic Games, 2–3 medals during the 2020 Olympic Games, and 1–2 medals at the Youth Olympic Games in 2014. Some of these results have already been achieved with the silver medal in sailing, the first time ever in the history of Cypriot sport. Through this strategy, National Federations and the CSO were able to adopt a competitive model for sport development.

At the moment five different national programs for sport are operational in Cyprus: (i) Sport for All, (ii) National Plan for supporting developmental Sports, (iii) Talent Planning, (iv) Elite Category, and (v) Planning High Performance.

The objectives of the third strategy for the CSO, the COC, the National Federations, and the Cyprus Sport Research are to select and valorize talent athletes and provide them the opportunity to qualify during preliminary games in World, European, and International Games with the best possible results, to improve the orientation and guiding in sport practicing, and to follow-up with scientific development in research. National Federations will establish the best practices for sport talents selection supported by scientific methods and research, involving not only athletes but also training of coaches and trainers. The basic performance indices in relation to the Sports for All program define the goal of an increase in the number of members by 1 % in 2011 (155 person), with an annual increase by 0.5 % to reach an overall 4 % (883 persons) within 2020; moreover the aim is to increase by 1–3 % in the number of male and female athletes in developing age (130–400 male and female athletes) and for what concerns the programs related to Talents, Elite, and High Performance Athletes (totaling 110 athletes) an annual increase by 0.5–1 %.

The fourth strategy aims at the development of National Sports programs with the support of the national government and its ministers together with the local authorities and the sport institutions, especially the CSO. The strategy is to develop a new idea, for which sport builds a more cohesive society where people of different nationalities, backgrounds, and abilities will be given the same opportunity to become physically active. For doing this local authorities' institutions need to create sporting conditions for citizens aiming to enhance their health and their quality of life, for example, implementing the activities included in the Action Plan "Pierre de Coubertin" developed by the European Commission in 2007. Moreover sport and governmental institutions need to coordinate efforts and establish efficient communication between them and as well with the citizens. Different initiatives have been launched to put these plans into action, like research of funds from different sources (e.g., private sector), and creating better conditions for contributing into sport on a volunteer basis. The numerical results to be achieved through the basic performance indices are meeting the groups' needs in this area by 50 % annually and support the sport infrastructure of the institutions participating in the program by at least 20 % as required annually.

### 3.5 Sport Participation

The information provided in this chapter is based on findings of a research study conducted by the University of Nicosia in 2012. The study was commissioned by the Cyprus Sport Organization on the occasion of the Cyprus presidency of the Council of Europe for the second half of 2012. The study was titled "Leisure Sports Participation in Cyprus."<sup>1</sup> Two different methods of investigation were used for the

---

<sup>1</sup>"Leisure Sport Participation in Cyprus" (Center for Leisure Tourism and Sport Research and Development 2012), Research Report funded by the Cyprus Sport Organization, prepared by the Center for Leisure, Tourism and Sport Research and Development, presented at the Informal Meeting of Sports Ministers during the Cyprus EU Council Presidency.

**Table 3.2** Sample structure of the 398 subjects who exercise

Gender	Men	52.0 %
	Women	48.0 %
Age	15–24	28.7 %
	25–34	18.9 %
	35–44	15.9 %
	45–59	19.1 %
	60+	17.5 %
District of residence	Nicosia	38.5 %
	Limassol	30.9 %
	Larnaca	17.1 %
	Paphos	10.1 %
	Famagusta	3.3 %
Region of residence	Urban	60.6 %
	Rural	39.4 %

study: one was desk research which included collecting information from main stakeholders in the area of sport service provision and the other was a telephone survey which collected general public's level of engagement in sports and physical activities (Center for Leisure Tourism and Sport Research and Development 2012).

The telephone survey addressed the general population of Cyprus. From the population of citizens of the Republic, aged 15 years or more, which at the time was 562,370, a sample of 1,000 people was drawn, by the method of stratified random sampling. The sample was weighted according to the actual distribution of population by district and region of residence, gender, and age.

The screening question was “During the last 12 months have you engaged in any activity aiming in exercise or athletics?” According to this, the percentage of Cypriots aged 15 and above, who engage in some sort of exercising, is 39.8 %. In the weighted sample this amounts to 398 people. When this is projected to the target population, it can be estimated that during the last year 223,800 of Cypriot citizens aged 15 or above engaged in some sort of exercise.

Results show that there is a slight difference in the percentages by gender. The percentage of men who have exercised during the last year is 42.1 % while that of women is 37.6 %.

Regarding the age variable, the percentage of people who exercise in the age group 15–24 is much higher than the other age groups. In fact, the other age groups are close to each other varying from a low of 31.9 % to a high of 38.8 %. Although this difference is not statistically significant, a slight decrease is observed in the percent which exercises as age becomes older. Thus, those Cypriot citizens who are in the youngest age group have a 55.8 % rate of exercise or involvement in leisure sports. The age groups 25–34 and 35–44 have almost the same rate of exercising at 38.5 % and 38.8 %, respectively. Then there is a 4 % drop to 34.7 % in the age group 45–59. Finally, in the age group 60+, the rate of exercise is at 31.9 %.

From this point onwards the results will be referring only to the 398 who engaged in some kind of sports activity or exercise during the last year. Since this will be the sample for the remaining results, the sample structure is presented in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.3** Most practiced sports

Team sports		Individual sports	
Soccer	13.2 %	Walking	47.6 %
Dancing	5.0 %	Gym (aerobics, Pilates, treadmill)	26.4 %
Basketball	3.8 %	Swimming	9.2 %
Volleyball	2.7 %	Jogging	5.9 %
Futsal	1.7 %	Tennis	3.4 %
		Cycling	1.7 %
<b>Other team sports</b>	<b>6.8 %</b>	<b>Other individual sports</b>	<b>10.4 %</b>

**Table 3.4** Type of sport or exercise engaged (by gender)

	Gender	
	Men	Women
Walking	36.1 %	60.1 %
Gym	23.4 %	29.6 %
Soccer	23.6 %	2.0 %
Swimming	9.4 %	9.0 %
Jogging	6.2 %	5.5 %

At first, these 398 people were asked in which sports or exercise activity they were engaged with during the last year. Each subject mentioned all the sports and exercise activities that they were involved in spontaneously, that is, not from a list. Some subjects stated more than one sports or exercise activities. Specifically, 67.7 % were involved in one activity, 27.2 % in two activities, 4.4 % in three activities, and the remaining 0.7 % in four activities. The type of these activities is presented in Table 3.3.

As far as team sports are concerned, the majority of people were involved in soccer (13.2 %). Other team sports were dancing (5.0 %), basketball (3.8 %), volleyball (2.7 %), and futsal (1.7 %). Some other team sports were mentioned with less than 1 % frequency totaling to 6.8 %.

Walking for exercise purposes<sup>2</sup> was the individual sport that most people engaged in (47.6 %). Many people practice exercise at a gym (26.4 %) at the exercise equipment which is there, or take aerobics courses or Pilates, or, as most do, exercise on the treadmill. In swimming the frequency is 9.2 %. Tennis was practiced by 3.4 % and cycling by 1.7 %. Various other individual sports activities were mentioned with less than 1 % frequency, totaling 10.4 %.

At this point the sports that have frequency more than 5 % are considered for differences with respect to age and gender variables. Sports with frequency less than 5 % were not compared for gender and age due to large statistical error.

The five sports activities presented in Table 3.4 are the most popular leisure sports in Cyprus with a frequency of at least 5 %.

<sup>2</sup>These are people who mainly walk for purposes of exercise and physical activity, which is the main sports activity in older ages.



**Table 3.5** Frequency of exercising (by gender)

	Gender		
	All	Men	Women
More than 3 times per week	68.1 %	73.1 %	62.7 %
1–2 times per week	28.6 %	24.0 %	33.6 %
1–3 times per month	2.2 %	1.8 %	2.6 %
Other	1.2 %	1.2 %	1.2 %

Regarding the age variable, as far as walking is concerned, there is an increasing frequency with increasing age. The opposite occurs with soccer. In dancing, jogging, and gym activities, there is steady higher frequency until the age of 45 and then a sudden drop. Finally, the opposite happens with swimming. There is higher frequency after 45 years old and a sudden drop and then steady frequency until the age of 15 years old.

People were then asked how often they exercise (Table 3.5). They were given four choices to choose from ranging from high frequency (more than 3 times per week) to less often: from 1 to 2 times per week, 1 to 3 times per month to the lowest frequency.

The majority of people exercise regularly and at the highest frequency asked. That is, 68.1 % exercise more than 3 times per week. A significant percentage of people (28.6 %) stated that they exercise 1–2 times per week, while only 4.4 % exercise less than once week. There are no significant differences in the exercise frequency of men and women although we observe a slightly higher frequency in men.

More than 50 % of the respondents (59.7 %) stated they exercise to improve their health status. Entertainment/leisure was mentioned by 44.5 % of the subjects as the reason for exercise, while 21.4 % exercise in order to maintain their form and 20.6 % to control their weight.

### 3.6 Conclusion

Concluding this short account of sports in Cyprus, someone can deduce that Cyprus has a well-developed sport system, which is greatly supported by State funding. It has developed over the years based mainly on the work of volunteers and sport lovers, which is a model that does not serve the sport system anymore because of the development of sport (Kartakoullis 2010). This is a major challenge that sport is facing today on the island where there is an urgent need for a more professionally run sport system. Additionally, in relation to this, it becomes obvious that considerable attention is being devoted over the past few years to develop a sporting culture in Cyprus that will lead to increased sport development at all levels of sport in the country.

## References

- Center for Leisure Tourism and Sport Research and Development. (2012). *Leisure sport participation in Cyprus*. Research report presented at the Informal Meeting of Sports Ministers during the Cyprus EU Council Presidency. Nicosia: Cyprus Sport Organisation.
- CSO Press-Promotion Office. (2008). *White bible for sport in Cyprus*. Nicosia: CSO Press-Promotion Office.
- CSO Press-Promotion Office. (2011). *The voice of sport in Cyprus. Issue I*. Nicosia: CSO Press-Promotion Office.
- Cyprus Sport Organisation. (2011). *The Cyprus sport organization strategy 2020 strategy. Right to physical activity. Citizens in action*. Nicosia: CSO Press-Promotion Office.
- Kartakoullis, N. (2010). Address to the Parliament of Cyprus by the President of the Board of Directors for the budget of the Cyprus Sport Organisation for 2011/2012. Nicosia.
- Republic of Cyprus. (1969). Law 41/1969. Nicosia.

# Chapter 4

## Estonia

Lennart Raudsepp, Vahur Ööpik, and Peeter Lusmägi

### 4.1 Introduction

With a population of 1.4 million, Estonia is one of the smallest countries in the European Union. Beginning with the Estonian Sports Congress II held in 1989, the approach characteristic to European countries has primarily been followed in regard to building the Estonian sport system. The Estonian Sport Charter, passed by the Estonian Sport Congress in 1994, has been followed by a large scale a penetrating requirement of the European Sport Charter – the creation of sporting possibilities for everyone. Today, the sports organizations in Estonia are independent from the governmental structures and entitled to financial support for realizing their goals. Sports organizations of the various types of sports provide the basic of the Estonian sport system, representing around 2,400 sports clubs and 95 sports federations. The umbrella organization for nongovernmental sport is the EOC, which organizes the joint programs and activities of its members and develops and protects the Olympic movement in Estonia.

---

L. Raudsepp (✉)

Institute of Sport Pedagogy and Coaching Science, Faculty of Exercise and Sport Sciences,  
University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia  
e-mail: lennart.raudsepp@ut.ee

V. Ööpik

Institute of Exercise Biology and Physiotherapy, Faculty of Exercise and Sport Sciences,  
University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia  
e-mail: vahur.oopik@ut.ee

P. Lusmägi

Estonian Olympic Committee, Tallinn, Estonia  
e-mail: peeter.Lusmagi@eok.ee

## 4.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

There is balanced cooperation between the state and the sports organizations, and a broad, well-organized, and competent network of sports organizations has developed. State and local government bodies acknowledge the importance of the social, health-enhancing, and economic role of sport in society. The general role and work division between different institutions is based on the Sports Act, including financing. Sports organizations are independent of the state in their decision making, and they have the right to financial or material support in order to realize their objectives. The functions of state and local municipalities are the following: (i) sport legislation – the law most relevant to public sport administration is the Sports Act, which came into force in January 2006. The Sports Act determines the types of sport organizations in Estonia and division of labor between the government and local municipalities in promoting sport for all, top-level sport, and children's and youth sport and organizing sport events as well as the status and public financial support for Olympic winners; (ii) development of infrastructure of sport; (iii) financial support of the voluntary sport sector (supporting local sports clubs and other voluntary sport associations such as municipal sport schools); and (iv) ensuring school physical education (Fig. 4.1).

### 4.2.1 Governmental Sport Organization

Within the government, sport is administered by the Ministry of Culture, which has a Sport Department in its structure. The Ministry's Sport Department deals with matters relating to the development of sport in Estonia, financial support of sport federations, and different sport programs, national and international cooperation and implementation of sport policies. Some areas of sport are also financed and developed by the Ministry of Education and Research, the Ministry of Defense, and the Ministry of Social Affairs.

To offer high-quality training possibilities for talented young athletes, the Ministry of Education and Research financially supports Audentes Sport School in the capital city Tallinn. In cooperation between the Ministry of Culture, the Ministry of Education and Research, and the Estonian Olympic Committee (EOC), a plan is currently in progress for developing a network of youth sport training centers of excellence in other parts of the state as well. Financial support for such centers is expected from state/governmental level as well as from local municipalities and from the EOC. The Government of the Republic has formed the Estonian Sport Council chaired by the Ministry of Culture to coordinate the area of sport involving different ministries, county governments, and local municipalities. The obligation of county governments is the creation of conditions for sporting activities and the monitoring of the use of state budget funds. Local municipalities are responsible for creating sporting conditions in their territory. They plan, construct, and maintain sport facilities; create and maintain institutions (sports schools, sports centers); and support sports organizations working in the public interest.

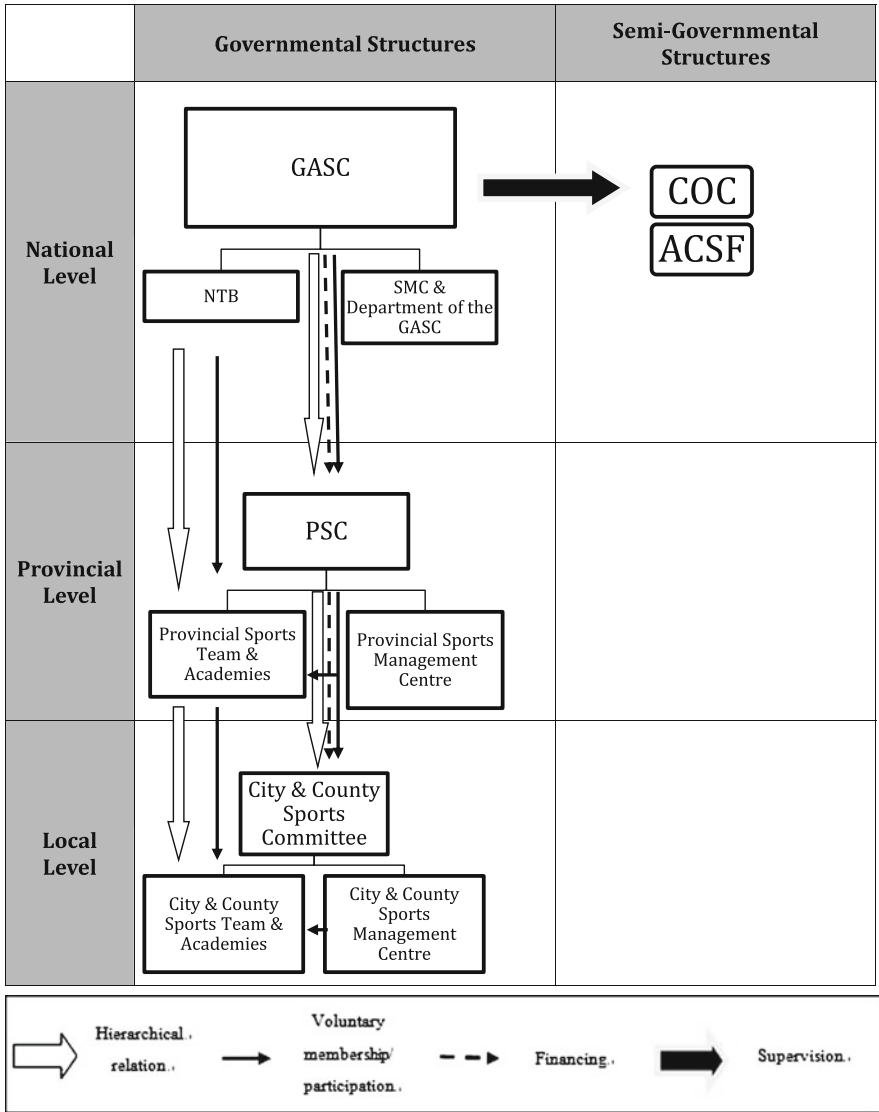
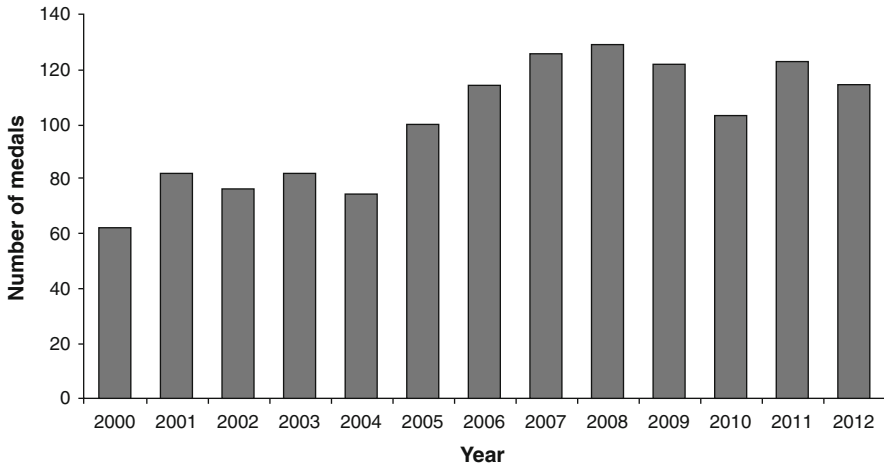


Fig. 4.1 Organizational structure of Estonian sport system

### 4.2.2 Nongovernmental Sport Organization

The umbrella organization for nongovernmental sport is the EOC, which organizes the joint programs and activities of its members and develops and protects the Olympic movement in Estonia. As of 1 January 2013, 62 sports federations, 19 county and city sports unions, and 16 sports associations are members of the EOC. The mission of the EOC is to develop and protect sports and Olympic movement in Estonia in accordance with the Olympic Charter and the Estonian Sport Charter. In



**Fig. 4.2** Performance of Estonian sports at the international level

order to complete its mission, the EOC cooperates with national institutions, other nongovernmental organizations, and businesses.

Sports federations are the nationwide organizations of sports clubs governing a specific sport (e.g., skiing and athletics). These sports federations represent the sport as members of international sports federations EOC, and they have the right to organize nationwide championships. County sports associations are umbrella organizations of sports clubs active within a county, who are members of the EOC and represent the county's sport as such, and who have the right to organize county championships and issue corresponding titles. Sport associations are umbrella organizations for sports clubs active in a specific field of sport (hobby sport, Sport for All, school sport, student sport, disabled sports, work recreation, veteran sports, etc.), or these organizations are based on regional principles. The pyramid of the nongovernmental sport sector is supported by sport clubs, who are legal persons governed by private law active mainly in the development of sport and principally bearing the execution of sport work. From 2006, in addition to nonprofit organizations, private sport organizations are also allowed to act as sports clubs according to Estonian Sports Act.

### 4.2.3 *Top-Level Sports*

In Estonia, top-level sports are mainly managed mainly managed by the sports federations and sports clubs. The EOC and the Estonian Paralympic Committee in cooperation with sports federations focus on planning and implementing specific development projects geared to promote top-level sports.

To illustrate the performance of Estonian sports at the international level, the number of medals won at Olympic Games, World Championships, and European Championships from 2000 to 2012 is presented in Fig. 4.2.

**Table 4.1** Medal points of Estonian athletes in Olympic Games

Olympic Games	Estonia (points)	Total (points)	Estonia (%)
Sydney 2000	6	2,119	0.28
Salt Lake City 2002	7	550	1.27
Athens 2004	4	2,133	0.19
Torino 2006	12	588	2.04
Beijing 2008	6	2,167	0.28
Vancouver 2010	2	603	0.33

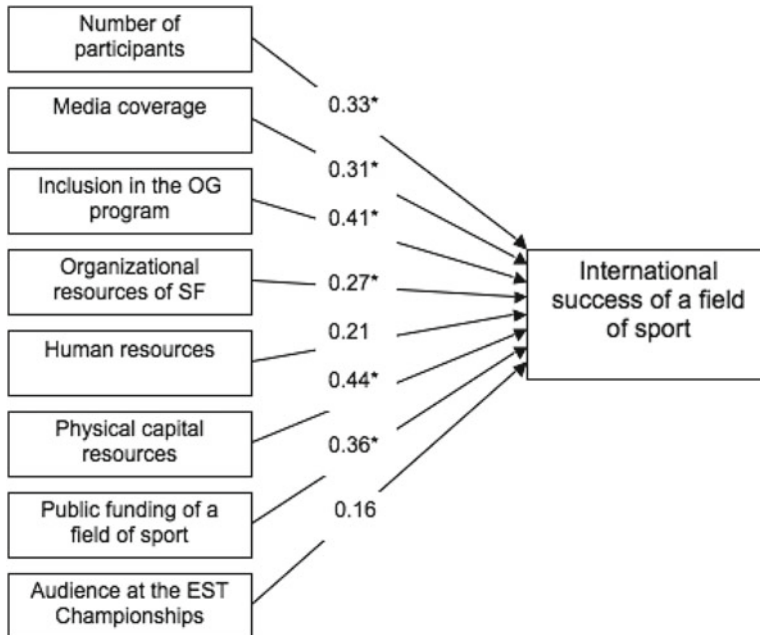
UK Sport has developed a method (Green 2007) which makes it possible to compare the number of medals won at the Olympic Games, World Championships, and European Championships. The method is based on a simple point scale (gold medal 4 points, silver medal 2 points, and bronze medal 1 point), according to which the ratio of medal points won by each country's athletes is calculated. Table 4.1 shows the number of medal points won by Estonian athletes at Olympic Games and their ratio to total medal points given.

As the Olympic Games are not the most important competition in all sports (e.g., tennis or soccer), UK Sport regularly monitors the results of major competitions in 60 sports and calculates the world's sports index based on the results of the previous 4 years. The sports index has three different values: the first one accounts for the results of all 60 sports monitored, the second one only accounts for Olympic events' medals, and the third one places a higher value on events popular in the UK. According to the Olympic event medal points, Estonian athletes achieved the 42nd place in 2006 and the 59th place in 2010. Considering the number of medal points per 1 million inhabitants, Estonia was on the 15th position in 2010 (1. Norway, 2. San Marino, 3. New Zealand) (Green 2007).

The number of medals won at international championships and other international competitions is the simplest and most widely used success criterion in elite sports. However, it must be taken into account that there are several micro- and macro-level factors behind international competitiveness. Thus, the results of the state audit issued in January 2012 showed that several factors influencing the development of the Estonian sports system (including elite sports) are underdeveloped (talent identification and development, athletic career and post-career support, practical application of scientific research in sport).<sup>1</sup>

In addition, Estonian sport lacks a strategic development plan, the necessity of which has only been emphasized lately in connection with the election of the president of the EOC at the beginning of 2013. In more successful sports countries, there is a firm belief in the necessity of a clearer development and implementation of sports political strategies in order to achieve international success. For many nations, the Olympic Games are a moment of truth in terms of their elite sport policies. Results of nations are used by media and national governments as an indicator

<sup>1</sup>Based on SPLISS methodology by De Bosscher et al. (2009).



**Fig. 4.3** Correlations between international achievements of a sport and the factors assessed

of policy effectiveness because they offer the most self-evident and transparent measure of success in elite sport. While the scientific literature pertaining to elite sport development has been rapidly growing during the last decade, researchers lack an all-encompassing framework for the evaluation of the effectiveness of elite sport policies in relation to its goals (De Bosscher et al. 2011).

As international sports projects are mostly carried out by sport federations in the Estonian sports system, Sommer et al. (2006) assessed the efficiency of 24 federations. The theoretical background of the study was based on the “resource theory” (Barney 1991), according to which the efficiency of any organization depends not so much on factors outside the organization as it does on the tangible capital, human, and organizational resources at the organization’s disposal. Empirical data was collected using a questionnaire developed by Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) as well as interviews with managing directors of sports federations. The results showed that on the level of capital resources, human resources, and organizational resources, 55–75 % of the resources needed were at the sports federations’ disposal. This means that although several sports (skiing, athletics, fencing) had won medals in international championships during a number of Olympic cycles, the resources at the disposal of their organizations were clearly insufficient. The Estonian Ski Association was clearly different from other sports federations as it was the most successful one in 2000–2006 by the number of medals from international championships, and the level of resources at its disposal was 85–95 % of the estimated maximal needs. Figure 4.3 shows correlations between international achievements of a sport and the factors assessed.



As can be seen from Fig. 4.3, there were statistically significant correlations between international success and physical capital resources, organizational resources, the number of participants in sport clubs, public funding of federation, and inclusion to the program of the Olympic Games. The results of multiple regression analyses revealed that the largest amount of variability in international success was accounted for by physical capital resources (19 % of the variance), inclusion to the program of the Olympic Games (16 %), and public funding of a federation (13 %).

### 4.3 Financing of Sport

Sport financing in Estonia is basically provided by three sectors: the public sector, the voluntary sector, and the private sector. On the basis of data gathered by the EOC and the Ministry of Culture (National Audit Office [NAO] 2012), the measurable expenses on sport in 2009 were EUR 84.03 million: the part covered by the central state authority was EUR 14.92 million, by local governments EUR 48.89 million, and by the private sector EUR 19.17 million. Economic activities of sports clubs and sports schools (approximately EUR 32 million), financial support from EU programs EUR 40.7 million (2004–2013), and the Gambling Tax Council and the Cultural Endowment of Estonia provided additional financing of Estonian sport system. These amounts of finances do not include the expenditures of private persons on sport equipment nor the payments for services to businesses, the expenses on school physical education, and generally the construction and maintenance of facilities with a larger range of use (light traffic roads, parks, school buildings, civic centers, etc.) as well as the investments of the private sector in any sports facilities. The expenditures made by private persons were covered in spring 2006, when AS Saar Poll and the Ministry of Culture carried out a culture consumption survey (2006), which showed that 36.3 % of people spend up to EUR 63.91 per year on sport activities and hobbies, 13.3 % from EUR 63.98–191.73, and 6.9 % of the respondents invest EUR 191.80 and more in their health.

In 2010–2011, the National Audit Office audited the activities of the Ministry of Culture, the Gambling Tax Council, the Cultural Endowment of Estonia, and the EOC in financing sports (NAO 2012). The purpose of the audit was to evaluate the transparency, expedience, and lawfulness of the financing system, and the effectiveness of the Estonian sports system regarding the achievement of top results. Separate accounts are not kept by the state of the funds allocated to elite sports and to recreational sports. The amount spent by the state on sports from the budgets of the Ministry of Culture, the EOC, the Cultural Endowment of Estonia, and the Gambling Tax Council in 2010 totaled approximately 14.6 million euros. This money was used to support sports federations, county sports associations, regional recreational sport centers, the EOC, etc. According to estimates, about one-half of this amount was allocated to elite sports (NAO 2012). Although more money is given to sports on the whole in developed Western countries, the share of public funds in financing sports in Estonia is significantly bigger than in other EU countries. The National Audit Office audited the state's activities in financing elite sports in 2010, but there

were no significant changes in the financing in 2011. As a result of the audit, the National Audit Office found that the state's activity in financing elite sports is not transparent, the funding system is unreasonably complicated, and the state's goals in supporting elite sports are unclear. Estonian athletes have been successful, but the Estonian sports system as a whole still has room for improvement.

Additionally, no clear public goals have been set to elite sports. It is therefore impossible to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of the state's activities in this area. The most suitable activities and fields of sport for financing should be selected on the basis of what the goals of elite sports are deemed to be, e.g., promotion of recreational sports, introducing the state in the world, developing economic activities and tourism, setting a social example, or others. The goal setting by the state also influences the contribution made by the private sector to the area. Public interest in financing elite sport should be particularly clearly phrased, as the state provides a large share of the funds used to support elite sports in Estonia.

#### 4.4 Sports Policy

Elite sport development as a public policy priority is increasingly marked by growing institutionalization and government involvement in many advanced liberal capitalist systems (e.g., Australia, the United Kingdom, and Canada). The establishment of national elite sport institutes such as the UK Sport in the United Kingdom or the Australian Institute of Sport in Australia is the result of increased state intervention to achieve international and Olympic sporting success. In Estonia, however, there is no sports policy for elite sports although during recent years there have been many discussions associated with the necessity of such a policy. A recent Audit of Estonian elite sports stated that no clear public goals have been set for elite sports. It is therefore impossible to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of the state's activities in this area. Estonian athletes have been internationally successful, but the Estonian sports system as a whole still has room for improvement (NAO 2012).

As far as the design of policies to support Sport for All is concerned, the most successful spheres have been the economy and environment. The construction of light transport roads has been continuous, and plenty of new sporting facilities have been created. The issues of environmental protection and sporting activities in the nature related to the sphere of the environment are also more and more in tune with each other. The support of the public sector for the promotion of physical activity and Sport for All (first and foremost, financing and developing legislative grounds) is divided between ministries. The main ministry responsible for planning and executing the activities is the Ministry of Culture. The Ministry of Education and Research organizes hobby education, ensures physical activity possibilities of students, and prepares professionals in the field. The Ministry of Social Affairs takes care of the physical activity of disabled people; the Ministry of Defense improves the physical preparation of the members of the Defense Forces. The Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications supports the construction of light traffic

roads, and the suboffice of the Ministry of Environment, the State Forest Management Centre, supports the construction of nature and trekking paths. The immediate organizer of many events is the Estonian Sport for All Association.

## 4.5 Sport Participation

Activation of many sports federations, introduction of new sports and forms of physical activity, and expansion and addition of various top events are observable through recent sports developments in Estonia, but to date we still have not been able to involve even half of the population in recreational physical activity. The studies conducted in Estonia over the past 10 years show a relatively small upward trend in regard to physical activity of the population (Estonian Ministry of Culture 2003, 2006; TNS Opinion and Social 2010; Estonian National Institute for the Health Development 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011). In Estonia, only 36 % of adults and about a half of schoolchildren are regularly physically active (doing physical exercises for at least 30 min at least twice per week), which is low compared to the countries belonging to our cultural space. In Scandinavian and Central European countries, the corresponding figure is more than 2/3 of the population (Estonian National Institute for the Health Development 2011; TNS Opinion and Social 2010). Consequently, recreational physical activity has not taken an important place in the lifestyle of most people and has not become a regular daily activity. Increasing physical activity requires a change of thought from all people involved as well as current knowledge of the possibilities of physical exercise. Based on this principle, the EOC and the Ministry of Culture started to develop the Sport for All Development Plan 2011–2014 (2011).

The objective of this plan is to contribute to the development of fitness and the popularization of sport activities within the abilities of everyone among the population. Expressed in numbers, this means increasing the number of people who engage in regular physical activity to 45 % of the population by 2014 (i.e., increasing it by 8.7 % in the period between 2010 and 2014). For the achievement of the goals of the Sport for All Development Plan (2011), measures related to the following areas have been planned.

### 4.5.1 *Sporting Facilities*

As of 2010, there were an estimated 3,000 sporting and fitness facilities in Estonia. The availability of sporting facilities in Estonia was, generally speaking, satisfactory. The availability of sporting opportunities had improved remarkably in recent years aided by the opening of numerous new and renovated fitness centers and sports halls.

Notwithstanding the above, the network of sporting facilities at close distance that would take into consideration the location of residential districts and schools as well as population density and the composition of sporting activities still requires attention. The existing sporting facilities, including those at close distance, still do not cater for all the needs of the society. The objective is to provide sporting facilities for people in cities and large urban communities within a 15-min walk from the places where they live.

Due to the rapid developments in urban space and the physical and social environment in general, less and less public space is left for Sport for All. Local governments have to perceive sporting facilities as an integral part of the public space in planning and designing the latter and make the building of “fitness tracks,” sidewalks, parks, and other easily accessible sporting facilities with sufficient capacity a top priority. Attention still needs to be paid to the correct marking of sporting facilities and the development of regulations for their safe use.

### ***4.5.2 Sport for All Events***

The majority of activities intended for the people who do recreational sporting activities in Estonia are organized by the nonprofit sector. Arrangements related to sport have been organized well, and the number of successfully managed events as well as the upward trend in the numbers of people engaged in sporting activities shows that the level of organization is competitively high. At the same time, nonprofit initiatives often do not receive sufficient financing, and the necessary developments are impeded by the problems related to finances and resources in general. The financing of the organization of major Sport for All events needs to continue with the support from state funds, the public sector, local governments, and the private sector. Within the state financing of the sports federations related to Sport for All, separate funds need to be allocated for the implementation of Sport for All programs. It is important to remember that activities and events which are open and attractive for all and which offer safe participation opportunities to people of various social backgrounds, ages, as well as physical and mental abilities have to be organized within Sport for All events and programs.

### ***4.5.3 Increasing Awareness and Shaping Attitudes***

Around three-fourths of sporting activities are undertaken by adults on their own (Estonian Ministry of Culture 2006), and the above proportion to organized sporting activities (training sessions) has remained relatively stable. Consequently, it is important to encourage, inspire, and counsel people, who engage in sporting activities on their own by creating better conditions for fitness; providing the necessary

information; organizing inspirational events and new fitness groups; supporting the initiatives of clubs, schools, companies, bases, and other organizations; and so forth. The whole development program aims to increase the number of people engaged in sporting activities on their own starting with physical education for children. The organization of new fitness groups for those who have not tried any sporting activities so far is the central goal of the development program as well as the direct and measurable obligation of sports organizations.

Campaigns are meant to be special forms of inspiration for the motivation and support of (sports) organizations (associations, federations). The leading campaign in the framework of the Sport for All Development Plan 2011–2014 is “Estonia on the Move” with its main objective of attracting new people to sporting activities and promoting additional forms of fitness. The campaign is held every year, and it focuses on various target groups, including children, families, and seniors. The messages of the campaign are brought to the population by well-known people through a variety of channels: television, radio, outdoor advertising, leading daily and county newspapers, and new media channels. The planning of the campaign needs to take age, gender, and regional peculiarities into consideration. The campaign will be supported by the nationwide “Sports and Movement Year” to be declared by the Ministry of Culture in 2014.

One of the key issues of the implementation of the development program is involving the media in covering the topics related to Sport for All on a larger scale than before. The EOC is about to start negotiations with the Estonian Public Broadcasting concerning the broadcasting of programs related to Sport for All. More attention needs to be paid to covering sporting activities for children and teenagers as it is especially important to note their achievements.

The EOC and the Sport for All Association will continue with the cooperation to organize training courses for coaches, physical education teachers, amateur sportsmen, and people who engage in regular sporting activities. The organization of other training courses (sports courses for companies, training days, gatherings, etc.) aims to provide system and consistency to give everyone who wants to improve their skills an opportunity to do so. Teaching aids and publications will be prepared for the population; these will to some extent provide information about the implementation of the methods of sporting activities but will mainly contain individual recommendations for practicing a certain sport with the optimum intensity. The above recommendations will also be available in the web environments of the EOC and its member organizations.

#### ***4.5.4 Counseling System for People Engaged in Regular Physical Activity***

Counseling in the sphere of sporting activities is, generally speaking, satisfactory. However, there is a lack of people dedicated to the promotion of Sport for All,

especially coaches, both in Estonian cities and counties. A problem lies in the preparation of medical doctors (general practitioners) so that they could advise patients about healthy lifestyle and sporting opportunities. Within the development program, the Ministry of Social Affairs will organize training modules on the basics of fitness and the connections between regular sporting activities and illness prevention for general practitioners in all county centers.

#### ***4.5.5 Organization of the Legislative and Financial Framework***

There are more complicated problems in the area of taxation, which creates numerous obstacles for the promotion of amateur sports and regular sporting activities. The above refers to the choices and decisions concerning the fringe benefit tax. The participants of the focus group considered it important that the fringe benefit tax on companies' expenses on health promotion be abolished and the public discussion of decreasing the VAT rate for the fees for participation in Sport for All events be started. State financing in a situation of the economic recession has become unstable, and the organizers of Sport for All activities expect more consistent financing from the state to ensure the sustainability of their programs.

### **4.6 Conclusion**

In the most advanced and successful Western sport systems, there are widespread assumptions that elite sport success is thought to lead to a better image abroad, bolster national identity, and stimulate domestic participation; this, in turn, leads to a healthy nation and a wider pool from which to choose future elite stars from, which again leads to increased elite sport success (Grix and Carmichael 2012). In Estonia, however, there is no sports policy for elite sport although during recent years there have been many discussions associated with the necessity of such a policy. A recent audit of Estonian elite sports stated that no clear public goals have been set to elite sports. It is therefore impossible to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of the state's activities in this area. Estonian athletes have been internationally successful, but the Estonian sports system as a whole still has room for improvement (The National Audit Office 2012). Recent surveys demonstrate that only 36 % of adults and about a half of schoolchildren are regularly physically active (doing physical exercises for at least 30 min at least twice per week), which is low compared to the countries belonging to our cultural space (Estonian National Institute for the Health Development 2011; TNS Opinion and Social 2010). Consequently, recreational physical activity has not taken an important place in the lifestyle of most Estonians.

## References

- Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99–120.
- De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., Van Bottenburg, M., Shibli, S., & Bingham, J. (2009). Explaining international sporting success: An international comparison of elite sport systems and policies in six countries. *Sport Management Review*, 12(3), 113–136.
- De Bosscher, V., Shilbury, D., Theeboom, M., Van Hoecke, J., & De Knop, P. (2011). Effectiveness of national elite sport policies: A multidimensional approach applied to the case of Flanders. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 11(2), 115–141.
- Estonian Ministry of Culture. (2003). *Culture consumption survey among Estonian population in 2003*. Tallinn: Estonian Ministry of Culture.
- Estonian Ministry of Culture. (2006). *Culture consumption survey among Estonian population in 2006*. Tallinn: Estonian Ministry of Culture.
- Estonian Ministry of Culture. (2011). *Sport for all development plan 2011–2014*. Tallinn: Estonian Ministry of Culture.
- Estonian National Institute for the Health Development. (2005). *Health behavior and health among the Estonian adult population in 2004. Survey*. Tallinn: Estonian National Institute for the Health Development.
- Estonian National Institute for the Health Development. (2007). *Health behavior and health among the Estonian adult population in 2006. Survey*. Tallinn: Estonian National Institute for the Health Development.
- Estonian National Institute for the Health Development. (2009). *Health behavior and health among the Estonian adult population in 2008. Survey*. Tallinn: Estonian National Institute for the Health Development.
- Estonian National Institute for the Health Development. (2011). *Health behavior and health among the Estonian adult population in 2010. Survey*. Tallinn: Estonian National Institute for the Health Development.
- Green, M. (2007). Olympic glory or grassroots development? Sport policy priorities in Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom, 1960–2006. *International Journal of the History of Sport*, 24(7), 921–953.
- Grix, J., & Carmichael, F. (2012). Why do governments invest in elite sport? A polemic. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 4(1), 73–90.
- Papadimitriou, D., & Taylor, P. (2000). Organisational effectiveness of Hellenic national sports organisations: A multiple constituency approach. *Sport Management Review*, 3(1), 23–46.
- Sommer, S., Matsin, T., Raudsepp, L., Naeris, V., & Klaos, H. (2006). *Organization of elite sport in Estonia. Survey*. Tallinn: Ministry of Culture.
- The National Audit Office. (2012). *Activities of the state in supporting elite sports*. Tallinn: The National Audit Office.
- TNS Opinion & Social. (2010). *Eurobarometer 72.3. Sport and physical activity*. Bruxelles: Directorate General Education and Culture.

# Chapter 5

## Finland

Hanna Vehmas and Kalervo Ilmanen

### 5.1 Introduction

Sports and physical activities have a significant role in the Finnish society. They are widely recognized as health promoters of the citizens; as means of socialization, especially for youth and children; and as providers of different forms of employment and economic opportunities. In addition, elite sports has been a major factor to contributing national identity (e.g., Heikkala 2009).

The Finnish sports system consists of three major elements: firstly, voluntarism in sports clubs, secondly, public sector involvement with government subsidizing municipalities (e.g., sports facilities), and thirdly, private sector offering sports-related business opportunities and enhancing professional sports. Volunteer associations and the civic sector act as the backbone of Finnish physical culture, but the public sector, namely, the state, the municipalities, and the political system, still forms an essential factor with steering mechanisms and financial resources. Professional sports on the other hand is relatively marginal when compared internationally, even though competitive sports is visible in the media and Finns have succeeded markedly in a number of international sports events (Heikkala 2009).

Sports is the most popular form of citizen activity in Finland. Finland has ranked among the highest levels of sports participation and the highest percentage of sports participants in Europe over the years (Gratton et al. 2011; European Commission 2009). Also the National Sports Survey (2009–2010) reveals that up to 90 % of the Finnish adults participate in sports at least 2–3 times a week. Sports is the most popular leisure activity also for Finnish children and youth. Up to 92 % of the children and youth participate in sports, most often (28 %) with involvement of two different sports.

---

H. Vehmas (✉) • K. Ilmanen  
University of Jyväskylä, Jyväskylä, Finland  
e-mail: Finland.hanna.m.vehmas@jyu.fi; Finland.kalervo.ilmanen@jyu.fi



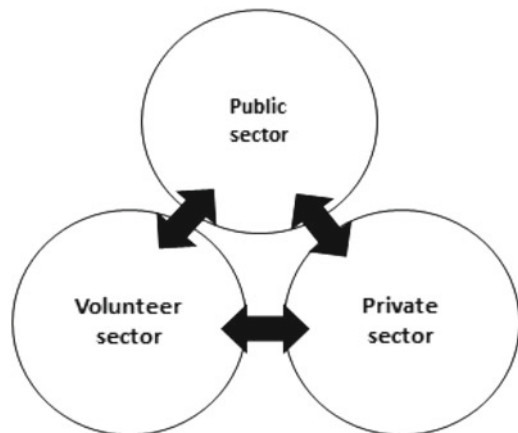
There are nearly 9,000 sports clubs and 130 sports federations and other national sports organizations in Finland. Annually 350,000 children and young people and 500,000 adults use the services of sports clubs and federations; 97 % of the clubs are nonprofit making. However, most Finns engage in physical activities self-sufficiently, spontaneously, and recreationally.

## 5.2 Sports System and the Structure of Organized Sports

Finland's sports system can be observed through three different sectors (see Fig. 5.1). The public sector comprises foremost the state, municipalities, and the Evangelical-Lutheran state church. The private sector consists of profit-making enterprises and professional athletes. The third sector refers to sports clubs and other volunteer organizations (Heikkala 2009).

Finland gained independence in December 1917 after having been part an autonomous Great Duchy of the Russian Empire since 1809. A few months after the declaration of independence, Finnish bourgeoisie and working class were driven into a dispute, which resulted in one of the bloodiest civil wars in Europe in 1918. The war lasted 3 months and ended in May 1918, in the victory of the bourgeoisie (Meinander 2010).

As a result of the war, Finns were divided into two opposite camps, namely, the Whites and the Reds. This has had long-term implications for the organization of sports in Finland. The Finnish National Sports Federation (FNSF, [Suomen Voimistelu- ja Urheiluliitto SVUL]) that was founded as early as 1906 expelled all the clubs and members who had been fighting for the Reds. This in turn led into the formation of the Workers' Sports Federation (WSF, [Työväen Urheiluliiton TUL]) in January 1919. These two central federations were accompanied by the Swedish Central Sports Federation that had been founded as early as 1912 to represent the



**Fig. 5.1** Sectors in Finnish physical culture (Heikkala 2009) (Adapted from Heikkala and Koski 2000)

physical culture of the Swedish-speaking population. Although there were several government attempts to unite the scattered field of sports organizations, the unification did not take place until the end of last century (Collins 2011; Meinander 2010).

A new central sports organization, namely, the Finnish Sports Federation [Suomen Liikunta ja Urheilu SLU], was founded in 1993 as an umbrella organization for every sports organization in the country. The aim was to establish a long-lasting organization that would represent interests of different civic sports organizations. This aim was achieved for the period of 20 years. However, in the beginning of 2013, as this document is written, a new umbrella organization called VALO [Valtakunnallinen liikunta- ja urheiluorganisaatio] has been established to follow the Finnish Sports Federation. At the same time with these changes in the civic sports organizations, also top-level sports in Finland is being reconstructed. Therefore, it is somewhat premature to estimate how sports and physical activities will be organized precisely after this transition period.

Despite the organizational changes in the physical culture, it is rather safe to say that the backbone of the Finnish physical culture will remain in the sports clubs. There are approximately 9,000 sports clubs in over 300 municipalities in Finland, which is one club per every 600 Finns. Sports clubs are mainly nonprofit making and their ownership is cooperatively based on membership. The strength of Finnish physical culture lies in the volunteers. The population of Finland is 5.4 million, of which about 1.1 million are members in sports clubs and federations. Of these 58 % are male and 42 % female. Over 15 % of the population take part in voluntary activities in sports in their spare time, which means about 600,000 individuals. Sports is by far the most popular form of voluntary activity in Finland.

Volunteers receive no financial payment for their work. On average they spend 10 h a month on these activities. They organize training sessions and competitions, collect various resources, and manage the clubs administration. It is estimated that out of the half a million volunteers, about 10 % are very actively involved. For most clubs this means 3–15 active volunteers.

Sports clubs in Finland belong to their sports-specific domain organizations, which connect them to the central organization VALO. Out of the traditional central organizations, only the Finnish National Sports Federation [SVUL] was closed down in 1993. Opposite to that the Workers' Sports Federation and the Swedish Central Sports Federation still continue acting. Furthermore, national central organizations and domain organizations have their regional organizations that act as mediating links to the local clubs. There are also other sports-promoting organizations, such as Suomen Latu [The Outdoors Association of Finland], Suomen Uimaopetus- ja Hengenpelastusliitto [The Finnish Association for Swimming Instruction and Life Saving], and school and student sports organizations. The recently established VALO acts as the national central organization for all of these.

What is a key characteristic of the Finnish physical culture is its bottom-up organization. As soon as sports became a nationwide mass movement, it began not only to build up its own organization but also to appear as a visible civil sector actor that started to lay claim to the public sector in order to have its position legitimized. In the first phase sports people were longing for financial support and sports facilities.

In order to respond to these increasing requests, Finnish municipalities needed to establish a totally new domain within the public governance, namely, sports management. The very first municipal sports committee was established in the capital city of Helsinki in 1919. This was followed by other municipalities so that by the 1980s there was a sports-related governing body in every Finnish town and municipality (Ilmanen 1996).

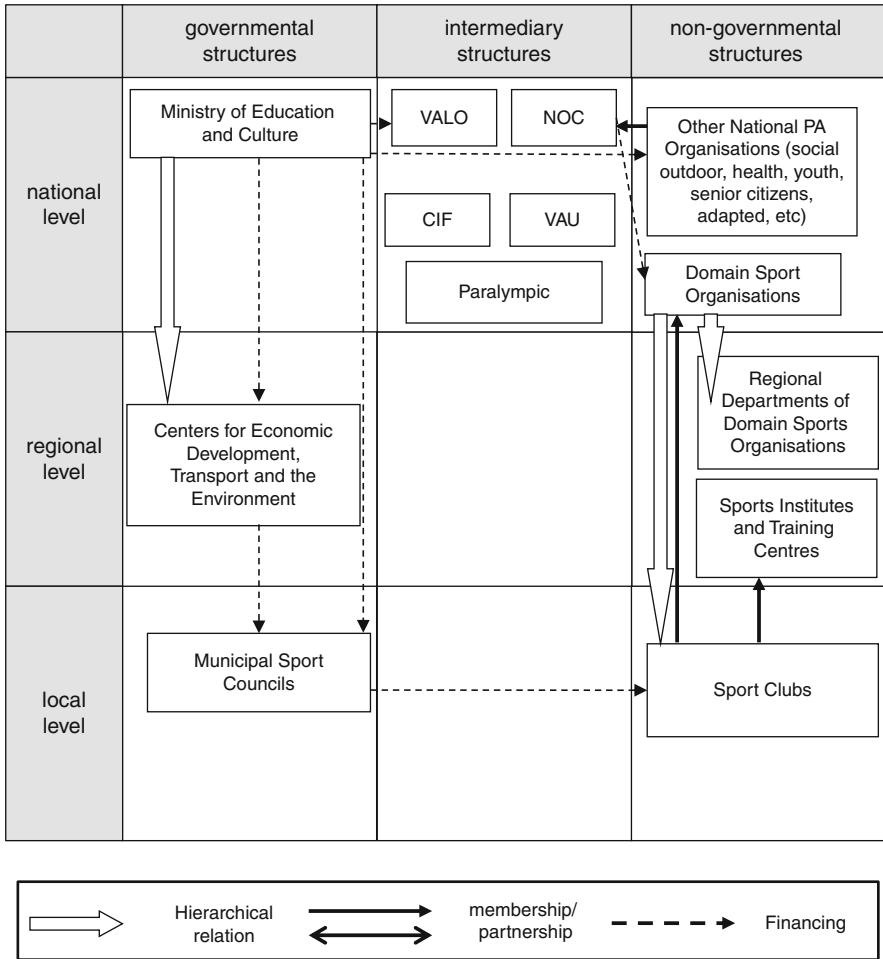
The state-level sports governance was developed simultaneously with the municipal governance. The state-level sports committee [Valtion urheilulautakunta] was founded in 1920 and placed under the governance of the Ministry of Education. From the beginning, the task of the state-level governance has been to steer municipal and civic sector sports activities. The first Sports Act was decreed in 1980 and further renewed in 1998. The function of the Act is to align sports policy of the municipalities, civic sector actors, vocational education, and other sports departments and units that receive state subsidy.

The Finnish school has played an important role in sports governance. Gymnastics became a school subject in the secondary schools as early as in the mid-1800s. University level physical education teacher education began in 1882 for men and 1894 for women. In 1963 physical education teacher education was moved from the University of Helsinki to the University of Jyväskylä (Ilmanen 1983). The General Compulsory Education Act guarantees that all age groups in Finland are entitled to competent and high-quality physical education (Heikinaro-Johansson and Telama 2004).

The governmental and nongovernmental structures in Finland are roughly illustrated in Fig. 5.2. It should be mentioned that the intermediary sports structures in Finland are in the state of flux as this chapter is written. The exact duties and responsibilities of VALO as a new central organization partly replacing the Finnish Sports Federation and the Finnish National Olympic Committee are still unclear. The intermediary organizations also include Swedish Central Sports Federation (CIF), Paralympic Committee, and VAU (Finnish Sports Association of Persons with Disabilities). What is also noteworthy when studying the figure is that this does not take private sports actors, such as households and profit-making enterprises, into account.

The third core element of the Finnish sports system consists of private companies. In its early stages, in the end of the 1800s, the private sports sector comprised mainly small-scale ice rinks, tennis courts, and spa services that were subjects to charge. Today private sports business plays an important role in the forms of ski resorts, spas, and gyms. Many sports-related private companies operate also in the tourism branch. The impact of sports and related tourism enterprises is evident especially in Lapland and the northeast of Finland.

Sporting life in Finland is largely based on volunteer activities as they form the basis of the Finnish sports culture. The division of duties and activities between the different sectors function so that the third sector civic organizations are mainly responsible for the local volunteer club activities. There are 500,000 volunteers and leaders, 218,000 of them are women; 10 % of the population takes part in voluntary work in sports in their leisure time. The value of voluntary work is estimated to be EUR 1.5 billion per year.



**Fig. 5.2** Framework of the governmental and nongovernmental structures of sports in Finland. Note: *VALO* Valtakunnallinen liikunta- ja urheiluorganisaatio (equivalent and successor of Finish Sports Federation), *NOC* National Olympic Committee, *CIF* Swedish Central Sports Federation, *VAU* Finnish Sports Association of Persons with Disabilities

In the public sector, municipalities support sports clubs directly through subsidies and indirectly by offering inexpensive sports facilities. Municipalities have targeted their support especially to children and youth. However, free or inexpensive municipal sports services are also available for all citizens independent of the club membership.

The role of the state on the other hand is to steer and subsidize national-level activities and to create favorable conditions for sports and physical activity. The Ministry of Education and Culture leads, develops, and coordinates sports policy and finances sports in order to promote health-enhancing, competitive, and performance sports and related civic activities with a view to advancing well-being

and health and supporting children's and young people's growth through sports. The Ministry guides sports policy through legislation and financing. The Ministry also monitors the implementation of ethical principles in sports, notably anti-doping activities. The Ministry's Department for Cultural, Sports and Youth Policy and its Sports Division direct, develop, and coordinate sports policy, assisted by the National Sports Council.

The private sector offers market-based and paid services to all consumers. In addition, through sponsorship agreements, the private sector supports competition and elite sports. It is noteworthy though that the private sports market is relatively small in Finland. Less than 3 % of the sports clubs (about 200) have professional athletes. There are about 1,000 professional athletes in Finland who earn their principal income from sports. There are 1,200 coaches who earn at least half of their income from coaching. Thus, the major part of those 50,000 coaches and supervisors engaged in sports clubs are parents who work without remuneration (Heikkala 2009). The only purely professional sports in Finland is ice hockey.

To summarize, the third sector has throughout Finland's history been the most significant player in the Finnish sports system. Still today Finns' leisure sports participation is mostly based on the volunteer civic sector. On the other hand the significance of public and private sector as providers of sports services has varied. Until the 1980s the state and the municipalities were responsible for nearly 90 % of the production of sports facilities and related services. However, with economic changes and neoliberalist policies being reinforced, the public sector has reduced its responsibilities. At the same time the private sector has increased its share as a sports service supplier. It is estimated that at the moment the private sector is responsible for about 25 % of the sports services in Finland.

### 5.3 Financing Sports

The key actors in financing sports in Finland are represented by the previously introduced tripartial model of public sector, private product and service providers, and sports organizations. The total amount of monetary resources in the Finnish physical culture in 2012 was estimated to be EUR 5.5 billion. The major (approx. 41 %) resource is the voluntary activities done in sports clubs, which is estimated to be worth about EUR 2.3 billion. Since voluntarism is the backbone of Finnish physical culture, it is not a surprise that most of the activities (97 %) are provided by nonprofit associations and by over 500,000 volunteers. More than 90 % of the funding of sports clubs is collected by the members and their parents. The main sources of financial resources are the income from membership fees, basic activities (such as organizing competitions or educational courses), other private income (such as sales of work or bingo lottery), and public subsidies (municipal support). More than half of the income is spent on organizing training sessions and competitions that are mainly directed to children and youth in these clubs. On one hand, direct municipal subsidies are on the average quite low (7 %), but on the other hand, the low-rent municipal facilities are a major contribution to the sports clubs' economy it is Opetusministeriö (2008).

The households are the other crucial factor in the economy of Finnish physical culture. Households spend nearly EUR two billion on sports equipment and services, which is about 35 % of all monetary resources (Table 5.1).

The municipalities spend about EUR 680 million (approx. 12.5 %) on sports and physical activities, including investments on sports facilities, subsidies to sports clubs (direct grants or low rent of facilities), and organizing adapted physical activities. The main source is municipal taxes.

The state's yearly budget in 2012 was about EUR 145 million. The main source is lottery funds, not taxes. The budget consists of subsidies to, for instance, sports federations, sports institutes, sports facilities, and sports-related research.

Corporations spend about EUR 385 million on sports and physical activities taking place in the workplaces. The current level of sports sponsoring is about EUR 110 million. This comprises about 2 % of all monetary resources. There are, however, major yearly differences here depending on the national economy's overall state.

In the public sector, the government uses subsidies as a steering method and directs them to the municipalities, sports organizations, and sports facility construction. In 2012 the government used EUR 145 million for subsidizing sports. The money was directed to the civic sector of sports (33 %), to sports facility construction (20 %), sports education centers (15 %), and municipalities (13 %). The remaining was delivered as a special support for top-level sports, children's and youth sports, health promotion and research, and different development projects.

The money for sports is collected by the National Lottery Veikkaus together with other gambling profit funds and from the state sports budget. The share of national gambling company Veikkaus' support for the total sports budget in Finland is approximately 98 % (Mäkinen 2010; Suomi et al. 2012). The government investments, however, for supporting Finnish physical culture are far less than the municipal investments. For example, in 2010, the municipalities spent EUR 681 million for operation and investment expenditures of the sports sector. Only the expenditures of the capital city of Helsinki were about EUR 95 million (Liikuntatoimi tilas-tojen valossa 2012; Helsingin kaupungin liikuntavirasto 2011).

The government does not subsidize professional sports. However, the Ministry of Education and Culture promotes favorable conditions for competitive and performance sports. To this end, it intensifies coaching, develops coach training, awards grants to athletes, supports anti-doping work, and coordinates performance sports.

Also the competitive sports are largely based on volunteer work in Finland. The sports federations are responsible for developing and administering performance sports. The Finnish Olympic Committee contributes to the development of goal-oriented, responsible, and ethically sustainable performance sports in Finland and looks after its interests. The corresponding tasks in disability sports are the responsibility of the Finnish Paralympic Committee.

The Research Institute for Olympic Sports (KIHU) is responsible for the development of competitive and performance sports, for applied sports research, and for the diffusion of research findings. The Finnish Anti-doping Agency is responsible for testing and coordinates anti-doping activities in Finland. Athletes' grants, which are financed by the Ministry of Education and Culture, help athletes to train to their full potential.

**Table 5.1** Sports organizations and the key money flows (Opetusministeriö 2008)

Party	Type of services and fees
Government → sports organizations	State subsidy
Municipalities → sports clubs	Municipal subsidies for clubs
Domain organizations → FSF/VALO	Training, consulting, and membership fees
Private companies → sports organizations and athletes	Sponsoring
National Olympic Committee → domain sports organizations	Support for domain organizations
Sports clubs → domain organizations	Training, consulting, and membership fees
Sports clubs (elite) → sports clubs (training)	Trainee compensations
Athletes → domain organizations	Player license fees
Sports clubs → athletes	Player salaries and fees
Sports organizations → employees and athletes	Salaries and fees

There are approximately 30,000 sports facilities in Finland: 75 % of those are built and maintained by the municipalities and the remaining 25 % consists mostly of corporations or consortia that are also partly under the authority of the municipalities. Private sports facilities exist mostly in larger towns and centers. The Ministry of Education and Culture steers and subsidizes sports facility construction. Cooperation is conducted with the Ministry of the Environment in sports facility-related town planning and natural environment construction and with the Ministry of Transports and Communications in the developments of pedestrian roads.

There is insufficient data on the employment in the Finnish physical culture. From various sources it can be estimated, however, that there are about 20,000–25,000 full-time employees in this field. The estimates vary according to categorization: if only those who are included have their training and degrees in the field of sports, then the figure is lower and higher if various sports-related fields are included (such as staff in private sports facilities, in physiotherapy and physical conditioning, in spas and other recreational facilities, and in corporate human resources dealing with physical well-being).

Sports clubs employ some 2,700 full time and nearly 15,000 people part time, and nonprofit federations approximately 1,100 people. Municipalities have around 7,000 employees, of which 2,000 are physical education teachers. The private sector employs 12,000 people, mainly in the sports service production, sales, supply, and rental. Other employment places, such as national sports institutes, media, and research, have about 1,300 employees (Heikkala 2009; Opetusministeriö 2008).

## 5.4 Sports Policy

The aim of sports policy in Finland prior to World War II was, with the help of organization and facility construction subsidies, to guarantee the preconditions for competition and sports training of elite athletes. This was done so that Finland would maintain its position as one of the most successful Olympic nations. At the same time the development of Finnish boys' military capacities was emphasized in the school's

physical education lessons and additionally in clubs. After the war, the emphasis moved to fitness and health promotion of the citizens, which still today is the main goal of the government's sports policy (Vasara 2004). Equality has been one of the key values in national sports policy. It is the responsibility of the state together with the municipalities to secure citizens' accessibility to sports facilities despite of the place of residence or wealth. However, migration from countryside to towns has complicated fulfilling this aim. In addition, the municipal entities (towns) have been merged especially in the 2000s, which has had implications for the availability of the public sports services. Income and wealth differences are also increasingly affecting equality principles. Households with lower income cannot participate in physical activities as diversely as household with higher income (Suomi et al. 2012).

Every fifth Finn participates in sports club activities. Therefore, it is one of the basic tasks of national sports policy to secure the sports club's operation conditions. It is the aim of the government to improve the quality of civic activities of sports and foremost to decrease the economic, social, and cultural barriers of sports participation of children and youth. However, the (ultimate) responsibility of promoting the club activities lies within the municipalities. Municipalities secure clubs' operation activities by building sports facilities and by providing them inexpensively to use (Valtion liikuntaneuvosto 2012).

It is also one of the central aims of the national sports policy to support ethically sustainable top-level sports. Top-level sports has faced a number of ethical problems in Finland in the 2000s. There have been cases of doping, violence, and economic frauds that the Ministry of Education and Culture has put effort in getting rid of. The Ministry not only is the major financier of Finland's Anti-doping Agency (FINADA) but also sanctions (by cutting off subsidies) those sports organizations in which unethical malpractices have occurred.

What is characteristic of the Finnish physical culture is the substantial amount of sports projects and initiatives. It is estimated that there are over 1,000 sports projects and initiatives each year. Usually they are short term in nature with no or little permanent structural changes (Valtion liikuntaneuvosto 2012). However, there are two projects at the moment that have turned out to be vital and with great influence in Finnish physical culture.

The *Fit for Life Program* [Kunnossakaikenikää-ohjelma, KKI] is a plan of action financed by the Ministries of Education and Culture and Social Affairs and Health. Its main aim is to promote and increase citizens' physical activities in daily routines. The program aims at helping working aged citizens to maintain their working capacities until the retirement age and promoting functional capacities and reducing the risks of falling ill with diseases that are connected to the lack of adequate physical activities. The program has operated already several years and its achievements have been evaluated positively.

The Finnish Schools on the Move [Liikkuvakoulu] program (2010–2015) aims at increasing daily physical activities among schoolchildren in school and during leisure so that every Finnish pupil would move at least 1 h per day.

By promoting citizens' active life style and adequate amount of daily physical activities, the government not only aims at increasing the well-being of its citizens but



also achieves positive economic impact through sports participation. Active and healthy citizens are believed to be able to stay longer in working life, even though clear evidence about this is lacking. In any case securing citizens' physical and mental working conditions is considered as one of the main aims of the national sports policy.

## 5.5 Sports Participation

The definition of sports participation varies depending on the aim of the participation. The focus may be in improving health and physical condition, in utilitarian exercise, or social motives. Sports participation is commonly defined as minimum of 20–30 min of physical exercise so one sweats with the heart rate escalating (Table 5.2).

Sports and physical activities are important leisure activities in Finland. According to the National Sports Survey, 90 % of the Finnish adults (19–65 years) participate in physical activities at least two or three times a week. The Finnish Time Use Survey indicates that in 2009 men used on average 0.41 h and women 0.36 h per day for physical and outdoor activities.

The most popular physical activities of Finnish adults are walking, bicycling, and gym training (Finnish Sports Federations 2010a; see Table 5.3). Sports and physical activities are popular also among Finnish children and youth as 92 % of them reports to play sports. The most popular sports are soccer, bicycling, swimming, jogging, cross-country skiing, and floor ball (see Table 5.2) According to the WHO Health Behavior in School-Aged Children (HBSC) Study, 37 % of the Finnish girls and 48 % of the boys at the age of 11 years old were physically active at least 1 h every day during 1 week. However, the amount of physical activity was rapidly decreasing when the children entered adolescence (Finnish Sports Federations 2010b; Tynjälä et al. 2009).

The National Sports Survey points out that also Finnish senior citizens (66–79 years) are physically active as 63 % of the seniors informed that they exercised and

**Table 5.2** Top 10 sports with participation rates among children and youth 3–18 years

Sports	1995	1997–1998	2001–2002	2005–2006	2009–2010
Soccer	157,000	182,000	261,000	230,000	217,000
Cycling	88,000	179,000	261,000	202,000	180,000
Cross-country skiing	100,000	163,000	195,000	190,000	147,000
Swimming	112,000	160,000	202,000	182,000	160,000
Jogging	58,000	84,000	113,500	133,000	149,000
Floor ball	96,500	127,000	160,000	131,000	144,000
Skating	63,500	92,000	125,000	121,000	115,000
Walking	72,000	113,500	132,000	113,000	114,000
Ice hockey	112,500	129,000	116,000	105,000	101,000
Gymnastics	51,000	51,000	70,000	67,500	83,000

**Table 5.3** Top 10 sports with participation rates among adults 19–65 years

Sports	1994	1997–1998	2001–2002	2005–2006	2009–2010
Walking	2,000,000	2,160,000	1,990,000	1,840,000	1,790,000
Biking	660,000	1,000,000	922,000	828,000	845,000
Cross-country skiing	660,000	724,000	732,000	747,000	663,000
Swimming	510,000	573,000	520,000	578,000	575,000
Gym	377,000	341,000	359,000	524,000	713,000
Jogging	445,000	477,000	356,000	496,000	639,000
Nordic walking	–	–	300,000	444,000	454,000
Floor ball	94,000	148,000	175,000	223,000	210,000
Aerobics	179,000	211,000	182,000	190,000	532,000
Soccer	105,000	103,000	117,000	160,000	140,000

**Table 5.4** Top 10 sports with participation rates among senior citizens 66–79 years

Sports	2008	2009–2010
Walking	393,000	369,000
Biking	160,000	133,000
Nordic walking	112,000	157,000
Cross-country skiing	99,000	119,000
Gymnastics	95,000	121,000
Swimming	89,000	92,000
Gym	43,500	69,000
Water gymnastic	36,000	11,500
Dancing	19,500	13,000
Jogging	15,500	13,000

were otherwise active in their daily routines at least four times a week. One quarter informed that they did not exercise goal directly, but are otherwise actively involved in everyday life. Only 4 % informed that they are not active at all, which was explained by illnesses or other physical hindrances. According to the Leisure Survey, three out of four seniors (65 years and older) exercised at least once a week (Finnish Sports Federations 2010a; Tilastokeskus 2013; see Table 5.4).

Finland can be considered as a physically active nation also in international comparisons. Finland has had among the highest levels of participation in Europe over the years (e.g., Gratton et al. 2011; European Commission 2009).

## 5.6 Conclusion

Sports and physical activities play an important role in the Finnish society. Finns are active in sports participation and top-level sports enhances national identity. In the 2000s, however, sports and physical culture are facing challenges in providing equal participation opportunities for the masses. Some even say that the organization and

participation of sports are in crises at the moment. This is partly due to the economic tendencies and value changes of the society. As in many other Western societies, also in Finland, physical culture is “competing” with physically less active forms of leisure, such as computing. At the same time natural movement and play of people, especially among children and youth, is decreasing. Moreover, physical culture has become another form of leisure consumption, which causes socioeconomic inequality. Therefore, it is a great challenge of the Finnish society and its physical culture to organize and direct sports so that it would still in the 2000s have positive health, social, and economic impacts for the members of society.

## References

- Collins, S. (2011). Finland. In M. Nicholson, R. Hoye, & B. Houlihan (Eds.), *Participation in sports. International policy perspectives* (pp. 109–125). London: Routledge.
- European Commission. (2009). *Sports and physical activity. Eurobarometer*. Brussels.
- Finnish Sports Federations. (2010a). *Kansallinen liikuntatutkimus 2009–2010: Aikuiset [National sports survey 2009–2010. Adult population]*. [http://www.slu.fi/@Bin/3244706/Liikuntatutkimus\\_aikuiset\\_2009\\_2010.pdf](http://www.slu.fi/@Bin/3244706/Liikuntatutkimus_aikuiset_2009_2010.pdf). Accessed 07 May 2013.
- Finnish Sports Federations. (2010b). *Kansallinen liikuntatutkimus 2009–2010: Lapset ja nuoret [National sports survey 2009–2010. Children and Youth]*. [http://www.slu.fi/@Bin/3244703/Liikuntatutkimus\\_nuoret\\_2009\\_2010.pdf](http://www.slu.fi/@Bin/3244703/Liikuntatutkimus_nuoret_2009_2010.pdf). Accessed 07 May 2013.
- Gratton, C., Rowe, N., & Veal, A. (2011). International comparisons of sports participation in European countries. An update of the COMPASS project. *European Journal for Sports and Society*, 8(1-2), 99–116.
- Heikinaro-Johansson, P., & Telama, R. (2004). Physical education in Finland. In U. Pühse & M. Gerber (Eds.), *International comparison of physical education: concepts, problems, prospects* (pp. 250–271). Oxford: Meyer & Meyer.
- Heikkala, J. (2009). *Sports governance in Finland. Finnish Sports Federation*. [http://www.slu.fi/eng/finnish\\_sports\\_federation/](http://www.slu.fi/eng/finnish_sports_federation/). Accessed 07 May 2013.
- Heikkala, J., & Koski, P. (2000). Järjestöt kolmen merkitysulottuvuuden–vapaaehtoisuuden, valtion ja markkinoiden–leikkauspisteessä. In H. Teoksessa Itkonen, J. Heikkala, K. Ilmanen, & P. Koski (Eds.), *Liikunnan kansalaistoiminta–muutokset, merkitykset ja reunaehdot Liikuntatieteellisen Seuran julkaisu nro 152*, 107–118.
- Helsingin kaupungin liikuntavirasto. (2011). *Toimintakertomus 2011*.
- Ilmanen, K. (1983). Voimistelunopettajakoulutuksen kuusi ensimmäistä vuosikymmentä. Vuodet 1882–1942. [The six first decades of the gymnastics teacher education. Years 1882–1942]. In K. Ilmanen, & T. Voutilainen (Eds.), *Jumpasta tiedekunnaksi: suomalainen voimistelunopettajakoulutus 100 vuotta, 1882–1982* (pp. 11–173). Helsinki: Valtion painatuskeskus.
- Ilmanen, K. (1996). *Kunnat liikkeellä. Kunnallinen liikuntahallinto suomalaisen yhteiskunnan muutoksessa 1919–1994. [Municipalities in motion: Municipal sports administration in the changing Finnish society]* (Studies in sports, physical education and health, Vol. 43). Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä.
- Liikuntatoimi tilastojen valossa. (2012). *Perustilastot vuodelta 2010 [Basic statistics of sports sector in 2010]*. Opetus- ja kulttuuriministeriön julkaisuja 2012 (20).
- Mäkinen, J. (2010). *Urheilun rakenteet ja tuki Suomessa, Ruotsissa ja Norjassa*. Kilpa- ja huippu-urheilun tutkimuskeskus KIHU Jyväskylä KIHU: n julkaisusarja nro 17.
- Meinander, H. (2010). *Suomen historia [History of Finland]*. Helsinki: WSOY.
- Opetusministeriö. (2008). *Liikunnan rahavirrat Suomessa 2005 [Money flows in sports in Finland 2005]* Opetusministeriön työryhmämuistioita ja selvityksiä 2008 (19).

- Suomi, K., Sjöholm, K., Matilainen, P., Glan, V., Nuutinen, L., Myllylä, S., Pavelka, B., Vettenranta, J., Vehkakoski, K., & Ja Lee, A. (2012). *Liikuntapaikkapalvelut ja väestön tasa-arvo. Seurantatutkimus liikuntapaikkapalveluiden muutoksista 1998–2009 [Sports facility services and equality. Follow up study about the changes in sports facilities in 1998–2009]*. Helsinki: Opetus- ja kulttuuriministeriö.
- Tilastokeskus. (2013). *Suomen virallinen tilasto (SVT): Vapaa-aikatutkimus [Official Statistics of Finland. Leisure Survey]*. [http://www.stat.fi/til/vpa/2002/vpa\\_2002\\_2007-12-19\\_laa\\_001.html](http://www.stat.fi/til/vpa/2002/vpa_2002_2007-12-19_laa_001.html). Accessed 07 May 2013.
- Tynjälä, J., Kämppi, K., Välimaa, R., Vuori, M., Villberg, J., & Kannas, L. (2009). WHO-koululaistutkimus: Riittävä liikunta ja uni tukevat lasten ja nuorten hyvinvointia. *Liikunta & tiede*, 46(2–3), 12–16.
- Valtion liikuntaneuvosto. (2012). *Lausunto vuoden 2013 talousarvioesityksestä*. [http://www.liikuntaneuvosto.fi/julkaisut/kannanotot\\_ja\\_lausunnot/arkisto/lausunto\\_vuoden\\_2013\\_talousarvioesityksesta.444.news](http://www.liikuntaneuvosto.fi/julkaisut/kannanotot_ja_lausunnot/arkisto/lausunto_vuoden_2013_talousarvioesityksesta.444.news). Accessed 07 May 2013.
- Vasara, E. (2004). *Valtion liikuntahallinnon historia [History of State sports governance]*. Helsinki: Liikuntatieteellinen Seuran.

# Chapter 6

## France

Christoph Fischer

### 6.1 The Historical Development of the French Sport System

The organization of sport in France is the result of a long-lasting development that began at the end of the nineteenth century. In order to gain a better understanding of the current situation and structure of the today's sport system in France, some milestones of this historical development will be analyzed. The first associations were founded within the private sector, the so-called club sportif. With the emergence of English sports in Northern France, associations like the Racing Club de France or the Le Havre Athletic Club were founded (Terret 2010). With the rising number of clubs, the necessity of coordinating federations increased. For example, the Union des Sociétés Françaises de Courses à Pied (USFCP) was founded in the year 1887. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the French state implemented a law regulating the organization of associations aiming to facilitate the creation of new clubs and federations (Loi du 1er Juillet 1901 relative au contrat d'association, Assemblée Nationale Française 1901). Consequently the number of clubs experienced a strong increase (Terret 2010). The next step of the structural development was the formation of the two national sport confederations Comité National des Sports (CNS) in 1908 and Comité Olympique Français (COF) in 1911 (Bournazel and Dudognon 2008). From the 1920s on, the subject of sport and physical activity was discussed in the French political administration for the first time. A conflict arose between the ministry of war and the ministry of education on the question of who is in charge for sport and physical education (Callède 2000). Henceforward, the state interfered more and more in the governance of sport, in particular during the short mandate of the Front Populaire government between 1936 and 1940. The leftist government, under the presidency of Léon Blum, was in favor of a broad sport participation of

---

C. Fischer (✉)  
German Sport University Cologne, Cologne, Germany  
e-mail: c.fischer@dshs-koeln.de

the population. For example, even winter sport activities should be accessible for the working class (Callède 2007).

With the French surrender and the German occupation in 1940, state sport policy changed significantly. The dictatorial Vichy government, which was implemented by the German forces, had a great influence on the organization of sport. The government created the first law on the organization and structure of sport (Loi du 20 Décembre 1940 relative à l'organisation sportive). Following this law, all clubs and federations had to apply for special admission from the state before starting their activities (agrément obligatoire). The intervention of the state increased even more during the Vichy regime. State involvement was so intense during this time that the top state representatives simultaneously had chair of the umbrella organization, the Comité National des Sports (Callède 2000; Amar et al. 2007).

After the Second World War, elements of the sport policy of the Front Populaire and the Vichy Regime were maintained by the government of Fourth Republic. Until the end of the Fourth Republic in 1958, no important developments and changes were made concerning the organization of sport. At the beginning of the Fifth Republic, the initiative of the state increased again under the lead of Maurice Herzog, a famous alpinist who was nominated high commissioner for sport. His initiative and the necessity of state intervention were reinforced by the disastrous result of the French team at the 1960 Olympic Games in Rome. They only won two silver and three bronze medals.

As a consequence of the increased state effort, the legislation for sport was extended. In 1975, the first significant sports law was enacted. The law for the development of physical education and sport, the so-called Loi Mazeaud,<sup>1</sup> regulated the organization of sport at school and within clubs and federations. In 1984 and 2000, the legislation in sport was extended with regulations on doping and the commercialization of sport.<sup>2</sup> In order to gain a better overview of the legislation, the French laws on sport are united in the Code du Sport in 2006. Despite this broad legislative ruling, sport is not part of the French constitution.

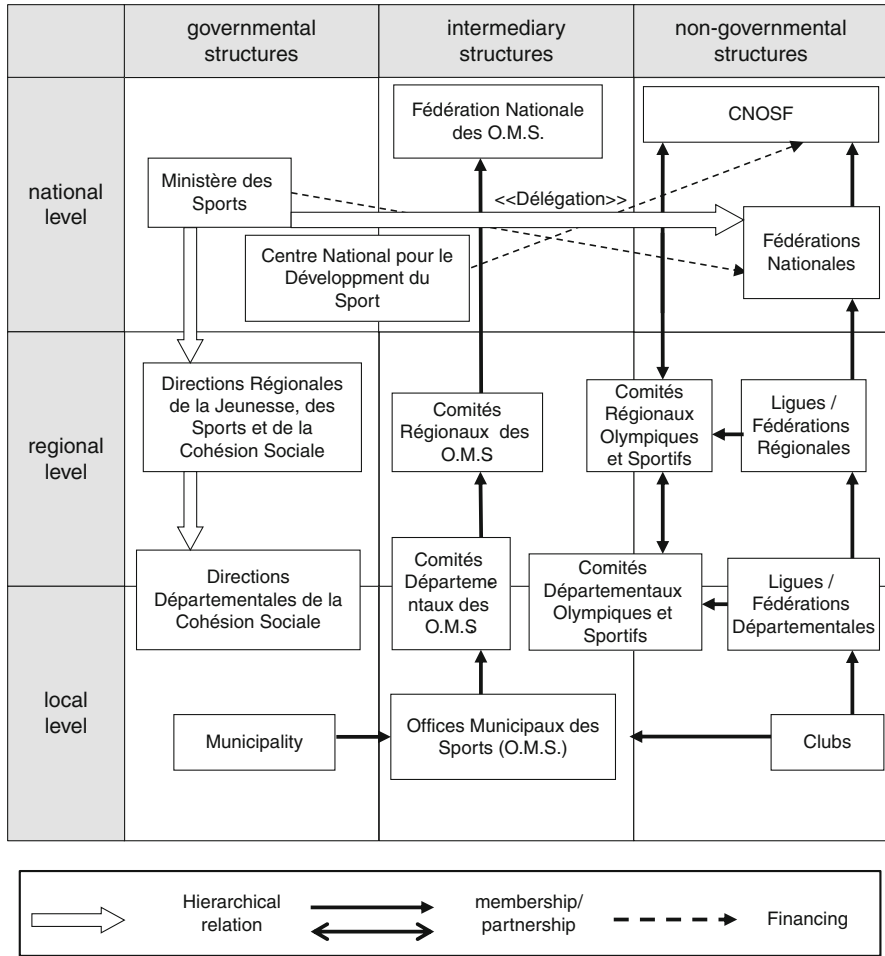
## 6.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

Sport organization in France is dominated by the state and must be characterized as centralistic and state orientated. The centralistic orientation can be seen in the high importance of the national ministry of sports. The ideas and decisions developed in

---

<sup>1</sup>Official denomination: Loi no. 75-988 du 29 octobre 1975 "relative au développement de l'éducation physique et du sport".

<sup>2</sup>These laws are commonly called *Loi Avice* and *Loi Buffet* after the sport ministers who were in charge. The official denominations are "Loi No. 84-610 du 16 juillet 1984 relative à l'organisation et à la promotion des activités physiques et sportives" and "Loi no. 2000-627 du 6 juillet 2000 modifiant la loi no 84-610 du 16 juillet 1984 relative à l'organisation et à la promotion des activités physiques et sportives."



**Fig. 6.1** Organizational structure of sport in France – own illustration on the basis of Miège (1993), p. 63 and Tokarski and Steinbach (2001), p. 186

the ministry are forwarded to the peripheral state institutions on regional and district level. For the regions these are the Directions Régionales de la Jeunesse, des Sports et de la Cohésion Sociale (DRJSCS), and for the districts the Directions Départementales de la Cohésion Sociale (DDCS) (Fig. 6.1). The main tasks of the subordinated institutions are the execution of the policies of the ministry in consideration of the regional and local conditions (Miège 1993).

The state-orientated approach and the state dominance connected to this are clearly visible in the very detailed legal regulations and the connected intervention possibilities of the state.

Some examples will give an impression how strong the state can influence and control sport organized in clubs and federations. The abovementioned Code du Sport lays down the tasks and duties of the French national sport confederation, the so-called Comité National Olympique et Sportif Français (CNOSF). For example, the statutes of CNOSF have to be approved by the French Privy Council. The ministry of sports executes even more control over the national sport federations. Following the Code du Sport, national sport federations have to pass a two-stage admission procedure. The first step is to get the state recognition agreement. This recognition is the prerequisite to receive public funding (Sect. 6.3.1). The agrément is only rewarded if it is fixed in the statutes that the federation has a democratic structure, men and women have equal access to leading positions and the bookkeeping is transparent (Code du Sport 2006, art.121–4). The second state recognition is the delegation. With the delegation the ministry of sport assigns to the selected federations the rights to execute the national championship and to organize the high-performance sport in the concerning discipline (Code du Sport 2006, art.131–44 ff.). Furthermore, the allocation of public funding is bound to target agreements between the ministry of sports and the federations.

A particularity within the French sport system are the Offices Municipaux des Sports (OMS), who should not be confused with the sport departments of the town. The OMS are in fact intermediary institutions bringing together representatives of the town, the clubs, and other sport interested groups. For the enforcement of their interests in the French centralistic system, the OMS have established federations on district, regional, and national level (Fig. 6.1).

To sum up, it has to be recognized that self-organized sport in France depends in both a legal and a financial manner considerably on the state.

### 6.3 Financing Sport

The total expenditure for sport in 2009 in France amounted to EUR 34.9 billion (Table 6.1). This sum can be divided into 16.5 billion for private households, 10.8 billion for territorial authorities, 4.3 billion for the state, and 3.3 billion for business enterprises. In total, expenditure on sport accounted to 1.9 % of the French GDP in 2009. Another indicator for the economic relevance of sport in France is the number

**Table 6.1** Total expenses for sport in France from 2005 to 2009 in billions of euros

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Private households	12.0	12.1	13.0	14.1	14.6	15.1	15.8	16.4	16.7	16.5
Regional authorities	7.6	7.8	7.9	7.9	8.6	9.1	9.6	10.2	10.6	10.8
State (national level)	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.3
Enterprises	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.2	2.5	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3
<b>Total expenses</b>	<b>24.9</b>	<b>25.7</b>	<b>27.2</b>	<b>28.3</b>	<b>29.7</b>	<b>31.3</b>	<b>32.7</b>	<b>34.0</b>	<b>34.9</b>	<b>34.9</b>

Source: Megherbi (2012)



of people employed in the sport sector. Overall 219,000 full- and part-time jobs were linked directly to the sports sector or the public administration of sport in 2009 (Megherbi 2012).

The expenses of all public organizations amounted in 2009 to EUR 15.13 billion (Table 6.2). In relation to the overall expenses for sport, the public authorities take a share of about 43 %. The biggest part of public spending was borne by the local authorities. They turned over EUR 9.39 billion in 2009, which is a share of 62 % of overall public spending. With regard to the territorial authorities the expenses of the regions and departments only play a minor role. They only account for 13.1 %.

The most significant part of the local expenses is the construction and maintenance of sport infrastructure. More than 80 % of the sport facilities in France are owned by municipalities (Direction générale des collectivités locales 2013).

### ***6.3.1 Structure of Sport Financing in France***

An important aspect for an international comparison is the examination of the financing of sport federations by the state. In France the financial support of national sport federations by public authorities is governed by target agreements. These agreements have a duration of 4 years in the rhythm of the Olympic Games and are updated once a year (Fischer 2011). For the negotiation of the target agreements, the federations hand in a dossier with their intended activities. The direction of sport adds the demands of the Ministry for Sport (Sénat Français 2005). As a basic principle only federations are eligible if they have received the agrément of the Ministry for Sports (Sect. 6.2). Depending on the other revenues through the sale of TV rights or sponsorships, the federations receive subsidiary funding by the state. Within the Olympic federations the modern pentathlon gets the most funding in relation to the overall budget (Table 6.3). On the other hand, the economically independent federations of tennis, soccer, or rugby receive less than 2 % of their budget by the public authorities (Table 6.4).

With its complementary funding the French state follows the principle of subsidiary supporting sport federations depending on their financial capability.

In 2011, the 31 Olympic federations were given financial support with a total of EUR 68.81 million. The average quota of funding was 28 % of the total budget. The 81 non-Olympic federations organized within the CNOSF received EUR 27.45 million in the same period. This was a share of 20 % of their annual budget at an average (Assemblée Nationale Française 2012).

### ***6.3.2 Peculiarities of Sport Financing in France***

In France there is a special institution which is in charge of the financing of sport development called Centre National pour le Développement du Sport (CNDS).

**Table 6.2** Breakdown of public spending for sport in France from 2000 to 2009 in billions of euros

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
<b>State (national level)</b>	<b>(3.62 %)</b>	<b>(3.75 %)</b>	<b>(3.97 %)</b>	<b>(4.07 %)</b>	<b>(3.97 %)</b>	<b>(3.96 %)</b>	<b>(4.11 %)</b>	<b>(4.18 %)</b>	<b>(4.29 %)</b>	<b>(4.33 %)</b>
Ministry for education	(32 %)	(32 %)	(34 %)	(34 %)	(31 %)	(30 %)	(30 %)	(30 %)	(29 %)	(29 %)
Ministry for sports	2.89	2.96	3.13	3.27	3.18	3.22	3.34	3.38	3.47	3.49
Other ministries	0.48	0.51	0.55	0.57	0.60	0.59	0.67	0.75	0.77	0.79
Other ministries	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05
Temporary grant for young employees	0.20	0.23	0.24	0.18	0.14	0.10	0.05	–	–	–
<b>Regional authorities</b>	<b>(7.60 %)</b>	<b>(7.82 %)</b>	<b>(7.86 %)</b>	<b>(7.87 %)</b>	<b>(8.65 %)</b>	<b>(9.09 %)</b>	<b>(9.55 %)</b>	<b>(10.23 %)</b>	<b>(10.61 %)</b>	<b>(10.80 %)</b>
Communes	(68 %)	(68 %)	(66 %)	(66 %)	(69 %)	(70 %)	(70 %)	(70 %)	(71 %)	(71 %)
Departments	6.88	7.01	6.95	6.91	7.57	8.00	8.35	8.95	9.30	9.39
Regions	0.50	0.52	0.57	0.60	0.69	0.70	0.77	0.79	0.80	0.82
Regions	0.20	0.27	0.32	0.34	0.37	0.38	0.43	0.49	0.51	0.55
Temporary grant for young employees	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	–	–	–	–
<b>Total expenses</b>	<b>11.22</b>	<b>11.57</b>	<b>11.83</b>	<b>11.94</b>	<b>12.62</b>	<b>13.05</b>	<b>13.66</b>	<b>14.10</b>	<b>14.90</b>	<b>15.13</b>

Source: Megherbi (2012)

**Table 6.3** Strong public-funded Olympic federations

No.	Olympic federation	Funding (EUR)	% of total income
1	FF de pentathlon moderne	825,000	83.4
2	FF de lutte	1,645,216	55.93
3	FF d'escrime	3,184,116	52.16
4	FF des sociétés d'aviron	3,484,501	51.41
5	FF de canoë-kayak	3,362,005	51.14
6	FF de hockey	1,037,790	40.32

Source: Assemblée Nationale Française (2012)

**Table 6.4** Weakly public-funded Olympic federations

No.	Olympic federation	Funding (EUR)	% of total income
1	FF de tennis	1,285,000	0.74
2	FF de rugby	1,270,781	1.38
3	FF de football	2,855,190	1.48
4	FF de golf	666,955	2.5
5	FF d'équitation	1,808,012	4.08
6	FF de basketball	2,572,830	11.5

Source: Assemblée Nationale Française (2012)

**Table 6.5** Revenues of the CNDS in 2012

Denomination	Description	Amount in 2012
Française des jeux	1.8 % on the revenues	EUR 173.8 m
Taxe Buffet	5.0 % on the revenues for TV rights	EUR 43.4 m
Sports betting	1.8 % on the revenues	EUR 31.0 m
Française des jeux (special charge 2011 till 2015)	0.3 % on the revenues (designated for the sport facilities of the EURO 2016)	EUR 24.0 m
<b>Total</b>		<b>EUR 272.2 m</b>

Source: Todeschini (2012)

In 2006 the CNDS succeeded the Fonds National pour le Développement du Sport (FNDS), which was established in 1979. The basic objective of the CNDS is to foster the physical activity and the sport participation for a majority of the population. Furthermore the CNDS has following functions: (i) facilitate the access to high-performance sport and support of the organization of high-ranking sport competitions, (ii) strengthen health-enhancing activities through sport, (iii) improve the safety of sport practice and the protection of athletes, and (iv) improve the general conditions for sport practice (Todeschini 2012).

The CNDS is financed by tax revenues, which are allocated each year. Basically the revenues come from the gambling tax (Table 6.5).

The tax Buffet is a solidarity tax amounting to 5 % on the revenues for the commercialization of TV rights in professional sport. It was established in 2000. The money is forwarded to the CNDS for the further development of sport. In 2012, the receipts amounted to EUR 43.4 million (Todeschini 2012).

Another important factor within the economy of sports in France is the contribution of voluntary work. Despite the strong support and influence of the state, the voluntary commitment within the federations and clubs is strong. Andreff (2009) numbers the effort of voluntary working people in sport to 271,000 full-time positions in 2005. According to his calculations, the economic value of voluntary work amounts to over EUR 5 billion, if you weight the number of positions with the average income in France (Andreff 2009).

## 6.4 Sport Policy

The basic philosophy of the sport policy in France is the predominant competency of the state, who feels mainly responsible for the governance of sport (Ministère des Sports 2013a). This broad claim for leadership of the state implies at the same time a high diversity of policy fields where the ministry of sports is in charge. Out of these, two policy fields are characteristic for the governmental sport policy in France: high-performance sport and sport and health.

### 6.4.1 *Promotion of High-Performance Sport in France*

The public support of high-performance sport is strongly developed in France. As mentioned in the chapter on the financing of sport, the national sport federations received more than EUR 96 million of public funding in 2011 (Sect. 6.3.1). Furthermore the national sport federations receive significant financial support from the delegation of qualified public officers for the technical and functional support of the federation. The so-called Cadres Techniques Nationaux (CTN) are part of the staff, who are employed and fully financed by the state.<sup>3</sup> Within the CTN, the directeur technique national has a unique status. As sports director he holds a very dominant position in the operational area and has a large influence on the federation's work. In 2011, the state financed a total of 1689 such positions, 65 of them were on director's level (Ministère des Sports 2011).

The centerpiece of the promotion of high-performance sport in France is the Institut National du Sport, de l'Expertise et de la Performance (INSEP). This national center for high-performance sport is located on an 84-acre site in the Bois de Vincennes east of Paris. It accommodates the national training centers of 24 disciplines, among others athletics, swimming, and tennis. The INSEP is a subordinated institution to the national ministry of sports. Besides the excellent sport facilities, it offers the opportunity of a vocational training or academic studies to the athletes.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>3</sup> However, this kind of support can be seen critical bearing in mind the increasing influence of the state.

<sup>4</sup> Furthermore, the state finances regional centers for the promotion of high-performance sport, the so-called Centres de Ressources, d'Expertise et de Performance Sportives (CREPS).

In France the state pays great attention to the support of high-performance athletes. Those who have qualified for the national squads receive specific privileges. For example, they are favored over other applicants regarding the employment for state positions (Code du Sport 2006, art.221–3). Furthermore the establishment of the payment of a pension to the athletes for their active period is intended (Le Monde 2011).

### 6.4.2 *Sport and Health*

The French government has various approaches to the field of sport and health. Besides the idea that sport and physical activity has a positive influence on health and well being, the state takes intensive care of the protection and physical integrity of the athletes.

Like in most of the other countries of the European Union, France has initiated many programs to support and promote the health-enhancing and preventive effect of sport and physical activity. For example, the Ministry of Sports together with the Ministry of Health executes a program to promote a balanced diet and physical activity (Condroyer 2012).

Particularly for French sport policy is the distinct consideration of the health protection of athletes and the given quality guidelines for the practice of sport. Health checks on admission to a sports club and regular health examinations are regulated by law (Code du Sport 2006, art.231–2). Furthermore, it is regulated by law that clubs and federations have to pay attention to the quality of the education of their coaches and trainers. Full-time trainers and coaches are obliged to complete a state examination, the so-called Brevet d'État d'éducateur sportif (Code du Sport 2006, art.211 ff.).

The fight against doping, which in France is connected to the field of health protection, is also very important. The handling of and the fight against doping is regulated comprehensively within the Code du Sport.<sup>5</sup> Besides the regulations on doping prevention and the establishment of the national anti-doping agency, also the criminal prosecution of doping is regulated. In France, the Agence Française de Lutte contre le Dopage (AFLD) located in Châtenay-Malabry near Paris is a national anti-doping agency in charge of the fight against doping. Formally the agency is independent, but it receives 90 % of its budget from the state. In 2011, the AFLD had a total budget of EUR 9 million (Assemblée Nationale Française 2011).

For the prevention of doping, the ministries of health and sport have established 26 medical reception centers across the country (Ministère des Sports 2013b). Within the so-called Antennes Médicales de Prévention du Dopage (AMPD), athletes have the opportunity to ask for help anonymously. Additionally the ministry of sports has set up an anonymous and toll-free hotline already in 1998, which athletes can also use.

---

<sup>5</sup>With 32 articles the regulations on doping are the biggest part of the Code du Sport.

On the other side of the fight against doping, the criminal prosecution is very strict in France. Persons who have offended the regulations on doping of the Code du Sport may be sentenced to 7 years in prison and to a fine up to EUR 150,000 (Code du Sport 2006, art.232–26).

Looking at both examples of high-performance sport and the health promotion, it can be shown that the French government is the central actor in sport policy making. As already mentioned in the chapter on the philosophy of sport organization in France, the trust in legal regulations is very strong (Sect. 6.2). Besides the extensive sport law (e.g., Code du Sport from 2006), there are a lot of legal ordinances and writs, which regulate the sport on all levels into detail. The public funding of the national sport federations is managed by target agreements under the control of the ministry of sports. All these strong regulations lead to a substantial limitation of the autonomy of self-organized sport within the clubs and federations in France.

## 6.5 Sport Participation

In France public entities have dealt with the measurement of sport participation and physical activity since the late 1960s. But the definitions of sport and physical activity differed more or less between the studies. In the course of time, the definitions became more concrete. Within the first study of the Institut National de la Statistique et des Etudes Economiques (INSEE) in 1967, the interviewed persons were only asked if they participate in sport or not. There was no question about the duration and intensity of their exercise. Since 2000, the differentiation of physical activity improved more and more (Institut national de la santé et de la recherche médicale 2008). Furthermore, the number of studies has increased within the last years.<sup>6</sup> In order to provide comparability, some of the studies in France rely on international standards. For example, the studies of the Institut National de Prévention et d'Education pour la Santé (INPES) are based on the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ). This approach concentrates on the evaluation of the day-to-day physical activity. In contrast the Institut National du Sport, de l'Expertise et de la Performance (INSEP)<sup>7</sup> prefers a more sport-orientated definition of physical activity. Within the studies of the INSEP, only activities are asked about where the main purpose is to move<sup>8</sup> (Lefevre and Thierry 2011). Following the current study of the INSEP, 65 % of the French people older than 15 years claimed to take part in one or more sport activities within the past 12 month at least once a week.

---

<sup>6</sup>Besides the INSEE several other organizations, like the Institut National de Prévention et d'Education pour la Santé (INPES) and the Institut National du Sport, de l'Expertise et de la Performance (INSEP), work on the subject of participation in sport and physical activity.

<sup>7</sup>For the studies on sport participation, the Institut National du Sport, de l'Expertise et de la Performance (INSEP) works together with the statistic unit of the ministry of sport MEOS (Mission des Etudes, de l'Observation et des Statistiques).

<sup>8</sup>Following this approach taking a walk is considered but going shopping not.

**Table 6.6** Sport participation in France – survey 03/2010

Type of activity	% of actives	Number of actives
Walking (walking/promenade, hiking, trekking)	68	35,600,000
Swimming (bathing, swimming, diving, water polo)	40	21,000,000
Cycling (cycling, mountain bike, BMX)	33	17,400,000
Gymnastics (wellness/fitness, calisthenics, gymnastics)	19	9,800,000
Running activities (jogging, marathon, trail running, cross-country running)	18	9,700,000
Winter sports (downhill skiing, cross-country skiing, snowboarding)	13	6,900,000
Sports with bowls (pétanque/jeu de boules, billiards, and bowling)	13	6,800,000
Soccer	10	5,400,000
Bodybuilding	8	4,300,000
Table Tennis	7	3,900,000

Source: Lefevre and Thierry (2011)

**Table 6.7** Participation rates according to age and gender

Age (years)	Men	Women
	At least moderate activity <sup>a</sup>	At least moderate activity
15–74	71.4	62.7
15–24	85.6	65.9
25–34	74.5	60.6
35–44	63.8	63.3
45–54	63.0	56.3
55–64	70.4	61.2
65–74	72.5	72.7

Source: (Danet 2011), p. 150

<sup>a</sup>The given definition of an at least moderate activity comprises a minimum activity of 30 min, corresponding to fast walking (Danet 2011)

The percentage increases to 89 % if you add the people who only participated in activities sporadically (Lefevre and Thierry 2011).

The most popular activity area in France comprises all forms of walking, which is done by two-thirds of the respondents (Table 6.6). Other popular activities are swimming and cycling with a participation rate of 40 % and 33 %.

Sport and physical activity are also influenced by sociodemographic factors in France. Both gender and age have an influence on the participation in physical activities. The participation rate of men between 15 and 74 years is 9 % higher than for the same age group of women. Whereas in younger age groups the difference of gender is bigger, the level of participation in middle (35–44 years) and higher age (65–74 years) is almost balanced. Between 45 and 64 years, the group of women is less active by approximately 8 % (Table 6.7).

Looking at the male population, the activity rate is at its highest at 85.6 % within the age group 15–24 years. The rate diminishes with advancing age and increases with higher age from 55 years on. With 72.7 % the part of physically active women is at the highest within the age group of 65–74 years. But initially it diminishes with advancing age to 56.3 % in the age group of 45–54 years.

**Table 6.8** Memberships of the biggest national sport federations in 2010

	Memberships 2000	Memberships 2010	Difference (%)
Fédération française de football	2,150,400	2,107,900	-2
Fédération française de tennis	1,048,300	1,134,600	+8
Fédération française d'équitation	428,300	687,300	+60
Fédération française de judo-jujitsu	530,300	580,300	+9
Fédération française de basketball	437,200	456,000	+4
Fédération française de golf	291,800	418,900	+44
Fédération française de handball	273,800	411,300	+50
Fédération française de rugby	264,600	390,200	+47
Fédération française de canoë-kayak	93,900	372,600	+297
Fédération française de pétanque	422,600	312,000	-26

Source: Meos (2011)

Self-organized sport in France consists of a broad network of clubs and federations. With about 17.5 million memberships in more than 167,000 clubs, the organization rate of the French population is 27 % (Clerbon 2012). The national sport federations with most members are soccer, tennis, and equestrian sports (Table 6.8).

The development of memberships has been positive for most of the federations. The strongest increase of memberships since 2000 can be observed in canoeing, the equestrian sports, and handball. All in all, the number of memberships within French sport federations has increased within this period by 2.8 million from 14.7 million to 17.5 million. This corresponds to a percentage increase of 19 %.

## 6.6 Conclusion

France has a centralized sport system with a strong influence of the state. A distinct legislation for sport, broad public funding of sport especially through the communes is an example of the dominant position of the state.

With the Institut National du Sport, de l'Expertise et de la Performance (INSEP), France disposes of one of the world's leading centers for high-performance sport. The center offers both sport and vocational training for the French top athletes. The broad support for high-performance sport is accompanied by an extensive fight against doping.

## References

- Amar, M., Gay-Lescot, J., & Tétart, P. (2007). Le sport dans la tourmente, de Vichy à la Libération. In *Histoire du sport en France. Le temps de la conquête: du second Empire au régime de Vichy* (pp. 377–394). Le Mans/Vuibert: Université du Maine/Musée national du sport.
- Andreff, W. (2009). Public and private sport financing in Europe: the impact of financial crisis. In *84th Western Economic Association International conference, Vancouver, 2009*.



- Assemblée Nationale Française. (1901). *Loi du 1er Juillet 1901 relative au contrat d'association*. Paris: Journal officiel du 2 juillet 1901.
- Assemblée Nationale Française. (2011). Question No: 92628 (13. législature) de Jacques Re-miller. Réponse de Mme. la ministre de la santé et des sports, Paris, 18 Jan 2011.
- Assemblée Nationale Française. (2012). Question No: 119268 (13. législature) de Marc Dolez. Réponse de M. le ministre des sports, Paris, 03 Jan 2012.
- Bournazel, É., & Dudognon, C. (2008). Institutions et droit du sport. In *Le sport en France. Une approche politique, économique et sociale* (Nouvelle (Ed.), pp. 23–50). Paris: La Documentation française.
- Callède, J.-P. (2000). *Les politiques sportives en France: Eléments de sociologie historique*. Paris: Economica.
- Callède, J.-P. (2007). Maires et ministres entrepreneurs. L'invention des politiques publiques du sport (1918–1939). In *Histoire du sport en France* (pp. 155–182). Le Mans/Vuibert: Université du Maine/Musée national du sport.
- Clerbon, E. (2012). *Les licences et les clubs des fédérations sportives agréées en 2011. Bulletin de statistiques et d'études*. Paris: Ministère d'éducation national de la jeunesse et de la vie associative, Ministère des sports.
- Condroyer, F. (2012). *La santé vient en bougeant*. <http://www.inpes.sante.fr/cfesbases/catalogue/pdf/715.pdf>. Accessed 14 Feb 2013.
- Danet, S. (2011). *L'état de santé de la population en France*. Paris: Direction de la recherche des études de l'évaluation et des statistiques.
- Direction générale des collectivités locales. (2013). Portail Internet DGCL: Sport. Les normes applicables aux équipements sportifs. Online access [http://www.dgcl.interieur.gouv.fr/sections/les\\_collectivites\\_te/missions\\_collectivite/culture\\_et\\_sport/sport/](http://www.dgcl.interieur.gouv.fr/sections/les_collectivites_te/missions_collectivite/culture_et_sport/sport/), Accessed 24 Jan 2013.
- Fischer, C. (2011). The cooperation of governmental and non-governmental sport organizations in France. Interview with Edmond Seuillard. Frankfurt/Main.
- Institut national de la santé et de la recherche médicale. (2008). *Activité physique*. Paris: In-Serm.
- Le Monde. (2011). L'Etat prendra en charge la retraite des sportifs amateurs de haut niveau.
- Lefevre, B., & Thierry, P. (2011). *Les principales activités physiques et sportives. Bulletin de statistiques et d'études* (Vol. 11). Paris: Ministère d'éducation national de la jeunesse et de la vie associative, Ministère des sports.
- Megherbi, D. (2012). *Le poids économique du sport en 2009*. Paris: Bulletin de statistiques et d'études.
- Miège, C. (1993). *Les institutions sportives*. Paris: Presses universitaires de France.
- Ministère des Sports. (2006). *Code du Sport*. Paris.
- Ministère des Sports. (2011). *Les chiffres-clés du sport* (pp. 1–14). Paris, December 2011.
- Ministère des Sports. (2013a). *Le site du Ministère des Sports, de la Jeunesse, de l'Éducation populaire et de la Vie associative – Rôle du ministère*. <http://www.sports.gouv.fr/index/acteurs-du-sport/role-du-ministere/>. Accessed 22 Jan 2013.
- Ministère des Sports. (2013b). *Liste officielle des Antennes Médicales de Prévention et de Lutte contre le Dopage*. [http://www.sports.gouv.fr/IMG/doc/Coordonnees\\_AMPD\\_fev-2012.doc](http://www.sports.gouv.fr/IMG/doc/Coordonnees_AMPD_fev-2012.doc). Accessed 20 Jan 2013.
- Mission études de l'observation et statistiques (Meos). (2011). *Licences sportives en 2010*. Paris: Ministère des sports.
- Sénat Français. (2005). Subventions aux fédérations sportives. In Sénat Français (Ed.), *12ème législature* (Vol. 15862). Journal officiel sénat.
- Terret, T. (2010). *Histoire du sport* (2ed.). Aufl. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
- Todeschini, J.-M. (2012). Rapport d'information au sénat – au nom de la Commission des finances sur l'enquête de la Cour des comptes relative au Centre national pour le développement du sport. In Sénat français (Ed.), 287, Paris.
- Tokarski, W., & Steinbach, D. (2001). *Spuren – Sportpolitik und Sportstrukturen in der Europäischen Union* (Sport & Freizeit, 6th ed.). Aachen: Meyer & Meyer.

# Chapter 7

## Germany

Karen Petry and Kirstin Hallmann

### 7.1 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

The organizational structure of the sport system is shaped, to a large extent, by the federal structure that is characteristic of the Federal Republic of Germany and which is a feature of both public sports administration and the structures of autonomous civic or self-administration of sport. As described in Fig. 7.1, the sports organizational structure at federal level has two distinct pillars: one of public administration and a two-tier pillar of autonomous or self-administration of sport. Nonprofit sport clubs offer a range of sport programs to the population, and there are more than 91,000 nonprofit sport clubs (Breuer and Feiler 2013c).

Since the merger of the DSB and the NOC in May 2006, the German Olympic Sports Confederation (DOSB) has represented the interests of its member organizations as the sole umbrella organization. The DOSB has 98 member organizations comprising 27.8 million members including people who are members of two or more sport clubs (DOSB 2012). The member organizations of the DOSB unite 16 federal state sport confederations/federations, 62 national federations (34 Olympic and 28 non-Olympic), and 20 sport federations with special tasks (e.g., German Olympic Society, German Association for Sport Science, German Association of Physical Education Teachers, Makkabi in Germany) (DOSB 2012). The German

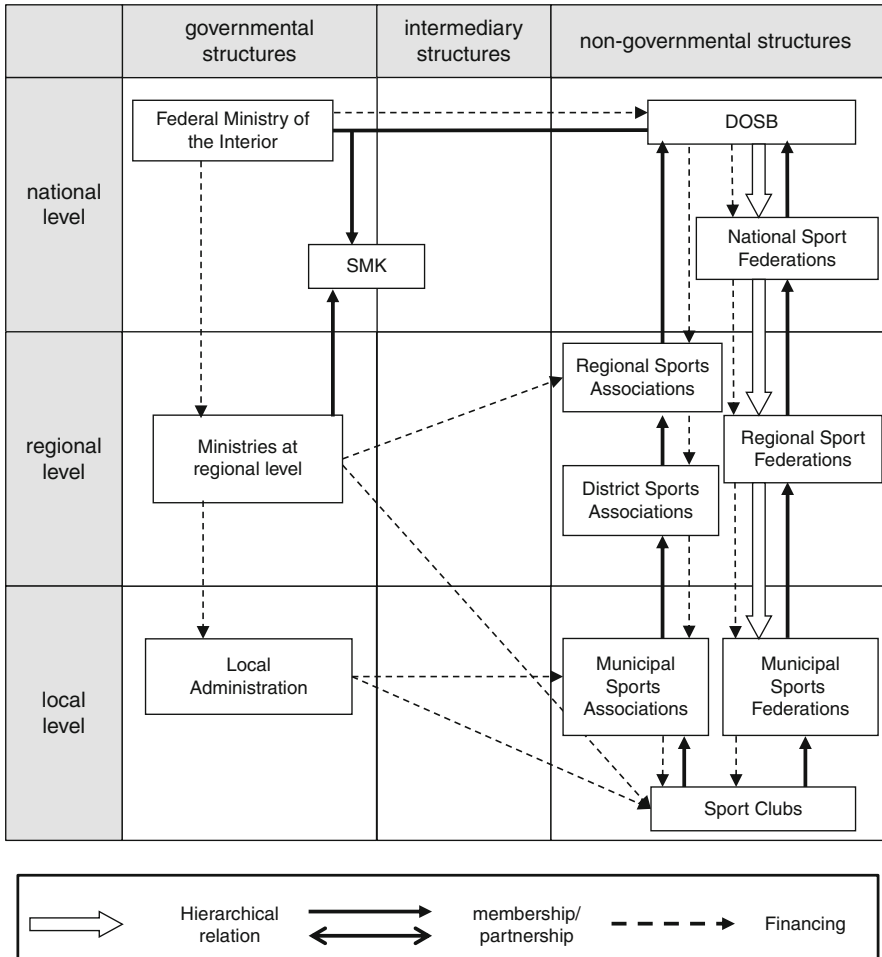
---

K. Petry (✉)

Institute of European Sport Development and Leisure Studies, German Sport University  
Cologne, Cologne, Germany  
e-mail: Petry@dshs-koeln.de

K. Hallmann

Institute of Sport Economics and Management, German Sport University Cologne,  
Cologne, Germany  
e-mail: k.hallmann@dshs-koeln.de



**Fig. 7.1** The organization of sport in Germany. Note: *SMK* Konferenz der Sportminister/-innen der Länder (Meeting of Sport Ministers of all federal states), *DOSB* Deutscher Olympischer Sportbund (German Olympic Sports Confederation)

Sports Youth is the umbrella federation of youth organizations belonging to the German Sports Confederation, and it focuses, in particular, on working with children and young people. The German Sports Youth combines the interest of more than 9.5 million young people until the age of 27, and they are organized in sport clubs in 16 regional sports youth, 53 youth organizations of the national federations, and 10 youth organizations of the federations with special tasks (Bundesministerium des Inneren 2010).

The DOSB’s Performance Division and the equivalent structures at regional level (Regional Performance Committee/LA-L) play a guiding and coordinating role in elite sport development. The Performance Sports Division is responsible for

**Table 7.1** Top ten sport federations by memberships (DOSB 2012)

Federation	Memberships
Soccer Federation	6,800,128
Gymnastics Federation	4,967,401
Tennis Federation	1,504,112
Shooting Federation	1,394,060
Alpine Association	918,553
Track and Field Federation	860,120
Handball Association	818,640
Equestrian Federation	718,965
Federation of Sportfishermen	628,066
Golf Federation	624,569

managing and coordinating top-level sport within the DOSB. It launches initiatives for the development of strategic plans and makes declarations of principle regarding performance sport for young athletes and top-level sport.

Table 7.1 lists the ten sports federations within the DOSB that have the highest number of memberships: the German Soccer Federation has the largest number of members, with 6.8 million in total (DOSB 2012). The German Gymnastics Federation plays a special role in the landscape of sport federations because it combines a large number of sports for all programs. The Federal Government also helps to fund the German Gymnastics Festival and the Gymnaestrada (the largest international general gymnastics festival).

In the public administration of sport, both the Federal Government (through the Federal Ministry of the Interior) and the 16 federal states (for instance, via their Ministries of Culture or the Interior) have joint responsibility for sport in their area. There are consequently no independent specialist ministries of sports. Responsibility for top-level sport, however, lies with the Federal Ministry of the Interior operating as the specialized department. The latter plays the leading role in the area of state support for top-level sport. It also coordinates the activities of the other federal ministries that have specific responsibilities in the area of top-level sport, such as supporting top-level sport in the Federal Armed Forces.

However, sport issues at local government level are the responsibility of specialist sports offices. As a result of the country's federal structure, these public structures do not constitute a hierarchically integrated, top-to-bottom system. Rather, the individual ministries operate largely independently although they do, at regional level, coordinate their activities as part of the Conference of Ministers of Sports of the regions. The situation is different with regard to the self-administered autonomous sport sector: the clubs are organized both at the level of specific disciplines (into governing bodies) and at the level of multiple sports (into sports confederations; Petry and Schulze 2011).

The majority of sport clubs in Germany are registered, and they belong to the voluntary associations that are characterized by certain features:

- Membership is voluntary.
- Members can join or leave a sports club without any external constraints.

- The decision to become a member of a club can hence be swayed by the sport programs offered by the club.
- If clubs cease serving the interest of its members, they risk losing members, and if the programs clubs' offer is very attractive, they stand to gain new members.
- Sport clubs are not dependent on third parties, as they provide their services by and large, through the financial contributions and voluntary involvement of their members. The fact that they are dependent on their members ensures they are not dependent on third parties. Sport clubs represent the interests of their members, who are only willing to contribute resources (e.g., money or time) if this facilitates activities that align with their interests. The decision-making structure of German sport clubs is also democratic. The objectives and services provided by the club are jointly determined by the members, who exert their influence via their voting rights and not via personal ownership of the club.

The most important resource within sport clubs is the voluntary involvement of their members, who work free of charge and without directly receiving anything in return. Breuer and Feiler (2013c) stated that around almost 0.75 million people were engaged as volunteers at the board level in nonprofit sport clubs. The involvement of members in this way facilitates cooperation, based on the spirit of solidarity in the pursuit of their interests. Voluntary involvement enables the clubs to be organized in accordance with the interests of their members. The extent to which sport clubs are being transformed from communities of like-minded people into service organizations has been a subject of debate and, in some case, a source of controversy. Controversy is especially evident in large multi-branch clubs that offer a comprehensive range of sport for all opportunities.

## 7.2 Financing of Sport

The German sport system distinguishes between nonprofit and for-profit sport organizations, and the financing of sports differs between these segments. Sporting organizations have different sources to generate income. These include, among others, membership fees, sponsoring deals, TV rights, merchandising, public subsidies, and lottery. Before analyzing sources of revenue for sport organizations, it must be noted that the German government supported elite sports from 2006 to 2009 with 842 million euros (Bundesministerium des Inneren 2010). The federal states and local municipalities support in addition elite sport but also sport for all. One of the lotteries supported sport in 2009 with EUR 15.9 million which went to the German Olympic Confederation (35 %), the German Sport Aid Foundation (25 %), and the regional sport confederations (40 %) (Bundesministerium des Inneren 2010). Revenues from advertising, sponsoring, and media rights amounted to EUR 5.5 billion in 2010 (an der Heiden et al. 2012). Considering income from sponsoring, nonprofit sport clubs received EUR 2.05 billion, while for-profit sport clubs received EUR 1.1 billion (an der Heiden et al. 2012). Although the amount for nonprofit sport clubs is higher, the number of nonprofit sport clubs is also higher (there are

more than 90,000 nonprofit sport clubs in Germany), implying that the single club received on average less.

Nonprofit sport clubs have accumulated a range of income sources such as membership fees (approx. 60 %), donations (8.8 %), subsidies from the municipalities/federal state (9 %), and other sources such as club restaurant, loans, and sponsoring contracts (Breuer and Feiler 2013b). These heterogeneous sources of income work like a protective shield; that is, a decrease in income in one of the categories is generally less severe with regard to the overall financial situation (Breuer and Feiler 2013b).

Besides direct income, nonprofit sport clubs benefit also from indirect income such as the use of municipal sport facilities for free or a small amount of money and fiscal privileges and the work of volunteers. The volunteer hours for nonprofit sport clubs amounted to 12.5 million hours in Germany in 2012, indicating a monetary value of EUR 2.25 billion at the board level (Breuer and Feiler 2013c). In addition, voluntary activities are performed at other levels of the nonprofit sport club. If we consider further voluntary activities, in soccer, six million hours of voluntary activities are performed; in tennis, 2.1 million hours of voluntary activities are performed; and in handball, one million hours are monthly provided (Breuer and Feiler 2013a). This shows the importance of indirect financing in this sector, and the functioning of nonprofit sport clubs highly depends on it. Nonprofit sport clubs spend money on coaches (17 %), maintenance of facilities, equipment, and clothing for teams, organization of sport events, fees for federations, and traveling costs, insurance, taxes, etc. (Breuer and Feiler 2013b).

For-profit sport organizations can be distinguished on the one hand into commercial sport providers like fitness centers and on the other hand the teams in the German top leagues of, for instance, soccer, basketball, ice hockey, and handball. The fitness centers generated in 2011 a turnover of EUR 3.98 billion, having 7.57 members who paid on average a membership fee of EUR 46.2 (DSSV Arbeitgeberverband deutscher Fitness- und Gesundheits-Anlagen 2012). Those fitness centers spend the highest income on staff (27.7 %), rent (12.2 %), energy (5.6 %), marketing (4.8 %), leasing (4.6 %), and other things (e.g., insurance, maintenance; DSSV Arbeitgeberverband deutscher Fitness- und Gesundheits-Anlagen 2012). The teams of the leagues have the advantage that they benefit – divergent from nonprofit organizations – more from income of the league competition, advertising, TV rights, and sponsoring (Hovemann 2005). The disadvantage is that those clubs are also more dependent on these sources since they have in general fewer sources than nonprofit sport clubs. For instance, the overall revenues of the German Handball League have amounted in 2011/2012 to 86.1 million euros of which 69.5 % were generated from sponsoring, 21.0 % came from income generated at match days (mostly ticket sales), 3.0 % from TV rights, 1.5 % from merchandising, and 5.0 % from other sources (Vogel and Ehemann 2012). The German Ice Hockey League had similar revenues in terms of absolute numbers 86.2 million euros. However, the income distribution differed: 46.9 % sponsoring, 36.0 % income from match days, 3.4 % from merchandising, and 13.7 % from other sources (Vogel and Ehemann 2012). In contrast, the third German Soccer League had revenues in the season 2011/2012 of 100.4 million euros. These were generated from sponsoring

(44.5 %), income match days (16.9 %), TV rights (15.1 %), merchandising (1.9 %), and other sources (21.6 %; Vogel and Ehemann 2012). Thus, differences between soccer and other team sports are prevalent. For-profit organizations have different expenditure categories such as players, administrative staff, youth and amateurs, material costs, and merchandising. The biggest amount is spent on players (Vogel and Ehemann 2012).

### ***7.2.1 Financing of Sport Facilities***

In the past, sport facilities (public sport facilities) have been mainly financed with the help of public money. Yet, this classical way of financing has been partly substituted by private funding or hybrid models of funding (Breuer et al. 2011c; Breuer and Hovemann 2006; Vornholz 2005). Again, a portfolio of financing opportunities is available for financing sport facilities. These include equity financing, debt capital financing, and financing with mezzanine capital (Vornholz 2005; Breuer and Hovemann 2006). Besides, financing can be public, private, or through public-private partnerships.

The overall expenditures for sport facilities, their modernization, and maintenance amounted in 2008 to 22.6 billion euros. The biggest amount (9.7 billion euros) was spent for maintenance costs (Bundesministerium für Wirtschaft und Technologie 2012). Breuer and Hovemann (2006) stated that municipalities were the main providers for the financing of sport facilities since their engagement amounted to 72–78 % of the total public sport funding between 1992 and 2001. Further numbers from 2008 support this notion: 74 % of investment and maintenance costs of public sport facilities were paid by the municipalities (Bundesministerium für Wirtschaft und Technologie 2012). Consequently, the biggest finance resource is public money. Yet, the amount of public financing models increased (Breuer et al. 2011c). Notwithstanding, it has to be mentioned that the risk of investing into a sports facility is high since the venue's profits depend with regard to for-profit organizations on the home team's success (Napp and Vornholz 2002). A third model for financing sport facilities is through public-private partnerships (PPPs) which occur in different organizational and cooperational forms. The cooperations include oftentimes the state on the one side and private investors on the other side to facilitate the management of complex tasks (Vornholz 2005).

## **7.3 Sports Policy**

In the aftermath of the World War II, new umbrella sport organizations emerged in the federal republic which replaced the state-dominated sports movement of the National Socialists. In 1949, the National Olympic Committee for Germany (NOK)

was set up, and in 1950 the German Sports Association (DSB) was established. The NOK was designed to represent the Olympic ideal in Germany, and the DSB was set up as the national umbrella organization representing all sport federations. In 2006, these organizations merged into the German Olympic Sports Confederation (DOSB), which means that the Olympic and non-Olympic sport disciplines now have a common umbrella organization. In terms of statutes, the DOSB distinguishes its fields of tasks into general goals, performance-oriented goals, and goals that relate to sport for all (DOSB 2011).

Under Article 30 of the Basic Law, the 16 federal regions are generally responsible for subsidizing sport in the Federal Republic of Germany. The main focus in this regard is on the area of subsidies for school sport, university sport, sport for all, and leisure sport within and outside the federations and on the construction of sports facilities. Adhering to the principle of the autonomy of sport, the state interprets its role as that of a sponsor who merely creates the framework that enables autonomous sport and its athletes to perform at the highest international level. For this reason, the government does not become involved in dealing with issues through its own programs or initiatives, but rather by participating in the different bodies involved in the self-administration of sport (Petry and Schulze 2011).

The Federal Government is represented, in particular, in the commissions and committees that have high-level competencies in the area of top-level sport. Representatives of the Federal Government are present, *inter alia*, on the boards, commissions, and committees of the DOSB, the national sports federations, and the German Sports Aid Foundation and on the boards of trustees of the federal training centers (Petry et al. 2008).

### ***7.3.1 Top-Level Sports***

With reunification, the German top-level sports system faced the challenge of integrating the GDR's centralist and totalitarian system into the top-level sports system of the federal republic, which was characterized by great openness and by the fact that it took federal structures into account. Some extraordinarily successful structures of the GDR's top-level sports system had to be eliminated as part of this process for political, economic, or ethical reasons, only to be reintroduced later on in a changed or similar form. In relation to the role Germany plays in international sports competition, the aspiration for success that developed during the previous phase has been maintained. This also manifests itself in the publicly stated requirement that Germany be one of the top nations at the Olympics (Bundesministerium des Inneren 2010).

Objectives are much more rigidly and accurately defined in the all-German top-level sports system than in the former federal German sports system. Medal guidelines have become customary in a large number of sports federations, and the weighting of Olympic successes according to their representative value in society appears to have increased, particularly over the past 15 years.



### 7.3.2 *Sport for All*

The Federal Government continually emphasizes the importance of sport, especially the promotion of sport for all, but there is no governmental program that has set particular goals with regard to a “sport for all” policy. However, there have been and are several initiatives that are used to foster sport participation such as such a particular outdoor movement in the 1970s (“Trimm Dich”), an initiative promoted by a health insurance company and a major TV broadcaster called “Germany gets active” (“Deutschland bewegt sich”), or an initiative with a long tradition housed by the German Olympic Sports Confederation called “Sportabzeichen” (sports badge). Here, every citizen having accomplished exercises within a particular limit (e.g., being 70–74 years old, one should swim 43 s or below on 25 m for the gold badge) in four categories gets awarded the badge. This initiative celebrated its 100th anniversary in 2013 and has thus a long tradition in Germany. The exercises can be accomplished on a yearly basis.

Furthermore, the Federal Government supports the autonomous sport movement in the certain fields (Bundesministerium des Inneren 2010, p. 17).

#### 7.3.2.1 Youth Sports and the Federal Youth Sport Games

The Federal Ministry of Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (BMFSFJ) supports sport for children and young people. The Federal Government’s plan for children and young people envisages supporting the so-called free and public youth welfare organizations. It provides funds mainly for the German Sports Youth, although it also supports other youth associations of the various sport federations, two bilateral youth offices (Franco-German Youth Office and the German-Polish Youth Office), and the implementation of the Federal Youth Sport Games. The Federal Youth Sport Games have been implemented in schools and sports clubs since 1951 and is the biggest sporting event in Germany with approximately five million children and young people taking part (Bundesministerium des Inneren 2010, p. 77).

#### 7.3.2.2 Women and Girls in Sport

Women and girls are equally represented in organized sport in Germany although they are clearly underrepresented in the management bodies of organized sport (federations, DOSB, and sports clubs). The Federal Government has promoted a number of campaigns and projects of the DOSB, such as the model project “Women at the Top.”

#### 7.3.2.3 Sport for Seniors and Sport for Families

Together with the Federal Ministry of Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (BMFSFJ), a number of projects were implemented aimed at including

older people and families into organized sport. The Federal Government also used the tool of campaigns and model projects (“Staying fit at 50 +” or the project “Family and Sport”).

Other important areas in which the Federal Government emphasizes the sociopolitical importance of sport are (a) sport and integration, (b) sport and the prevention of violence, (c) sport and voluntary involvement, (d) sport and health, and (e) sport and the environment.

## 7.4 Sport Participation

Sport participation is of interest to policy makers since several positive externalities are attributed to taking part in sports, leading to a reduction in healthcare costs. These positive effects include, for instance, health, integration, and social inclusion (Heinemann 2005). Before shedding light on the actual participation rates and the most practiced sports, a definition of sport participation will be provided.

### 7.4.1 *Current and Past Participation Rates*

Research on sport participation was conducted in different nationwide surveys (e.g., Krug et al. 2012; Becker et al. 2006) and in several German cities (e.g., Breuer et al. 2011b; Wicker et al. 2009; Hallmann et al. 2011). A broad definition of sport participation was used, implying that also leisurely activities like intense walking (including walking the dog) or cycling were considered as sport. Yet, participation of at least 30 min per week was considered a prerequisite for being physically active.

Previous research based on large surveys suggested moderate to high participation rates of 60–75 % for Germany. For instance, it has been indicated that in 2003 two thirds of the German population were physically active, though only one third once per week using a nationwide survey (Becker et al. 2006). Several surveys conducted in various German cities between 2007 and 2009 with an overall sample size of  $n=26,263$  suggested that 73.6 % of the population took part in sports at least once per week (Breuer et al. 2011b). A different nationwide study regarding health-related issues in Germany revealed that 72.6 % of the male population and 65.4 % of the female population practiced at least once per week sport (Krug et al. 2012). Following this study, there was an increase in sport participation of 14 % for males and 16 % for women from 1998 to 2008–2011 when the data collection took place (Krug et al. 2012).

Having a look at the most practiced sports (see Table 7.2), cycling with a participation rate of 20.1 %, swimming with a participation rate of 13.7 %, and running with a participation rate of 13.3 % were among the activities performed most often. Other popular sports were fitness, gymnastics, going for a walk and hiking, soccer, Nordic walking, dancing, and tennis (Breuer et al. 2011b).

**Table 7.2** Sport participation rates for the ten most practiced sports (Breuer et al. 2011b)

Sport	Participation rate (in %)
Cycling	20.1
Swimming	13.7
Running	13.3
Fitness	10.1
Gymnastics	9.1
Going for a walk, hiking	9.0
Soccer	8.1
(Nordic) Walking	5.8
Dancing	3.9
Tennis	3.9

### 7.4.2 Organizational Types

In Germany, sport programs are offered by nonprofit sport clubs or commercial sport providers or individuals who take part in sports in a non-organized way. Almost every third German is a member of a nonprofit sport club, though multiple memberships are also possible. Besides, there are several commercial sport providers offering also sport programs to the population. There are more than 7,300 sport facilities run by commercial sport providers, and more than 7.6 million German are a member of one of the commercial sport providers (Deloitte and DSSV 2012). Thus, every 10th German is practicing sport using programs offered by a commercial sport provider.

Research in two German municipalities indicated that 31.1 % take part in nonprofit sport clubs and 14.2 % are physically active in commercial sport centers (Breuer et al. 2011a). This represents organized sports. Of the respondents, 51.7 %<sup>1</sup> specified to take part in sports without being affiliated to any organization; thus, they practice sports in a non-organized way. In Germany, several sports such as cycling, running, or swimming are associated with non-organized sports, while sports such as soccer, gymnastics, or volleyball are associated with participation in a nonprofit sport club, and sports such as dancing, yoga, and back fitness are most often practiced using a commercial sport provider.

## 7.5 Conclusion

Sport in Germany is based on the principle of autonomy and self-administration, and they are firmly embedded in the political thinking of the German people and are therefore extremely resistant to all types of reform endeavors. Generally speaking,

<sup>1</sup> This number was analyzed in particular for this contribution, using the same dataset from which the other numbers from Breuer et al. (2011a) were derived.

sport is intended to promote personal development, the aim being to achieve equal participation of children, young people, men and women, people with disabilities, and senior citizens. It strives to pursue the basic Olympic principles and to support sport science. In terms of sport policy, the DOSB is keen to preserve the independence of its member organizations and to facilitate cooperation with government agencies and international sports federations. It aims to develop adequate sporting facilities and to procure the necessary funds. The use of public funds is always a subject of controversial discussion in the German sport system, particularly within local authorities. The question of the extent government needs to get involved in order for sport programs to be effective (and hence to enhance participation rates) is discussed primarily in the towns and local authorities. The basis for a demand-based range of sport programs presupposes not only a good sport infrastructure but also an integrated approach by local sports clubs, commercial providers, and political players.

## References

- an der Heiden, I., Meyrahn, F., & Ahlert, G. (2012). *Bedeutung des Spitzen- und Breitensports im Bereich Werbung, Sponsoring und Medienrechte*. Mainz: 2hm & Associates GmbH.
- Becker, S., Klein, T., & Schneider, S. (2006). Sportaktivität in Deutschland im 10-Jahres-Vergleich: Veränderungen und soziale Unterschiede. *Deutsche Zeitschrift für Sportmedizin*, 57(9), 226–232.
- Breuer, C., & Feiler, S. (2013a). Der Sportverein und seine Abteilungen. In C. Breuer (Ed.), *Sportentwicklungsbericht 2011/2012. Analyse zur Situation der Sportvereine in Deutschland*. Köln: Sportverlag Strauß.
- Breuer, C., & Feiler, S. (2013b). Finanzielle Situation und ökonomische Bedeutung des Vereinssports. In C. Breuer (Ed.), *Sportentwicklungsbericht 2011/2012. Analyse zur Situation der Sportvereine in Deutschland*. Köln: Sportverlag Strauß.
- Breuer, C., & Feiler, S. (2013c). Sportvereine in Deutschland – ein Überblick. In C. Breuer (Ed.), *Sportentwicklungsbericht 2011/2012. Analyse zur Situation der Sportvereine in Deutschland*. Köln: Sportverlag Strauß.
- Breuer, C., Feiler, S., & Hallmann, K. (2011a). *Determinants of institutional choice in mass sport*. Paper presented at the 19th conference of the European Association for Sport Management (EASM) Madrid, Spain.
- Breuer, C., Hallmann, K., & Wicker, P. (2011b). Determinants of sport participation in different sports. *Managing Leisure*, 16(4), 269–286. doi:[10.1080/13606719.2011.613625](https://doi.org/10.1080/13606719.2011.613625).
- Breuer, C., Hallmann, K., Wicker, P., & Feiler, S. (2011c). Financing of sport facilities in Germany. In P. Chaix (Ed.), *Les grands stades. Au cœur des enjeux économiques et sociaux entre collectivités publiques et clubs professionnels* (pp. 135–152). Paris: L'Harmattan.
- Breuer, C., & Hovemann, G. (2006). *Finanzierung von Sportstätten – Perspektiven der Sportvereine und Kommunen [Financing of sport facilities – perspectives of sport clubs and municipalities]* (Edition Sportökonomie und Sportmanagement, Vol. 5). Köln: Institut für Sportökonomie und Sportmanagement.
- Bundesministerium des Inneren. (2010). *12. Sportbericht der Bundesregierung*. Berlin: Bundesministerium des Inneren.
- Bundesministerium für Wirtschaft und Technologie. (2012). *Die wirtschaftliche Bedeutung des Sportstättenbaus und ihr Anteil an einem zukünftigen Sportsatellitenkonto*. Berlin: Bundesministerium für Wirtschaft und Technologie.
- Deloitte, & DSSV. (2012). *Der Deutsche Fitnessmarkt 2012*.

- DOSB. (2011). *Satzung [Statute]*. <http://www.dosb.de/fileadmin/sharepoint/DOSB-Dokumente%20%7B96E58B18-5B8A-4AA1-98BB-199E8E1DC07C%7D/Satzung.pdf>. Accessed 24 July 2013.
- DOSB. (2012). *Bestandserhebung 2012 [Annual survey 2012]*. [http://www.dosb.de/fileadmin/sharepoint/Materialien%20%7B82A97D74-2687-4A29-9C16-4232BAC7DC73%7D/Bestandserhebung\\_2012.pdf](http://www.dosb.de/fileadmin/sharepoint/Materialien%20%7B82A97D74-2687-4A29-9C16-4232BAC7DC73%7D/Bestandserhebung_2012.pdf). Accessed 24 July 2013.
- DSSV Arbeitgeberverband deutscher Fitness- und Gesundheits-Anlagen. (2012). *Eckdaten 2012 der deutschen Fitness-Wirtschaft*. Hamburg: DSSV e. V. – Arbeitgeberverband deutscher Fitness- und Gesundheits-Anlagen und Deloitte.
- Hallmann, K., Wicker, P., Breuer, C., & Schüttoff, U. (2011). Interdependency of sport supply and sport demand in German metropolitan and medium-sized municipalities – findings from multi-level analyses. *European Journal for Sport and Society*, 8(1/2), 65–84.
- Heinemann, K. (2005). Sport and the welfare state in Europe. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 5(4), 181–188.
- Hovemann, G. (2005). Finanzierung im Sport. In C. Breuer & A. Thiel (Eds.), *Handbuch Sportmanagement* (pp. 216–227). Schorndorf: Hofmann.
- Krug, S., Jordan, S., & Lampert, T. (2012). Physical activity: What are the patterns among Germans? *Bundesgesundheitsblatt*, 55(8), 985–986.
- Napp, H.-G., & Vornholz, G. (2002). Finanzierungsalternativen im Sportstättenbau – Probleme und Perspektiven [Financing alternatives in facility construction – problems and perspectives]. In H.-D. Horch, J. Heydel, & A. Sierau (Eds.), *Finanzierung des Sports*. Meyer und Meyer: Aachen.
- Petry, K., & Schulze, B. (2011). Participation in sport: Germany. In M. Nicholson, R. Hoye, & B. Houlihan (Eds.), *Participation in sport: International policy perspective* (pp. 42–58). London/ New York: Routledge.
- Petry, K., Steinbach, D., & Burk, V. (2008). Elite sport development in Germany: Systems, structures and public policy. In B. Houlihan & M. Green (Eds.), *Comparative elite sports development* (pp. 114–146). London: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Vogel, S., & Ehemann, T. (2012). Finanzreport deutscher Profisportligen 2012. *Sponsors*, 12(12), 48–59.
- Vornholz, G. (2005). *Finanzierung von Sport- und Freizeitanlagen [Financing of sport- and leisure facilities]*. Schorndorf: Hofmann.
- Wicker, P., Breuer, C., & Pawlowski, T. (2009). Promoting sport for all to age-specific target groups: The impact of sport infrastructure. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 9(2), 103–118.

# Chapter 8

## Hungary

Szilvia Perényi

### 8.1 Introduction

The governance and the funding of sport have been at the centre of debate and have remained an open issue in Hungary since the political and economic changes at the beginning of 1989–1990. The transition from the centrally controlled and funded sport of state socialism to the one that needed to function as one of the new players of the free-market economy was sudden; it found the stakeholders in sport unprepared. The societal subsystem of sport faced major challenges in learning the methods of survival, and the lack of experiences created controversial consequences. The withdrawal of central direction and funding resulted in a weak and neglected club system and the privatisation of state companies in frequent reconstructions or even sales of sport facilities, sport fields and sport-related real estate (Sárközy 1992; Földesi 1996; Bakonyi 2004; Hédi and Földesi 2004).

In parallel, an expansion of sports and their organisations emerged, as the number of sport federations tripled during the first years of the pluralistic change (National Sport Strategy [NSS] 2007). Apart from the traditional forms and structures (clubs, federations), some new forms, such as profit-oriented entities (fitness/health clubs, event management firms, foundations, sport marketing agencies, etc.), appeared; supply and demand balances started to acknowledge each other on the formulating sports market (Perényi 2010a). Similar to other Central European countries, however, Hungary also maintained dilemmas around finding the right balance among responsibilities of the public, private and civil spheres (Földesi and Egressy

---

S. Perényi (✉)

Faculty of Applied Economics and Rural Development, Department of Sport Economics and Management, University of Debrecen, Debrecen, Hungary  
e-mail: sperenyi@hotmail.com

2005; Földesi et al. 2002; Eichberg 2008; András 2003) and maintained a prioritised role of elite sport as a symbol for national identity and political existence (Földesi 1996; Dóczy 2012).

In the rollercoaster of this transition, the actors of the sport-civil sphere found it hard to identify their own roles and needs, wishing for more self-governance and autonomy on one hand and an extended amount of state funding on the other. Characteristically of this era, several critical discourses had been published outlining the weaknesses and dysfunctions of the civil sphere (Földesi and Gál 2008; Bakonyi 2004; Hédi and Földesi 2004; Laki and Nyerges 1999; Szabó 2012).

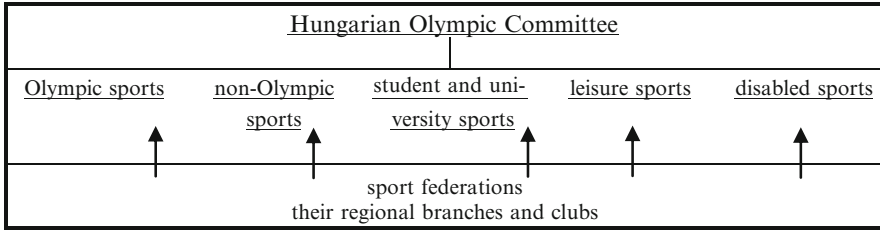
During the six electoral periods since the political and economic change, the different governments in office designated different roles and importance to sport and initiated different organisational and funding structures. In the first period after the changes, sport was governed on state-secretariat level, which was replaced by an independent ministry (2000–2004), followed by a state secretariat (2004–today). For this reason, the implementation of sport policy and funding methods went through constant change, which created a hardship in developing long-term plans and did not allow for stability in Hungarian sport. In comparison, a similar process was reported as part of the dynamic changes in the United Kingdom during the 1990s (Petry et al. 2004; Hartmann-Tews 2006) and of the unstable situation that characterised the sport systems of Eastern European countries in that period as reported by Petry et al. (2004).

In 2010, however, sport was declared to be one of the strategic branches of Hungarian society and economy by the newly elected government (Kele 2012). This brought on a series of political actions resulting in several fundamental changes in both the structure and the funding system of sport, the process which still continues at present. In this modification, the new financial support scheme (TAO) approved by the European Commission (2011) and the modification of the 2004 Act on Sports (2011) played a central role.

## 8.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organised Sport

A complete organisational restructuring was enacted in 2012, based on the regulations defined in the 2011 Amendments of the 2004 Act on Sport. This process aimed to design a clear structural system in which tasks are grouped together and assigned to responsible institutions so as to eliminate overlapping task distributions and to create a transparent, one-channel financing support system with clear controlling elements (Amendments on Act on Sport 2011).

The governmental organisation side (GO) in Hungary is administered by the state secretariat of sports, which operates under the Ministry of Human Resources (Fig. 8.2). The state secretariat presently undertakes responsibilities of representation and coordination of sport affairs within the Hungarian government, for the civil sphere of sport, and on national and international forums; also it prepares and coordinates legal regulations; national and international grant procedures. Furthermore,



**Fig. 8.1** New divisions of Hungarian Olympic Committee, 2011

it negotiates and distributes government funding to the civil sphere. It oversees two state-funded but independently operating organisations as well, the National Sports Institute<sup>1</sup> and the National Sports Centres<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 8.2).

Similarly to CONI in Italy and to NOC\*NSF in the Netherlands (Petry et al. 2004), the new umbrella NGO in Hungary, unexpected by several stakeholders in Hungarian sport, became the Hungarian Olympic Committee (HOC). In parallel, the other major civil organisations (e.g. National Sport Federation, National Leisure Sport Federation, Paralympic Committee, National Disabled Sports Federation) continued their operation as new divisions of HOC created on five key areas: (i) Olympic sports, (ii) non-Olympic sports, (iii) student and university sports, (iv) leisure sports and (v) disabled sports (Fig. 8.1). The president of each division is appointed as a vice-president of HOC and delegated to the president’s board. All sport federations were structured under their respective division within HOC and organise their regional structure, club and competition system and national teams as before.

The new NGO umbrella organisation (HOC) also allocated the task of distributing all state funding of sport to different areas and causes; similarly to CNOSF in France (Petry et al. 2004), it became dependent upon state funding. By overtaking state responsibility, the HOC became a quasi-civil organisation, with a substantial expansion in size (Fig. 8.2).

As of today, HOC does not have regional and local structures; the member organisations of all five new divisions, however, maintain regional and local federations and associations. On the regional and local level, the sport committees of municipalities have responsibilities in relation to organising and funding regional and local sport (leisure/student/disability sports) and to financing sport facilities. The national sport federations maintain their regional and local structures, organise competition sport and manage national teams, but in most cases, they are not involved in leisure sport activities. Leisure sport clubs operate separately from competition-oriented clubs, and their funding is missing a reliable and systematic approach.

<sup>1</sup> NSI (Nemzeti Sport Intézet) responsible for the complete administration of the new financial support scheme (TAO) and research in sport sciences; its previous responsibility for grass-roots sports and talent management was moved under the Hungarian Olympic Committee.

<sup>2</sup> NSK (Nemzeti Sport Központok) responsible for overseeing the six Olympic centres operating in Hungary, seven central sport facilities, training camps and the Sportmuseum.



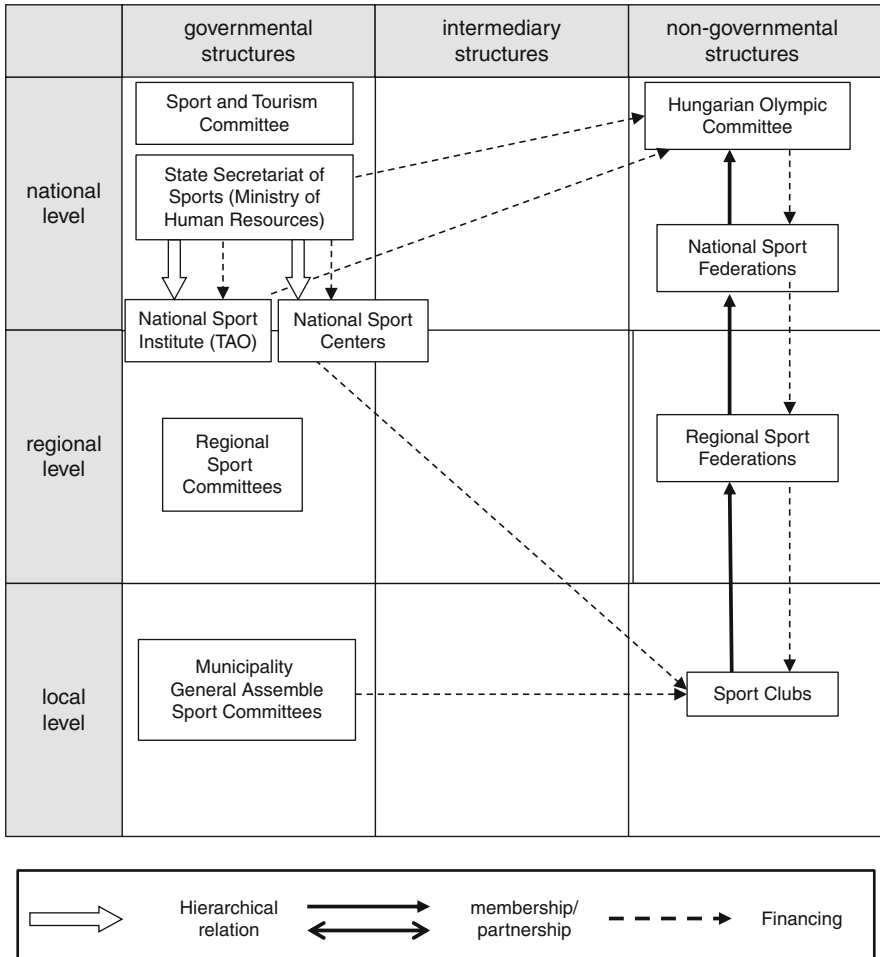


Fig. 8.2 Structure of Hungarian sport

### 8.3 Financing of Sport

In the financing of Hungarian sport, the public, private and civil sphere triangle is disproportionate; it places dominance on the side of the state. This was reinforced in 2011 as unprecedented high amount of government funding was injected into Hungarian sport, which, as mentioned, was distributed by the restructured HOC. The funding allocated to physical education, student and university sport has been raised by 25 % (HOC 2012). The disproportion of finances among the HOC divisions demonstrates the contradiction between policy and funding, as leisure

sports receives 1.9 % of the total of sport-related funding distributed by HOC in comparison to elite-competition sport and, within that, the Olympic sport sector (HOC 2012).

Revenues such as sponsorship, merchandising, ticketing or even membership fees can only add up to cover the expenditures in a quite limited manner, which further declined along with the economic crises (NSS 2007). Similarly to other European countries (Petry et al. 2004), taxes from lottery funds in Hungary are being channelled into sport finances (Amendments on Act on Sport 2011). By law, 12 % of taxes on lottery type, 50 % of taxes on bookmaker type and sport betting type of gambling and taxes from sport betting (TOTÓ) are discretionally funding soccer.

The previously centrally structured and funded programmes such as the 'Herakles' or the Sports School Programs were moved to HOC but remained fully funded on state money. Sport facilities are mostly financed by local municipalities and indirectly through TAO by means of rental revenues paid by sport teams funded by TAO (Fig. 8.2).

Apart from the increased amounts of state funding, a first-time-ever practice, even within the European Union itself, was created with the approval of the new financial sport support scheme (TAO). It was approved by the European Commission (2011) and implemented in the year of 2011 as a fundamental change in the funding system of the Hungarian sport. Until 2017, authorised companies can activate tax reduction upon support given to five designated, so-called 'spectacle' (látvány) team sports, namely, soccer, basketball, handball, ice hockey and water polo. Sporting identities (clubs, non-profit companies, companies, foundations, municipalities) can develop and submit their long-term strategic plans to apply for funds relevant to five designated causes: (i) grass-root sports, (ii) competition costs, (iii) wages and salaries, (iv) facilities and equipment and (v) training of human resources. National sport federations approved of the content and feasibility of the submissions by issuing programme certificates, which were the initiation in the process of approaching firms and companies with requests for financial support. 19 % savings on due yearly taxes was the in-built motivating factor for private entities on companies' support (Vörös 2011). The implementation of this new funding method solicited the introduction of private funding and more financial transparency into sport. Additionally, it resulted in a growth in the number of youth athletes and in the construction of new facilities in connection to the five team sports. In the 2011/2012 financial year, 1,550 sport development programmes were submitted, with the value of EUR 900 million, 75 % of which referred to club programmes and 25 % to federation programmes. The overwhelming majority was in soccer (69.9 %) in comparison to basketball (11.8 %), handball (7.9 %), ice hockey (6.3 %) and water polo (3.2 %); altogether 744 settlements were involved, representing all regions and settlement sizes, and generated 30 % growth in the number of athletes in the five team sports (Bardóczy 2012). Sport facility development was a central element: new sporting facilities were built, mainly artificial grass-covered soccer fields, but also ice rinks, and sport halls. In the introductory year (2011–2012) of the support scheme, 61 applications received 50 million EUR support for facility development,

which was tripled in funds in 2012–2013 for a total of 364 facilities (Géczi et al. 2013). The distribution of the facilities reached all municipalities and also small settlements in the countryside. All newly built sporting facilities required to distribute 20 % of their capacity for public usage. Three soccer stadiums are being built, two in the capital and one in the countryside; security entrance systems are aimed to be installed in all soccer facilities (MLSZ 2011). Further potentials of this programme were reported by Farkas and Fanici (2013), as more than half of the examined midsize companies have not participated or ever been approached by this tax-benefit opportunity.

The inclusion of only five team sports created a general outcry among the excluded. Traditionally successful but also seriously underfunded Hungarian sports, such as fencing, kayak-canoe, swimming, gymnastics, judo and wrestling, raised issues of injustice based on their outstanding achievements in comparison with basketball or even soccer. Also, the position of volleyball was controversial, which led the National Volleyball Federation to take steps and make an appeal (Tímárné Molnár 2012), on the basis of unequal treatment to other ‘spectacle’ team sports. As a consequence, 16 sports (e.g. canoe-kayak, swimming, volleyball and fencing) were additionally selected, which will receive a direct fund injection with the prerequisite of developing their 2013–2020 Sport Strategy.

## 8.4 Sport Policy

The legal framework of sport went through fundamental changes since 1989–1990, which was naturally accompanied by vital discussions and even disputes among the stakeholders. The first Act on Sport was enacted in 1996, which laid down the first regulations on sports, 6 years after the political and economic changes, leaving the ‘industry’ to operate in a legal vacuum until then. In 2000 the acting new government raised sport to a ministerial level and initiated a new act on sport (2000), which was renewed with the 2004 Act on Sport also initiated by the new government in office following the elections. In 2011 new amendments were made to the Act on Sports, which now creates the legal framework to lawfully regulate the mechanisms of sport.

European documents, such as the White Paper on Sport from 2007, created a base for sport policy development. Over the examined period, generations of policy documents were developed to strategically handle issues in Hungarian sport, which rarely found consensus among the different political notions. The XXI National Sport Strategy (NSS 2007) finally received support from all political parties and was enacted in 2007, almost 20 years after the changes. This strategy, besides the maintenance of success in high-performance sport, identified three key areas of development, (i) physical education and school sport, (ii) leisure and recreation sport and (iii) competition and grass-root sport, and emphasised an integrated approach to disabled sport. Sport participation gained high attention as in 2007 the Sport and Tourism Committee of the Hungarian Parliament targeted at doubling the 9 % rate

of sport participation of Hungarians in all sports within 6 years. The new target, however, was not matched with appropriate funding. Sport was in general severely underfinanced; additionally the available funding was distributed in a very disproportionate manner among the divisions of sport. Elite sports in general, but specifically the successful Olympic sports, were always the top beneficiaries of funding. In connection to this notion, Földesi and Gál (2008) emphasised the weak intentions of political leaders to close the gap between the approved sport policy and allocated funding, which, except for disability sports, resulted in the insufficient implementations of the otherwise in-depth strategy.

Following the appointment of HOC, its strategic directions capitalised on the 2007 Sport Strategy and emphasised grass-roots sports and sport participation as an important area in order to make Hungary not only a 'Sport Nation' but also a 'Sporting Nation'. This notion is reinforced by the regulations of the Act on Sport (2011), where it is stated that *'all men shall have the right to sport and this right is guaranteed by the state, regardless of whether it be competitive sport, leisure, student and college-university sport, sport for the disabled or the preservation of health'*. The plan complements the directions and tasks with new programmes and projects to trigger central areas in sport, such as providing direct funding to athletes, coaches and grass-roots sport centres, and to promote and legally regulate the fight against doping and match fixing. 'Herakles' programme started in 2001, and it provides funding to young elite athletes from twenty sports. Successful coaches are incentivised through the state-financed 'Gerevich' scholarship fund, which is planned to be supplemented by a three-level state-financed 'state coach' programme: (i) internationally acknowledged coaches, (ii) nationally acknowledged coaches and (iii) nationally acknowledged grass-roots coaches (HOC 2012; Bartha and Lehmann 2012).

In 2012, daily physical education classes were introduced in both primary and secondary schools; and in higher education, the leisure sport services, physical education classes and dual career programmes of athletes were reformed by the new Hajós Alfréd plan of the National University and College Sport Federation.

## 8.5 Sport Participation

The paradox in Hungarian sport is that the success of the elite athletes at world and continental events clashes with the low sport participation rates of the total population. With its eight gold medals at the 2012 London Olympics, Hungary was among the top ten nations and was placed among countries which are much bigger in size and also represent higher economic strength. Parallel to that, the Special Eurobarometer on Sports (2009) reports that 23 % of Hungarians take part in sports regularly or with some regularity, which is much below the EU mean (40 %), and 53 % of Hungarians are completely inactive.

Unfortunately, there is no regular standardised sport participation monitoring in Hungary. The data available from the past was acquired from the time-use

household surveys of the Central Statistical Agency or from sports modules of different national surveys. The results of these surveys are not always comparable, due to the differences in methodological approach and also because definitions of sporting activity vary from study to study. Falussy (2002), for example, measured the changes of the time spent on physical recreation, other researchers measured participation in sports (Gáldi 2002; Keresztes et al. 2003), while Gál (2008) widened the spectrum to physical and lifestyle activities, such as gardening and tracking. The sports module of the International Social Survey 2007 found that 26 % of the total population takes part in physical activities (doing sports or walks or goes for excursions) daily, 13 % at least three times a week and 30 % ‘only’ once or twice a week (Gál 2008). The survey on a wider physical activity spectrum unexpectedly found women, the residents of smaller settlements and adults above 60 years of age to have higher participation rates, while a higher education level, similarly with previous trends, was paired with higher participation (Fábri 2002; Gáldi 2002; Perényi 2010a; Kovács 2012).

The sports module of the National Youth Survey<sup>3</sup> allowed comparisons of the results between 2000 and 2012, as all four surveys used the same definition for sport participation, but with a limitation to 15–29 years of age (Fábri 2002; Nyerges and Laki 2004; Perényi 2010a, 2011; Bauer and Szabó 2004, 2008). The results showed that the first rising participation rates of young people turned into a decline after 2004 and demonstrated a pending level between 35 % and 41 % (Perényi 2011). The most dominant characteristic of youth’s sport participation is the fact that it is gendered to a much larger extent than in other EU countries (Hartmann-Tews 2006; Scheerder et al. 2006, 2011). While women’s participation rate was stable since 2000 in Hungary, men showed a rise, and the difference between the two increased (Table 8.1).

In accordance with the results of other studies (Fábri 2002; Gáldi 2002; Laki and Nyerges 1999; Gál 2008; Pluhár et al. 2003; Kovács 2012), youth sport participation declined as age increased; also people with higher education, a better economic status or living in settlements with a higher urbanisation level were more likely to be physically active (Perényi 2011, 2012). As Paár (2011) stated, low participation was also accompanied by lower expenditures on sport, physical activity and health-related products; and low consumption by young people was measured in 2000 in relation to spectating (16.1 %) and watching sport events (58.1 %) (Perényi 2010b). Volunteering is also one of the lowest in the EU (Eurobarometer 2009); it is mainly connected to international events and attracts mostly members of the younger generations (Perényi 2013a).

According to Youth 2000–2004<sup>©</sup>, the most popular sports among young people in the year 2000 were soccer, aerobics and cycling, followed by conditioning/body-building, running and swimming (Table 8.2). In 4 years, the distribution and the rankings of sports changed. There was a reduction in participants in aerobics,

---

<sup>3</sup>National Youth Survey (Youth 2000–2012<sup>©</sup>) is a research series conducted every 4 years on a nationwide representative sample of 15–29-year-olds (N=8,000) and started in the year 2000.

**Table 8.1** Sport participation rates of 15–29-year-old Hungarians between 2000 and 2008 by socio-demographic variables (N=8,000)

		2000	2004	2008
Sport participant	<i>Yes</i>	33	41	38
Gender	<i>Men</i>	39	48	44
	<i>Women</i>	27	34	31
	$\chi^2$	112.2*	167.49*	152.53*
Age group	<i>15–19</i>	42	52	47
	<i>20–24</i>	34	40	37
	<i>25–29</i>	25	34	31
	$\chi^2$	168.38*	96.61*	148.60*
Market activity	<i>Student</i>	46	52	49
	<i>Employed</i>	30	38	34
	<i>Unemployed</i>	22	30	23
	<i>Inactive</i>	16	18	17
	$\chi^2$	409.31*	407.40*	367.86*
Level of education	<i>Low</i>	32	35	32
	<i>Middle</i>	39	45	40
	<i>High</i>	43	51	47
	$\chi^2$	104.69*	80.18*	30.10*
Size of settlement	<i>Capital</i>	41	50	32
	<i>County</i>	38	42	47
	<i>City</i>	32	40	38
	<i>Village</i>	27	38	35
	$\chi^2$	98.02*	52.09*	90.67
Economic status	<i>High</i>	48	56	58
	<i>Mid-high</i>	38	44	44
	<i>Middle</i>	30	36	33
	<i>Low middle</i>	25	29	22
	<i>Low</i>	20	19	20
	$\chi^2$	62.05*	184.10*	257.35*

Source: Perényi (2011); Youth Survey 2000/2004/2008

\* $p < 0.001$ 

swimming and track and field, while there was a growth in soccer, cycling, running and home exercise (Table 8.2).

Other team sports, in comparison to soccer, attracted strikingly fewer participants. Interestingly, Hungarian success sports were not ranked within the first 15 sports, and some of them were represented by very low figures (kayak-canoe, modern pentathlon) or were not measurable (fencing). In addition, new exercise modalities related to the fitness industry appeared (yoga, Pilates and zumba). Soccer was dominantly taken up by men, while aerobics by women. Women's participation increased in cycling, running, home exercise and conditioning/bodybuilding. Soccer is also quite gendered; basically it does not exist for women today. The Hungarian Soccer Federation's 2011–2020 action plan aimed to triple the number of female players in 8 years (MLSZ 2011). It seems that young people in Hungary not only prefer individual sports in their leisure time, but what they prefer more is to practice

**Table 8.2** Distribution of sport participants (%) by sports among youth population (15–29 years old) between 2000 and 2004 (N=8,000)

Sporting form	2000		2004	
	Total	Male/female	Total	Male/female
1. Soccer	20.5	20.0/0.5	23.0	22.0/1.0
2. Aerobic/fitness	14.4	3.8/10.6	7.8	0.4/7.4
3. Cycling	8.9	5.9/3.0	12.4	6.8/5.6
4. Conditioning, bodybuilding	8.0	7.3/0.7	8.6	5.6/2.5
5. Running	6.6	3.8/2.8	9.7	4.4/5.3
6. Swimming	4.8	2.2/2.6	4.2	1.9/2.3
7. Basketball	4.4	3.1/1.3	4.5	2.9/1.6
8. Home exercise	4.9	1.1/3.8	5.8	0.2/5.6
9. Handball	3.0	1.4/1.6	3.1	1.4/1.7
10. Track and field	2.9	1.6/1.3	1.1	0.4/0.7
11. Dancing	2.5	0.7/1.9	2.8	0.6/2.2
12. Karate	2.0	1.4/0.5	1.8	1.4/0.4
13. Horse riding	1.4	0.5/0.9	1.1	0.3/0.8
14. Tennis	1.4	0.6/0.7	2.1	1.3/0.8
15. Volleyball	1.0	0.1/0.9	1.4	0.5/0.9

Source: Perényi (2011); Youth 2000/2004

sports independently, outside of any organisational frame (Perényi 2011). In 2000 only 5.5 % of youth reported sport club membership, as opposed to the 1.6 % rate in 2004 (Perényi 2010a).

The fitness sector in Hungary is growing; however, it is difficult to measure its size and progress, as clubs are rather reluctant to maintain reliable registration information. According to the Eurobarometer (2009), only 2 % of the population are members in fitness clubs in comparison to the average 11 % in the EU. The 2011 IHRS report also published a considerable difference between Hungary's 2.5 % as opposed to the 15 % of the Netherlands or Spain (Zopcsák 2012). Based on estimations (Szabó 2012), around 300,000 people in Hungary were members of approximately 600–800 fitness clubs around the country.

Participation in mass sporting events becomes, however, more and more popular. In growing numbers, running, cycling and long-distance swimming events organised by private sport entrepreneurs or civil organisations are attracting an increasing number of participants from all over the country. Cycling has become not only a leisure sport but a popular way of transportation and a new form of sport tourism (Kormosné Koch 2012).

The implementation of the financial support scheme (TAO) and the openings of the new soccer academies resulted in a 30 % growth in grass-root sports (Géczi et al. 2013). The recent data of the 2012 Youth Survey, however, reported a decline of 3 % in participation regarding the 15–29-year-old population (Perényi 2013b; Székely 2012); it seems that growth on the micro-level is yet to be measured on national samples.

## 8.6 Discussion and Conclusion

Hungarian sport has gone through a major change parallel to the political and economic transformation in 1989–1990. The organisational structure, decision and power lines, funding methods and connecting spheres have reshaped sporting practices since then.

Sport became a strategic area in 2010 and brought the long-awaited political action, a ‘state intervention’ as referred to by some or the ‘rescue of sport’ by others. New amendments of the 2004 sports law reshaped the structure and the funding of sports. The application of the new financial support scheme (TAO) has opened up new channels of funding along with the direct state funding of the 16 Olympic sports. Unprecedented amounts of financial support were injected into Hungarian sport, new development strategies were and are still being developed in different sports and an extended sport facility development plan is being implemented.

Apart from the unquestionable benefits of the new governmental actions as mentioned above, some concerns such as the unequal treatment of different team sports and the unbalanced financing of competition versus leisure sport may be raised. Also, the state in Hungary strongly regulates and oversees the sport system by either direct state funding or by indirect funding regulations through tax benefits, which result in a quite bureaucratic nature, as also stated in national and comparative studies (Földesi 1996; Petry et al. 2004; Scheerder et al. 2011). Due to extended state involvement, sport proved to be a weak social institution; it does not find its independence, self-governance and self-maintenance, the characteristics of the civil sphere. As a consequence, the factors influencing sport as one of the players of the free market cannot have real modifying effects on how sport is conceptualised, managed and financed.

The recent structural and funding modifications in Hungarian sport, however, if well implemented, may provide a potential for actions in all divisions of sport including sports for all. Whether the changes would finally bring the long-awaited democratisation of sports and the societal integration into sports in Hungary and would initiate a process in which sport participation rates would take an ascending route remains the question of the implementation plans of the new legal and funding environment and shall be answered, but also measured, in due time.

## References

- András, K. (2003). *A sport és az üzlet kapcsolata – elméleti alapok*. 34. sz. BKÁE. Budapest: Műhelytanulmány.
- Bakonyi, T. (2004). *Civil álmok és politikai állam. Adalékok a civil sportszervezetek státuszának legújabbkori politikatörténetéhez Magyarországon*. Budapest: Semmelweis University, Faculty of Physical Education and Sport Sciences.
- Bardóczy, G. (2012). *Látványcsapat sportágak finanszírozásának tapasztalatai, a TAO*. Paper presented at the MSTT Konferencia, Budapest.



- Bartha, C., & Lehmann, L. (2012). *A Magyar Olimpiai Bizottság Sportfejlesztési irányai és területei 2012*. Budapest: Magyar Olimpiai Bizottság.
- Bauer, B., & Szabó, A. (2005). *Ifjúság 2004. Gyorsjelentés*. Budapest: Mobilitás Ifjúságkutató Iroda.
- Bauer, B., & Szabó, A. (2009). *Gyorsjelentés Ifjúság 2008*. Budapest: SZMI.
- Dóczy, T. (2012). Gold fever? Sport and national identity – The Hungarian case. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 47(2), 165–182.
- Eichberg, H. (2008). *Pyramid or democracy in sports? Alternative ways in European sport policies*. European Commission. (2009). *Eurobarometer 2009. Sport and physical activity. Letöltve 2010*. Bruxelles.
- European Commission. (2011). *SA.31722 –Hungary. Supporting the Hungarian sport sector via tax benefit scheme*. Bruxelles.
- Fábrí, I. (2002). A sport, mint a fiatal korosztályok életmódjának meghatározó eleme. In *Ifjúság 2000*© (pp. 166–179). Budapest: Tanulmányok I. Nemzeti Ifjúságkutató Intézet.
- Falussy, B. (2002). Társadalmi-gazdasági Trendek a Népeség Időfelhasználásában. *Statistikai Szemle*, 80(9), 847–868.
- Farkas, P., & Fanici, M. (2013). TAO kedvezményezett csapatsportok támogatóinak felmérése. *Magyar Sporttudományi Szemle*, 14(53), 30–34.
- Földesi, S. G. (1996). Sport policy in Hungary. In *National sports policies. An international handbook* (pp. 187–211). Westport, Connecticut/London: Greenwood Press.
- Földesi, S. G., & Egressy, J. (2005). Post-transformational trends in Hungarian sport (1995–2004). *European Journal for Sport and Society*, 2(2), 85–96.
- Földesi, S. G., & Gál, A. (2008). Válaszút előtt a politika. *Magyar Sporttudományi Szemle*, 2, 4–10.
- Földesi, S. G., Nagy, J., & Jakabházy, L. (2002). Hungary: The development of sport for all in a sporting nation. In *Worldwide experiences and trends in sport for all* (pp. 449–474). Oxford: Meyer and Meyer.
- Gál, A. (2008). A Lakosság egészségtudatossága és szabadidő-sportolási szokásai. In *Társadalmi riport a sportról* (pp. 9–39). Budapest: ÖM-MSTT.
- Gáldi, G. (2002). Fizikai aktivitás Magyarországon az ezredfordulón. *Magyar Sporttudományi Szemle*, 3(4), 16–18.
- Géczi, G., Gergely, I., Nagy, A., & Bárdóczy, G. (2013). *Létesítményfejlesztési tendenciák a TAO-s támogatási rendszer tükrében*. Budapest.
- Hartmann-Tews, I. (2006). Social stratification in sport and sport policy in the European Union. *European Journal for Sport and Society*, 3(2), 109–124.
- Hédi, C., & Földesi, S. G. (2004). Sports structures in Hungary. In *Two players – one goal? Sport in the European Union* (pp. 169–183). Oxford: Meyer and Meyer Sport.
- Hungarian Olympic Committee. (2012). *A Magyar Olimpiai Bizottság sportfejlesztési irányai és területei 2012*. Budapest.
- Kele, J. (2012). *Hogyan lesz a sportból “stratégiai ágazat”? – kérdések és válaszok a sportfinanszírozás átalakításáról II*. [http://www.hatharom.com/2012/01/21/hogyan\\_lesz\\_a\\_sportbol\\_strategiai\\_agazat\\_kerdesek\\_es\\_valaszok\\_a\\_sportfinanszirozasa\\_atalakitasarol\\_ii\\_](http://www.hatharom.com/2012/01/21/hogyan_lesz_a_sportbol_strategiai_agazat_kerdesek_es_valaszok_a_sportfinanszirozasa_atalakitasarol_ii_). Accessed 21 Jan 2012.
- Keresztes, N., Pluhár, Z., & Pikó, B. (2003). A fizikai aktivitás gyakorisága és sportolási szokások általános iskolások körében. *Magyar Sporttudományi Szemle*, 4, 43–47.
- Kormosné Koch, K. (2012). Kerékpár Turizmus Magyarországon. In *International conference on tourism and sport management, conference book*. Debrecen.
- Kovács, K. (2012). The role and importance of sport in students’ lives at the University of Debrecen. *Hungarian Educational Research Journal*, 2(1).
- Laki, L., & Nyerges, M. (1999). A budapesti és a falusi fiatalok sportolása. *Magyar Sporttudományi Szemle*, 3, 3–11.
- MLSZ. (2011). *A Magyar Labdarúgás Stratégiája. A megújulás évtizede 2011–2020*. Budapest: Hungarian Soccer Federation.
- National Youth Survey. (Youth 2000–2008®). *Szociálpolitikai és Munkaügyi Intézet*. Budapest.
- National Youth Survey. (Youth 2012®). *Kutatópont*. Budapest.
- Nyerges, M., & Laki, L. (2004). A fiatalok sportolási szokásainak néhány társadalmi összefüggése. *Magyar Sporttudományi Szemle*, 2(3), 5–15.

- Paár, D. (2011). The income and price dependency of the Hungarian sport goods consumption. *Periodica Polytechnica, Social and Management Sciences*, 19(1), 11–17.
- Perényi, S. (2010a). The relation between sport participation and the value preferences of Hungarian youth. *Sport in Society*, 13(6), 984–1000.
- Perényi, S. (2010b). On the fields, in the stands, in front of TV – value orientation of youth based on participation in, and consumption of, sports. *European Journal for Sport and Society*, 7(1), 41–52.
- Perényi, S. (2011). Sportolási szokások: Sportolási esélyek és változástrendek. In *Arctalan? Nemzedék* (pp. 159–184). Szeged: Belvedere Meridionale Kiadó.
- Perényi, S. (2012). *Sport in Hungary, limitations and opportunities*. Abstract of paper presented at SPORTVISION 2012 conference. Copenhagen.
- Perényi, S. (2013a). *Egy hazai kontinentális-bajnokság önkéntes programjának menedzsmentje és értékelése*. Paper presented at the MSTT conference, Nyíregyháza.
- Perényi, S. (2013b). *Alacsonyán stagnáló mozgástrend: a fizikai inaktivitás újratermelődése. In Magyar Ifjúság 2012 Tanulmánykötet* (pp. 229–249). Budapest: Kutatópont.
- Petry, K., Steinbach, D., & Tokarski, W. (2004). Sport systems in the countries of the European Union. Similarities and differences. *European Journal for Sport and Society*, 1(1), 15–21.
- Pluhár, Z., Keresztes, N., & Pikó, B. (2003). 'Ép testben ép lélek' Középiskolások értékrendje fizikai aktivitásuk tükrében. *Magyar Sporttudományi Szemle*, 2, 29–33.
- Republic of Hungary. (2000). *Act on sports (CXLV. Törvény a Sportról)*. Budapest.
- Republic of Hungary. (2007). *National sport strategy. Sport XXI Nemzeti Sportstratégia*. Budapest.
- Republic of Hungary. (2011). *Act on sports amendments (CLXXII. Törvény a sportról szóló 2004. évi I. törvény módosításáról)*. Budapest.
- Sárközy, T. (1992). A privatizáció. In *A váltás rendszere. Tanulmányok a kormány politikájáról* (pp. 47–56). Budapest: Politikai Tanulmányok Intézete Alapítvány.
- Scheerder, J., Thomis, M., Vanreurel, J., Lefevre, J., Renson, R., Eynde, B. V., et al. (2006). Sports participation among females from adolescence to adulthood, a longitudinal study. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 40(3–4), 413–430.
- Scheerder, J., Vandermeersch, H., van Tuyckom, C., Hoekman, R., Breedveld, K., & Vos, S. (2011). *Understanding the game. Sport participation in Europe. Facts, reflections, and recommendations*. Leuven: Research Unit of Social Kinesiology and Sport management, K. U. Leuven.
- Szabó, Á. (2012). *A magyar szabadidősport működésének vizsgálata (Piacok, értékteremtés, feladatok a szabadidősportban)*. Budapest: Corvinus University.
- Székely, L. (2012). *Magyar Ifjúság 2012 kutatás első eredményei*. Budapest: Kutatópont.
- Tímárné Molnár, A. (2012). *Magyar Röplabda Szövetség Sportágfejlesztési programja 2013–2017*. Budapest: Magyar Röplabda Szövetség.
- Vörös, T. (2011). *A szabadidősport által nyújtott társadalmi haszon – a sportoló lakosság arányát befolyásoló tényezők vizsgálata európai országok vonatkozásában*. Paper presented at the XXX Országos Tudományos Diákköri Konferencia Testnevelés és Sporttudományi Szekció, Budapest.
- Zopcsák, L. (2012). A fitness szektor Magyarországon és Európában. In *Gyakrabban című szabadidősport konferencia, Budapest, 2012*.

# Chapter 9

## Ireland

Ann Bourke

### 9.1 Introduction

Sport in Ireland is popular and widespread. The level of participation and attendance is high (46 %, ISM 2011), but there is some evidence of a lack of engagement in certain sectors, verified by an increasing proportion of the population being classified as obese or overweight (Green 2012). Ireland<sup>1</sup> is a small country in terms of population – the Republic has a population of 4.58 million according to the Central Statistics Office (CSO 2013) while Northern Ireland has a population of 1.81 million (NISRA 2013), yet there is a wide variety of sports organizations and bodies reflecting diverse sports participation.

The evolution of Ireland's sports system stems from the development of modern codified sport in Britain during the second half of the nineteenth century (Cronin 1999). Cronin asserts that in many larger Irish towns, sports clubs for soccer, rugby, and hockey emerged, and they formed leagues and conducted cup competitions. The process of codification was taken further in 1884 with the foundation of the Gaelic Athletic Association (GAA), a specifically Irish sporting body to promote the wider Gaelic revival, i.e., the promotion of the Irish language and culture as well as the “native” Irish games. At that time, Irish culture was being steadily eroded by emigration and desperate poverty (GAA 2013). Around that time also, a number of formal organizations emerged – the Irish Football Association (IFA) was formed in 1890, the Irish Rugby Football Union (IRFU) in 1879, and the Irish Amateur Athletic (IAA) Association in 1885.

---

<sup>1</sup> Since 1921, under the Government of Ireland Act 1920, the island of Ireland consists of the Republic of Ireland (26 counties) and Northern Ireland (6 counties) which is part of the United Kingdom.

A. Bourke (✉)  
UCD School of Business, Dublin, Ireland  
e-mail: anne.bourke@ucd.ie

The more popular team sports in Ireland in terms of participation are soccer (Association football), Gaelic football, rugby union, and hockey (field) while the more popular individual sports include swimming, tennis, boxing, and golf. Few sports in Ireland are fully professional (rugby union and golf being exceptions), and the sports infrastructure (while improving) is less developed than that of other countries such as England, Spain, France, and Holland. Since the formation of the current government in 2011, oversight for sport policy is under the remit of the Minister for Transport, within the Department of Transport, Tourism and Sport (DTTAS).

## 9.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

### 9.2.1 *Core Principles and the Overall Structure of Sport in Ireland*

The core principles underpinning sport in Ireland are shaped by government policy in conjunction with the Sport National Governing Bodies (NGBs). From the government perspective, the emphasis is on sports for all participation, with a view to promoting health and personal well-being. This is to be facilitated by the design and provision of a sports infrastructure which meets the needs of key stakeholders. From the NGB's perspective, the core principles are to promote active participation in their sport, to raise the profile of their game(s), and to make efficient use of their resources and capabilities. A number of NGBs provide education and up-skilling programs/seminars for officers and members that focus on coaching standards, levels, and qualifications; child protection principles and practice; health and safety requirements; and governance and financial management.

The community-based club is at the bottom of the organized sport pyramid in Ireland. This entity provides an introduction for the majority of children to sporting activity and allows them to continue their interest and practice into adulthood. These clubs usually rely on volunteers, with parents often acting as club administrators, coaches, match referees, team managers, mentors, etc. In some cases, professional (paid) coaches are employed to develop and enhance members' talents, skills, practice, and competencies. Members of these clubs attend training on a weekly basis (usually in the evenings) and participate in competitions at weekends. All community-based sports clubs operate in association with and are governed by their respective NGB, either at provincial or national level.

Sports participation is also promoted and facilitated in the Irish school (primary and secondary) system. Many sports such as Gaelic games, rugby union, soccer, hockey, cricket, basketball, badminton, netball, and tennis are organized and available.<sup>2</sup> Pupils progress their school sports activities by engaging in after-school coaching, training, and practice sessions (evenings 4–6 pm) during the week and by participating

---

<sup>2</sup>There are a variety of school ownership arrangements in Ireland which include the government (state schools) and independent bodies/agencies, mainly religious orders/denominations.

in school competitions midweek (Wednesdays) or during weekends. Sports NGBs provide differing levels of support to school sport such as the provision of sports equipment and funding; special programs and personnel to assist student coaching, training, and mentoring; and administrative supports to oversee schools' provincial and national competitions.

There are 64 Sports' National Governing Bodies in Ireland which are supported in their operations by the Irish government and the Irish Sports Council (ISC). The GAA is the largest body in terms of membership – it currently has 2,550 clubs in Ireland and a further 350 clubs overseas (GAA 2011). It is organized on a county basis, and each County Board reports to the Provincial Council which in turn reports to Central Council in Croke Park. A similar organization structure is used by other NGBs (Irish Hockey Association, Irish Rugby Football Union, Football Association of Ireland) but with less emphasis on the county level. Many NGB local competitions (League and Cup) are organized using the county and provincial structure as a feeder to national level.

Several sports bodies operate on an All-Ireland basis with a single National Governing Body (NGB) – Irish Rugby Football Union (rugby union), Gaelic Athletic Association (Gaelic games), Irish Hockey Association (field hockey), and the Golfing Union of Ireland<sup>3</sup> (golf) – while others have separate organizing bodies for the Republic of Ireland (ROI) and Northern Ireland (NI). These include the Football Association of Ireland and the Irish Football Association (soccer) and Netball Ireland and Netball Northern Ireland (netball).

### 9.2.2 *Organization of Sport*

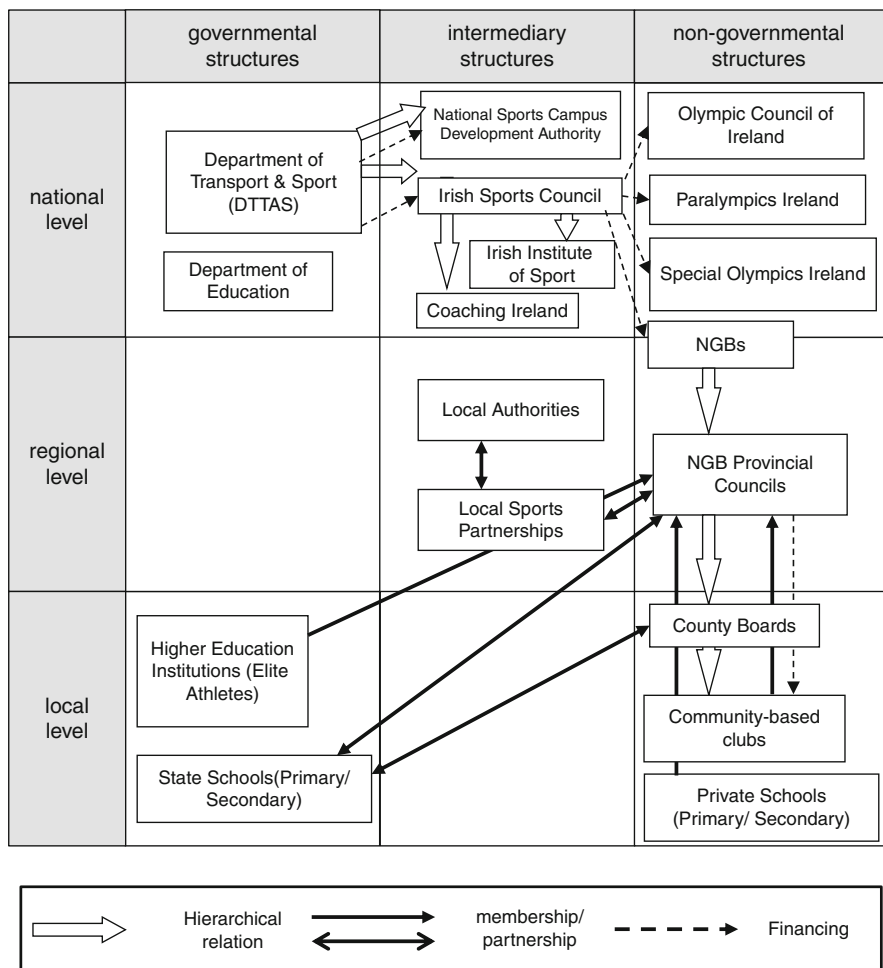
The organization of individual sports is primarily promoted and facilitated through each of Ireland's 64 National Governing Bodies (NGBs), in conjunction with local community-based clubs, schools (state/private; primary/second level), higher education institutions (HEIs), and other key stakeholders. Other bodies involved in sport organization at national nongovernment level (see Fig. 9.1) include the Olympic Council of Ireland (OCI), Paralympics Ireland (PI), Special Olympics Ireland, and Colleges and Universities Sports Association of Ireland (CUSAI).

Community-based clubs offer membership through annual subscriptions or fees which entitle members avail of the club's facilities and services (coaching, training, fitness, psychology, medical, etc.) and to participate in competitions. These are primarily nongovernmental entities; however, they receive state grants and funding to assist them promote and engage in their sports activities and increase local participation. A number of private sports clubs offer health, fitness, and leisure services which supplement the activities of athletes (professional and nonprofessional).

The regional element of the nongovernmental sports structure is normally an administrative entity, i.e., the provincial council of the NGB. These regional entities govern the sport within a designated geographical area and are overseen by and

---

<sup>3</sup>There are separate NGBs for men's and women's golf in Ireland – Golfing Union of Ireland (GUI) and the Ladies Golf Union (ILGU).



**Fig. 9.1** Framework of Ireland’s sport structure. Note: *NGB* National Governing Bodies

report to the national body. Many domestic competitions (leagues/cups) operate on a provincial<sup>4</sup> basis, eventually feeding into the national competition.

At national level, government oversight on sport is exercised through the Department of Transport, Tourism and Sport (DTTAS). The department operates in conjunction with various agencies, primarily the Irish Sports Council (ISC) and the National Sports Campus Development Authority (NSCSA), to ensure that participation in sport increases, that participants’ performance standards are enhanced, and that Ireland’s sporting infrastructure and facilities meet the needs of all stakeholders.

<sup>4</sup>There are four provinces in Ireland: Ulster (includes six Northern Ireland counties), Munster, Leinster, and Connaught.

To assist the government achieve its sports policy targets, two regional bodies are pertinent – Local Sports Partnerships (LSPs) and Local Authorities. LSPs were introduced to create a sustainable structure for all Irish people to become involved in sport at a level of their choosing, regardless of background, gender, or ability. These partnerships work in conjunction with Local Authorities (County and City Councils) to identify sporting needs (infrastructural or activity based).

The majority of higher education institutions (HEIs) in Ireland (universities, Institutes of Technology, teacher training colleges, etc.) are state funded and operate at local level. To facilitate elite athlete development, many HEIs offer sports scholarship programs which allow students combine third-level study with sporting ambitions. In some cases, these scholarship programs are funded by the respective institutions, while in others they are partially funded by various NGBs. An integrated Physical Education and School Sport (PESS) curriculum is offered across Irish schools, some of which offer a wide variety of sports, while others often limit the focus to a few, prioritized sports aligned with dedicated coaches or physical education sport. Many Irish second-level schools are renowned for particular team sports – rugby union, Gaelic games, soccer, badminton, and netball (Bradley et al. 2013).

### ***9.2.3 Governmental Levels of Responsibility***

Two units within the DTTAS –*Sports Capital Division and the Sport Policy and Campus*– are involved in designing and coordinating sport policy on behalf of the Irish government. The former oversees the funding and administration of the sport capital programs, while the latter is responsible for liaising with key agencies, organizations, and bodies (including the Irish Sports Council) in implementing government sports policy.

The Irish Sports Council is central to developing sporting talent and ability while at the same time driving sports participation in conjunction with the following bodies – governmental (1–5) and nongovernmental (6–11):

1. Local Authorities provide sports facilities and coordinate the efforts of national and local agencies to develop community facilities.
2. Local Sports Partnerships (LSPs) promote the development of sport at local level and provide leadership, coordination, and direction.
3. Irish Institute of Sport (IIS) works with NGBs and elite athletes providing access to the most up-to-date supports needed to compete at the highest levels.
4. Coaching Ireland (formerly the National Coaching and Training Centre) works with each NGB to fully establish and deliver the Coach Development Model (LISPA).
5. National Sports Campus Development Authority (NSCDA) has responsibility for the development of Ireland’s main national sports facilities and the national sports campus at Abbotstown, Co. Dublin.
6. National Governing Bodies of Sport’s (NGBs) role is to develop and promote their sport and service the needs of members.
7. Local sports clubs provide individuals with an opportunity to participate in individual and team sports.

8. Private sector is involved in the management of certain recreational facilities (health and fitness clubs) which can increase participation in sport.
9. Olympic Council of Ireland (OCI) coordinates and manages Team Ireland's athlete performance, operations planning, and management at each Olympiad/
10. Paralympic Ireland (PI) is responsible for preparing and managing the Irish team at the Paralympic Games.
11. Special Olympics Ireland provides opportunities for individuals with learning disabilities engage in sport in their local community and to participate in high-quality sport and development activities.

Apart from DTTAS and the Department of Education, a number of other government departments are involved in sport policy design and implementation. These include the Department of the Environment, Community and Local Government; the Department of Health; the Department of Children and Youth Affairs; and the Department of Arts, Heritage and the Gaeltacht.

The regional manifestation of sports policy and development is evident in Local Authorities' engagement in planning and developing recreational sports facilities, the management of public facilities, and by the activities of Local Sports Partnerships (LSPs). There are 31 LSPs in Ireland, and their main role is to facilitate club development, volunteer training, and enhanced planning for and participation in sport at local level.

### ***9.2.4 NGOs' Levels of Responsibility***

In Ireland, Sport National Governing Bodies (NGBs) are the key delivery agencies for the Irish Sports Council's (ISC) strategic priorities. Together with their member clubs and affiliates, NGBs are responsible for the following:

1. *Organize and administer most of the organized sport in Ireland* – this includes national and international competitions. The leading national sports body (GAA) organizes national league and cup competitions at county, provincial, and national level. The Irish Rugby Football Union (IRFU), the Football Association of Ireland (FAI), the Irish Hockey Association (IHA), and the other NGBs organize and manage local league and cup competitions, which embrace all levels of sport from primary school children to adults.
2. *Train and deploy coaches* – this involves partnering with Coaching Ireland (CI) in designing and enhancing coaching standards and requirements. While some sports have internationally recognized standards (FAI, IRFU, IHA, etc.), the GAA has worked closely in devising standards and qualifications for accrediting current and aspiring coaches in soccer, hurling, and camogie. Each NGB is also responsible for the training and development of referees and match officials.
3. *Organize representative level sport* – NGBs participating in international competitions facilitate and manage the hosting of competitions. For example, the IRFU organizes and hosts the RBS Six Nations, Rabo Direct Pro 12, and Heineken Cup matches in Ireland. The Football Association of Ireland (FAI)



organizes international qualifiers for European and World Cup competitions. Similarly, qualifying competitions and events in other sports (golf, tennis, hockey, cricket, etc.) are hosted by the respective NGB.

4. *Provide sporting opportunities and pathways* – NGBs are responsible for leading aspiring elite athletes from local sport to national and international competition. The close association between the ISC and NGBs facilitates the identification of young sporting talent, affords opportunities to nurture them, and ensures that they have effective supports (sport and non-sporting) to allow them achieve their goals. Many NGBs collaborate with higher education institutions (HEI) in identifying and supporting talented youngsters by way of sports grants and scholarships.

The Federation of Irish Sport was formed in 2002 by the national governing bodies (NGBs) mainly to represent the NGB viewpoint on key issues, particularly in negotiations (mainly funding) with the Irish government. The Federation is more akin to a lobbying organization and ensures that sport in Ireland has an independent voice (Federation of Irish Sport 2013).

## 9.3 Financing of Sport

### 9.3.1 Policy of Financing Sport

As illustrated in Fig. 9.1, sport in Ireland is mainly financed by government by way of grants and subsidies drawing on central funds including the National Lottery. There is a capital and current program. All funding is primarily channeled directly through the Sports Capital Program or indirectly through Local Authorities and the Irish Sports Council (ISC) by way of annual grants and awards. The Sports Capital Program grants are awarded based on applications submitted to the DTTAS. The awards are made on a case-by-case basis drawing on each applicant's documentation and the extent to which the organization can provide its own funding as part of the project. Current funding is directed towards the high-performance (HP) program and the development of NGB capacity and activities (core funding). Irish NGBs fund their sporting endeavors and operations through various revenue streams (commercial sponsorship and gate receipts) and initiatives (events, functions, lotteries, etc.).

The chief purpose of high-performance (HP) program is to ensure that aspiring elite athletes have sufficient financial support to allow them to improve their performance and achieve consistent success at world level (win medals). Under the current international carding system, elite athletes are expected to meet published performance criteria and show progression over a number of years within each senior level carding category in order to retain their funding.

Given Ireland's economic downturn (2007 onwards), there has been restrictions on government funding for sport. For 2013, EUR 6.8 million (EUR 7.2 M in 2012) will be invested in 19 HP sports programs, in OCI and PI, with a further EUR 1.8 million allocated to support 87 athletes under the International Carding Scheme. Fourteen aspiring Irish golfers will also be supported under the Team Ireland Golfing Trust.

The NGB government grants (core funding) cover cost of administration, participation programs, coach development, hosting events, implementing strategic plans, and the employment of professional staff. The amount awarded to 59 NGBs for 2013 totaled EUR 10.8 million (EUR 11 M in 2012). In addition to these awards, EUR 0.58 million (EUR 0.62 M in 2012) has been awarded to the Women in Sport (WIS) program for activities in conjunction with 22 Sport NGBs. The three leading NGBs (Football Association of Ireland, Gaelic Athletic Association, and the Irish Rugby Football Union) have been given EUR 7.6 million (EUR 8.0 M in 2012) to promote further participation (particularly in disadvantaged areas) in their sports. A further EUR 0.25 million has been awarded to the FAI and the IRFU through the WIS program.

Sport financing by NGBs is mainly for elite player development, event organization, player welfare and wages,<sup>5</sup> and administration costs. These bodies must also set aside sums to cover depreciation, amortization of goodwill, and the like. The Indecon Report (2010) estimated NGB expenditure for 2008 was EUR 224.9 million. The principal expenditure categories (*amounts in brackets*) listed include specific competition/sport event expenditure (EUR 58.7 M), coaching and training expenses (EUR 30.9 M), and wages and salaries (EUR 27.4 M). It is interesting to note that during 2012, total spending by the IRFU amounted to EUR 59.4 million, while the GAA incurred expenditure of EUR 43.7 million. The GAA spent the larger sums on games development (EUR 9.9 M), match day costs (EUR 9.6 M), and county and provincial distributions (EUR 8.8 M). Unsurprisingly, the main costs incurred by the IRFU were professional game costs (EUR 31.5 M) – this amounts to over one half of its total expenditure. Expenditure by the IRFU on domestic and local rugby during 2012 was EUR 9.3 million, while EUR 4.5 million was spent on administration and overheads.

The principal revenue sources for NGBs include government grants (high performance, WIS, etc.) and subsidies, sponsorship (commercial), and gate receipts from representative matches. The Indecon Report (2010) estimates that NGB's Income for that year amounted to EUR 210.5 million. The larger income categories were entry fees and admissions (EUR 81.1 M); sport council grant income (EUR 32.8 M); and specific competition/sport event-related income (EUR 30.3 M). According to the most recent GAA and IRFU Annual Reports (2013), total revenue earned for the GAA amounted to EUR 52.8 million while the IRFU earned EUR 67.2 million during 2012. For the GAA the major sources of revenue in 2012 were gate receipts (EUR 26.8 M), commercial revenue (EUR 17.6 M), and state funding (EUR 3.1 M) while the IRFU gained a large proportion of its revenue from representative matches (EUR 63 M).

Several NGBs encourage and seek corporate donations from individuals and corporate players – such donations are tax deductible. The Government Sports Capital Programme provides grants for facilities enhancement, and these funds must be matched. Consequently, the funding of grass roots sport is largely driven by individual sports NGBs in conjunction with community-based clubs. Many local clubs organize special fund-raising activities or host annual events to improve the financial fortunes of local sport.

---

<sup>5</sup> While sport (competitive and leisure) is largely offered on an amateur basis in Ireland, it is essential to note that many sports NGBs employ full-time paid professionals in addition to volunteers to improve the management and organization of their activities and services.

### 9.3.2 *Financing of Sport Facilities*

Funding from the Sports Capital Program (SCP<sup>6</sup>) has provided an enhanced range of sports facilities at national, regional, and local level. The DTTAS operates two grant programs – the Sports Capital Program and the Local Authority Swimming Pool Program. *The Sports Capital Program* aims to foster an integrated and planned approach to developing sports and physical recreation facilities throughout the country. It assists voluntary and community organizations, sports’ national governing bodies (NGBs), Local Authorities, and in some cases Vocational Education Committees (VECs) and schools to develop high-quality, safe, well-designed, sustainable facilities in appropriate locations and to provide suitable equipment to help maximize participation in sport and physical recreation (DTTAS 2012). *The Local Authority Swimming Pool Program* provides grant aid from the Exchequer to Local Authorities and bodies towards the cost of providing new swimming pools or refurbishing existing pools.

The quality of Ireland’s sports facilities has improved over the last 10 years due largely to initiatives by various sport organizations and in other cases a combined government and sports body effort. Ireland now boasts of two world-class stadia. Croke Park (the home of the GAA) is the fourth largest stadium in Europe with capacity for 82,300 spectators. The Croke Park redevelopment was part funded by the state (25 %), the remainder was provided by the GAA. The Aviva Stadium (formerly Lansdowne Road, used by the FAI and IRFU) has been redeveloped to a 50,000 all-seated stadium. Other sports facilities (*the majority in the Dublin area*) have been redeveloped to meet the coaching and competition needs of the following sports – aquatics, athletics, badminton, basketball, boxing, cricket, golf, hockey, judo, rowing, and tennis. Under the National Sports Facilities Strategy 2012–2015, efforts are now directed at the provision of quality sports facilities at national, regional, and local level which are fit for purpose, are accessible to all, and meet the needs of the recreational and elite athletes. In recent years, a number of municipal multisport facilities have been developed and funded by the DTTAS. These combine a range of indoor and outdoor sports, fitness, and recreational facilities in one location.

### 9.3.3 *Voluntary Engagement*

Volunteering in sport is deeply rooted in the history of sport in Ireland, mainly through Gaelic games organized by the Gaelic Athletic Association (GAA). While there is no official definition of a sport volunteer in Ireland, recent studies (Delaney and Fahey 2005; Irish Sport Monitor (ISM) 2011) reveal that approximately 15 % of adults volunteer in sports. Delaney and Fahy (2005) assert that volunteering is higher among males (18 %) than females (12 %), which equates to 420,000

---

<sup>6</sup> Due to the economic downturn in Ireland, the Government’s SCP was suspended between 2008 and 2011.

**Table 9.1** Volunteering across sports (in percentage)

		Male	Female	All
1	GAA football	24	18	21
2	Soccer	22	13	17
3	GAA hurling	19	11	15
4	Swimming	2	9	6
5	Camogie	3	6	4
6	Golf	4	3	4
7	Basketball	2	5	4
8	Rugby	3	2	3
9	Athletics	2	4	3
10	Ladies Gaelic football	1	4	2
11	Other	18	25	22

Source: Delaney and Fahey (2005)

volunteers, 250,000 men and 170,000 women. The ISM (2011) report suggests that a larger proportion of volunteers are engaged in team sports (11 %) compared with 4 % involved in individual sports. The more common volunteering activities are providing transport, coaching, acting as a club official, and being an event organizer and kit maintenance. Table 9.1 lists the more popular sports which attract volunteers drawing on a study completed by the Economic Social Research Institute (Delaney and Fahey 2005).

Given its extensive parish club network and cultural remit and roots, it is no surprise that the GAA attracts the highest proportion (42 %) of volunteers – GAA football and hurling<sup>7</sup> (36 %) and camogie<sup>8</sup> and ladies football (6 %). Soccer as the most widely played team sport in Ireland is listed second, as it has an extensive community-based club structure.

The 2005 ESRI report puts the economic value for sports volunteering at EUR 26.7 million per annum (GHK 2010). The figures provided by the Indecon Report (2010) give a different picture – it estimates that almost 270,000 people participate in some form of sport-related voluntary activity in Ireland. On an annual basis, it is estimated that approximately 37.2 million volunteer hours are spent on sport-related activities. According to the Indecon research, the annual value of volunteering in sport in Ireland ranges between a lower-bound estimate of EUR 322 million annually and an upper-bound estimate of EUR 582 million annually.

Ireland has an evolving infrastructure to promote and support volunteering that includes Volunteering Ireland, a volunteer development agency which supports organizations in building their capacity for effective volunteer involvement. In addition, Volunteer Centers Ireland is the national network of local volunteer centers providing a brokerage service, linking volunteers with opportunities throughout the country.

<sup>7</sup>Hurling is a traditional team sport in Ireland which is played with a stick (camán) and ball (sliotar). It has been described as a form of aerial hockey – [www.gaa.ie](http://www.gaa.ie).

<sup>8</sup>Camogie is team game played by women using a stick and ball. It is very similar to hurling.

## 9.4 Sports Policy

Little or no attention was given to sport policy in Ireland until the late 1990s. The lack of government involvement lies partly in financial conservatism of the major political parties at the time and partly in the sophistication and geographical coverage of the GAA organization, but primarily in the lack of need for government intervention. According to Houlihan (1997), the Irish government encouraged the GAA and the National Athletics and Cycling Association (NACA) to organize the sporting life of the country with extremely modest finance and without significant interference. The first strategy plan for sport in Ireland entitled “Targeting Sporting Change in Ireland 1997–2006” was published in 1997 by the Department of Education which sought to bring all elements of sport together in a cohesive way for the benefit of all those involved in sport – participants, coaches, leaders, administrators, and other stakeholders. Strategic goals to be achieved by 2006 were set out along with core principles underpinning its development. The Irish Sports Council (ISC) was established in 1999 as the lead body to coordinate and monitor government initiatives and actions.

The Irish Sports Council’s vision is one where sport contributes to enhancing the quality of Irish life and everyone is encouraged and valued in sport; young people see sport participation as an integral and enjoyable part of their busy lives; individuals can develop their sporting abilities and enhance their enjoyment, limited only by their talent and commitment; and Irish sportsmen and women achieve consistent world-class performance, fairly (Irish Sports Council 2011). To complete its remit, the ISC comprises eight major divisions – Anti-doping, Corporate Services, High Performance, Irish Institute of Sport, Local Sports Partnerships, National Governing Bodies, National Trails Office, and Research.

Under Section 25 of the Irish Sports Council Act 1999, the Council is obliged to prepare a 3-year strategy statement, the most recent one being for the period 2012–2014. According to this statement, the ISC will continue to focus on the following key areas: (a) advancing the participation strategy, (b) developing the capacity of the National Governing Body sector, and (c) sustaining the high-performance system.

In the following paragraphs, three main areas of national sports policy are outlined.

### 9.4.1 *Elite Sport Development: High Performance*

The contribution of various players within the Irish Education system (second-level school authorities, teachers, coaches, etc.) to the development of certain sports and the identification of young sporting talent particularly in Gaelic football, hurling, rugby union, athletics, basketball, and netball have been considerable (Bourke 2011). This, to some extent, has been facilitated by inputs from various NGBs to enhance the sporting prowess of young players. However, for other aspiring elite athletes (swimming, golf, soccer, and the like), young talent identification and development occurs outside formal schooling and within community-based clubs.

These clubs (like secondary school sport) operate largely on a voluntary basis, and in recent years better supports (financial and otherwise) have been made available by respective sports NGBs.

The normal route to elite sports development is through the pertinent NGB which in various cases is assisted by higher education institutions (HEIs) either through elite athlete academies (EAA) or by way of sports scholarships. It must be noted that many of Ireland's elite athletes have opted to pursue their sporting career dreams abroad. This occurs mainly in soccer as young players are offered trials at UK Premiership clubs (Manchester United, Liverpool, Arsenal, and the like). Many leading North American and UK universities have facilitated international student athlete mobility out of Ireland by way of sports scholarships, particularly for aspiring elite athletes pursuing golf, swimming, tennis, and women's soccer. The role of the Colleges and Universities Sports Association of Ireland (CUSAI) in promoting semi-elite sports development and performance is worth noting. CUSAI as FISU's national affiliate coordinates the participation of Irish third-level athletes at the biennial World University Games, World University Championships, and the European Universities Sports Championships. Tennis Ireland operates the only Sports Academy in Ireland in conjunction with Dublin City University. There are plans for a National Soccer Academy, but these are currently on hold.

For those athletes who wish to enhance their performance in the local setting, the Irish Sports Council (ISC) High-Performance Unit offers supports (sporting and non-sporting) in conjunction with the relevant NGB. Under the ISC International Carding System, EUR 1.7 million has been awarded to elite athletes for 2013. The awards are in the following designated sports – athletics, badminton, boxing, canoeing, clay pigeon shooting, cycling, judo, pentathlon, triathlon, rowing, sailing, swimming, and water sports – and are also given to athletes competing in Paralympic athletics and swimming, Irish Wheelchair Sport, and Cerebral Palsy Sport. In addition to supporting sports for Olympic/Paralympic medals, the ISC also invests in the high-performance programs of Cricket Ireland, the Golfing Union of Ireland, the Irish Ladies Golfing Union, and Women's Rugby.

#### ***9.4.2 Women in Sport (WIS) Initiative***

The “Women in Sport Initiative” was launched by the Irish Sports Council in 2005 and sets out to address the differences that exist between women's and men's interaction with sport, with patterns of volunteering being an area of analysis. The overarching objectives of the Women in Sport (WIS) program are to raise overall physical activity levels among women and to support women's roles within sports organizations.

The financial allocations to the Women in Sport (WIS) program have increased over the years from EUR 750,000 in 2005 to EUR 2.2 million in 2008 (Irish Sports Council 2011). Most of this funding is targeted towards programs rolled out by Sport National Governing Bodies and Local Sports Partnerships as delivery agents for the Irish Sports Council.

### **9.4.3 Local Sports Partnerships (LSPs)**

Local Sports Partnerships were introduced in 2004 by the Irish Sports Council, and their primary aim is to increase participation in sport and to ensure better use and coordination of resources and activities at local level. They offer services not previously available or which would not be provided by other agencies or organizations, due mainly to cost constraints.

The role of LSPs is to (i) provide information using appropriate strategies (forums, directories, databases) to assist local planning; (ii) offer education and training opportunities at local level targeting volunteers, providing access to sport-specific courses through the national governing bodies (NGBs); and (iii) strategic planning for local areas through the appointment of professional administrators, securing related support services and increasing the impact of national programs at local level.

LSP membership draws on statutory bodies, organizations, and groups operating in local areas with a responsibility for or interest in sports development. The involvement of Vocational Education Committees (VECs), City and County councils, the Health Service Executive, universities, colleges, Institutes of Technology, commercial companies, sports' clubs, and NGBs is expected.

While LSPs are funded by the ISC, they are expected to generate 50 % of their operational funding. For 2013, Local Sports Partnerships (LSPs) have been awarded EUR 5.1 million. This is a decrease on the 2012 figure of EUR 5.5 million. There are two types of LSP grant aid: (a) core funding to be used for staff costs and developing partnerships and local initiatives and (b) program funding designed towards high-priority, targeted initiatives identified and promoted by the LSP.

LSPs are considered to be successful as documented in the annual reviews. The major outcomes are the improved quality of information available on sports services and facilities at local level and the increased engagement by various parties in training and organization development programs – particularly those offered by the ISC and certain NGBs.

## **9.5 Sport Participation**

The ISC's Irish Sport Monitor (ISM) project is designed to measure and monitor physical and social participation in sport and other forms of exercise among a representative sample of the Irish<sup>9</sup> population aged 16 and over. The survey uses large sample sizes to ensure robustness in the estimates both at overall level and for key social demographic subgroups.

---

<sup>9</sup>The ISM data gathered refers to the Republic of Ireland only.

**Table 9.2** More popular sports participation: male and female

Sports	Males (%)		Sports	Females (%)	
	2011	2009		2011	2009
Soccer	12	11	Exercise	13	7
Exercise	10	5	Swimming	11	9
Running	9	4	Dancing	5	3
Swimming	9	6	Running	5	2
Cycling	4	4	Cycling	3	2
Golf	8	8	Yoga	2	1
Gaelic football	4	4	Golf	2	1
Hurling	3	2	Gaelic football	2	1
Weights	3	1	Tennis	1	1

For the purpose of the ISM project, sport is defined as any physical activities that are undertaken for exercise, recreation, or sport, excluding walking (ISM 2011). The ISM Project is designed to monitor changes in participation in sport and physical exercise over a period of years. Sports' participation data is gathered using a detailed questionnaire which employs a 1-week "reference period" (i.e., respondents are asked only about activities which were undertaken within the previous 7 days), records the type of activity undertaken using an open-ended question format, and obtains information about the frequency, duration, effort, and context associated with participation in each of up to three activities. The questionnaire thus aims to maximize the chances of accurate recall and to permit a strict definition of participation to be applied. The ISM report data were collected by way of telephone interviews, and the sample size for 2011 was 8,749 (in 2009 it was 9,767) individuals aged 16 years or over. Four ISM reports have been published to date (Irish Sports Council 2011; Lunn and Layte 2008, 2009; Lunn et al. 2007).

The ISM (2011) findings reveal that sports participation in Ireland has risen from 34 % (2009) to 46 % of the population. Participation in team sports (12 %) has remained steady compared with the 2009 (10 %) figure, but participation in individual sports (running, cycling, swimming, personal exercise) has risen considerably. Age and gender are two demographic factors most strongly correlated with sports participation – males are more likely to engage in sporting activity than females: 52 % compared with 40 %, and the nature of engagement differs with team sports being more common among males. The more popular sports among males and females (for 2011 and 2009) are as shown on Table 9.2.

Soccer continues to be the more popular sport among males (12 %), while exercise is the more popular among females (13 %). Female sport is dominated by two activities – exercise and swimming, whereas among males, the increased participation in individual sports means that the variations across four sports (exercise, running, swimming, golf) is narrower in 2011 than in 2009.

The highest level of sports participation in Ireland occurs among 16–19 year olds (77 %) with the lowest among the 65+ age group (29 %). Table 9.3 presents the



**Table 9.3** Sport participation: age and gender (in percentage)

	16–19		20–24		25–34		35–44		45–54		55–64		65+	
Years	2011	2009	2011	2009	2011	2009	2011	2009	2011	2009	2011	2009	2011	2009
Total	77	64	69	47	56	45	42	33	35	27	34	22	29	14
Males	91	74	80	62	67	53	49	39	34	32	35	25	33	20
Females	63	53	60	33	44	37	36	27	36	22	33	20	26	10

Source: ISM (2011), Lunn and Layte(2009)

summary data for sports participation for 2011 and 2009, according to age and gender. It is interesting to note that the gender variation among the 16–19 year olds – 91 % of males compared with 63 % of females, participate in sport.

### 9.5.1 Sports Participation by Socioeconomic Status (SES)

To get a sense of the impact of socioeconomic status (SES) on sport participation, ISM study respondents were categorized into socioeconomic groupings using the standardized classification across the research industry – A, B, C1, C2, D, E, and F. For reporting and data analysis purposes, categories A and B and D and E were merged to provide a robust sample, given the general similarities across those groupings.

The ISM (2011) findings suggest a strong degree of correlation between socioeconomic status and participation in sport. Individuals in the AB (54 %) socioeconomic grouping (*professionals and management*) are significantly more likely to participate in sport than those in the C2 (47 %) group (*skilled manual workers*) and DE (38 %) groupings (*semiskilled or unskilled manual roles or on long-term benefits*). When the data is analyzed according to education, 50 % of individuals who have post-Leaving Certificate<sup>10</sup> qualifications (*third-level education*) participate in sports, compared with 44 % of those who do not have third-level qualifications. Among individuals who had not completed second-level schooling, 46 % participated in sport and a small proportion (23 %) of individuals who left formal schooling earlier, engaged in sport.

Table 9.4 presents information based on SES with respect to individual and team sports played and for particular sports. A higher proportion of individuals in the AB (50 %) category engage in individual sports, compared with those in the F category (30 %). Team sports are more common among individuals classed as C1 and C2 SES compared with those in other categories.

Some individual sports are more commonly pursued by particular groups. Running is notable as there is a strong contrast between the higher AB category and the lower C2 and DE social groups in terms of their likelihood to participate.

<sup>10</sup>The Leaving Certificate is the terminal examination for second-level schooling in Ireland and would be considered equivalent to the UK A Levels.

**Table 9.4** Types of sport played: socioeconomic groupings (%)

Grouping/sports	AB	C1	C2	DE	F					
<b>Individual (I)</b>	I	50	I	45	I	38	I	33	I	30
<b>Team (T)</b>	T	11	T	15	T	15	T	8	T	12
Exercise		14		13		11		9		7
Swimming		13		11		11		9		7
Running		13		10		5		4		5
Soccer		5		7		8		5		9
Cycling		6		7		6		4		4
Golf		7		5		5		4		1
Dancing		2		4		4		3		5
GAA football		3		4		4		2		3
Weights		2		2		2		1		1
Hurling		2		2		2		1		3

Source: ISM (2011)

## 9.6 Conclusion

The sporting landscape in Ireland has changed considerably during the last decade. The government is more involved in shaping sports policy and investment and through the Irish Sports Council providing governance support (financial and non-financial) for many national governing bodies (NGBs). In making grant awards, the ISC Council adopts a more strategic approach – identifying and targeting designated sports for international success. Figure 9.1 displays the plethora of interdependency ties which exist among sports stakeholders in Ireland. The contribution by the voluntary sector to sport in Ireland is immense, both in social and economic terms. This adds to NGB/organizational challenges, such as adhering to regulatory and legal requirements and combining the input of paid professionals with that by volunteers.

Christiansen et al. (2012) reviewed national sports policy documents for 25 European Region countries. Their findings reveal that all national strategy/policy documents have overall goals on participation in sport, physical activity, and/or goals on health. However, a number lacked measurable targets, specified budgets, and evaluation plans. These findings are reflected in the Irish case, as information pertaining to the Ireland's sports policy are widely documented and published, along with details of funding, participation, and volunteering. However, in some instances, there is evidence of duplicated efforts and a lack of specifics, particularly in relation to budgets and funding. Nevertheless, some progress has been made on policy evaluation, which to date has been completed on a rather fragmented basis – by organization, target group, or region.

There are two unique features of sport in Ireland. Firstly, the majority of sports are played on an amateur basis, and secondly, there is intense competition among the NGBs to recruit talented youngsters to their sport. There is a need to further enhance Ireland's sporting infrastructure, to ensure that talented (and not so talented) athletes are able to develop their sporting prowess. This review is limited in

that it focuses on the top layer of sport in Ireland. In this arena, attention is given to promoting sport among various target groups (women in sport, children, disabled people, multicultural groups, the disadvantaged, etc.). However, there is an absence of enablers to promote synergies across organizations and agencies, to ensure that sports policy and strategy efforts and initiatives are coherent and appropriately configured and coordinated at and across all levels.

## References

- Bourke, A. (2011). Sports governance in the Republic of Ireland. In C. Sobry (Ed.), *Sports governance in the world – a socio-historic approach*. Paris: Le Manuscript.
- Bradley, J., Keane, F., & Crawford, S. (2013). School sport and academic achievement. *Journal of School Health*, 83(1), 8–13.
- Central Statistics Office (CSO). (2013). [www.cso.ie](http://www.cso.ie). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Christiansen, N. V., Kahlmeire, S., & Racioppi, F. (2012). Sport promotion policies in the European Union: results of a content analysis. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports*. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0838.2012.01500.x.
- Cronin, M. (1999). *Sport and nationalism in Ireland: Gaelic games, soccer and Irish identity since 1884*. Dublin/Portland: Four Courts Press Ltd.
- Delaney, L., & Fahey, T. (2005). *Social and economic value of sport in Ireland*. Dublin: Economic and Social Research Institute.
- Department of Transport, Tourism and Sport (DTTAS). (2012). *National sports facilities strategy 2012–2016*. <http://www.transport.ie/sport/pdfs/National-Sports-Facilities-Strategy-2012-2016.pdf>. Accessed 18 Dec 2012.
- Federation of Irish Sport. (2013). *Latest News & Blogs*. <http://irishsport.ie>. Accessed 18 Dec 2012.
- Gaelic Athletic Association (GAA). (2011). *Annual report*. Dublin: GAA.
- Gaelic Athletic Association (GAA). (2013). [www.gaa.ie](http://www.gaa.ie). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- GHK. (2010). *Study on volunteering in the EU – Volunteering in sport*. [http://ec.europa.eu/sport/library/doc/f\\_studies/sport\\_fiche\\_ie.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/sport/library/doc/f_studies/sport_fiche_ie.pdf). Accessed 15 Jan 2013.
- Green, J. (2012). *Investing in sport is investing in health*. [www.independent.ie/sport/other-sports/investing](http://www.independent.ie/sport/other-sports/investing). Accessed 20 Jan 2013.
- Houlihan, B. (1997). *Sport, policy, and politics: a comparative analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Indecon International Consultants. (2010). *Economic impact of sport in Ireland*. Report submitted to the Irish Sports Council. Dublin.
- Irish Sport Monitor (ISM). (2011). *Supporting Irish Sport*. <http://www.irishsportsCouncil.ie>. Accessed 30 Nov 2012.
- Irish Sports Council. (2011). *Irish Sports Monitor 2011 Annual Report*. [http://www.irishsportsCouncil.ie/Media/Latest\\_News/2012/Irish\\_Sports\\_Monitor\\_2011\\_Final\\_Report.pdf](http://www.irishsportsCouncil.ie/Media/Latest_News/2012/Irish_Sports_Monitor_2011_Final_Report.pdf). Accessed 30 Nov 2012.
- Lunn, P., & Layte, R. (2008). *The Irish Sports Monitor*. [http://www.irishsportsCouncil.ie/Research/The\\_Irish\\_Sports\\_Monitor/Irish\\_Sports\\_Monitor\\_2008.pdf](http://www.irishsportsCouncil.ie/Research/The_Irish_Sports_Monitor/Irish_Sports_Monitor_2008.pdf). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Lunn, P., & Layte, R. (2009). *The Irish Sports Monitor*. [http://www.irishsportsCouncil.ie/Research/The\\_Irish\\_Sports\\_Monitor/Irish\\_Sports\\_Monitor\\_2009.pdf](http://www.irishsportsCouncil.ie/Research/The_Irish_Sports_Monitor/Irish_Sports_Monitor_2009.pdf). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Lunn, P., Layte, R., & Watson, D. (2007). *The Irish Sports Monitor*. [http://www.irishsportsCouncil.ie/Research/The\\_Irish\\_Sports\\_Monitor/Irish\\_Sports\\_Monitor\\_2007.pdf](http://www.irishsportsCouncil.ie/Research/The_Irish_Sports_Monitor/Irish_Sports_Monitor_2007.pdf). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Northern Ireland Statistics Research Agency (NISRA). (2013). [www.nisra.gov.uk](http://www.nisra.gov.uk). Accessed 11 June 2013.

# Chapter 10

## The Netherlands

Remco Hoekman and Koen Breedveld

### 10.1 Introduction

The Netherlands is a prosperous nation, which is, among others, reflected in the high educational standards. Wage differences and social inequality are low, when compared to international standards. Despite apparent processes of individualization, participation in voluntary work remains high in the Netherlands. With over 16 million inhabitants, the Netherlands have almost 500 inhabitants per square kilometer. This density, and as a result scarcity of space, makes good planning essential. Furthermore, the culture of the Netherlands is characterized by an emphasis on stable social relations rather than on social conflict and by forming alliances and working together rather than by emphasizing differences.

These characteristics of the Netherlands can be considered beneficial with regard to sport participation, as higher sport participation rates are often associated with higher income and educational levels. Furthermore, countries with a higher gross domestic product, the more prosperous nations, are more likely to have higher sport participation rates. And the sport sector also profits from the high degree of voluntary work in the Netherlands, with regard to the sport provision by sport clubs. Together with the high density of the Netherlands, which leads to limited distances to facilities, this are favorable conditions for affordable sports that is within reach for the population.

---

R. Hoekman (✉)  
Mulier Institute, Utrecht, Netherlands  
e-mail: r.hoekman@mulierinstituut.nl

K. Breedveld  
Mulier Institute, Utrecht, Netherlands

Radboud University Nijmegen, Nijmegen, Netherlands  
e-mail: k.breedveld@mulierinstituut.nl

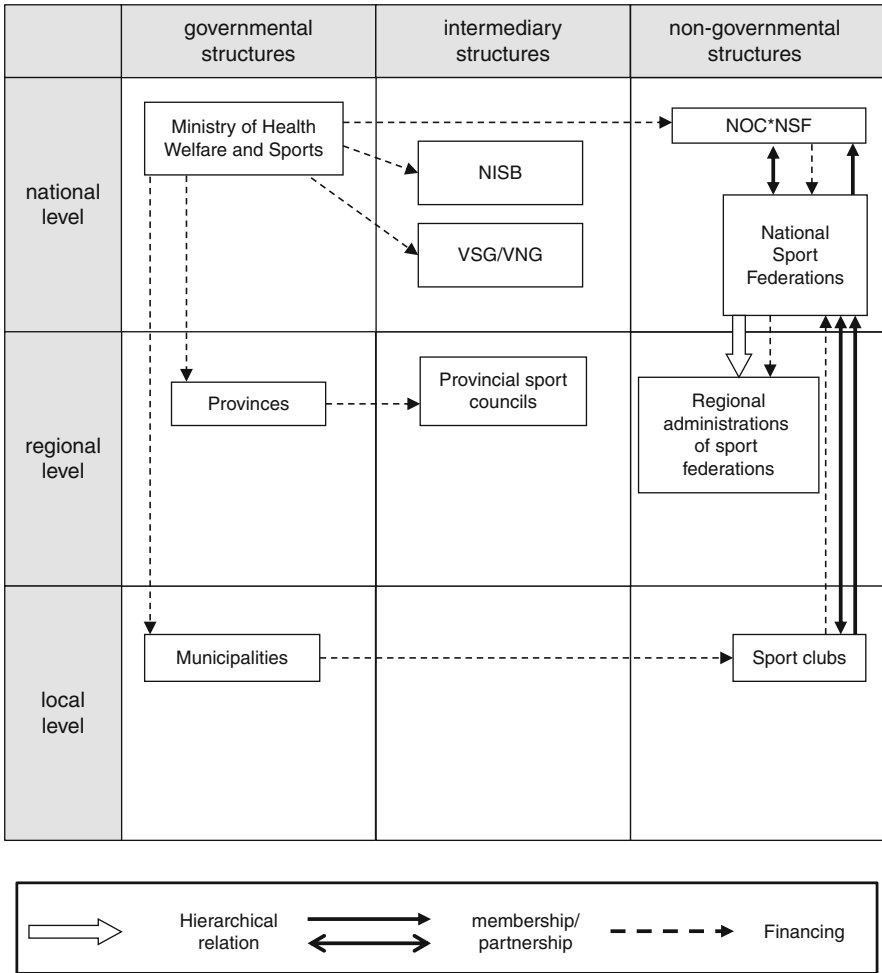
In this chapter we provide an insight in the characteristics of the Dutch sport system, sport policy, and sport participation. Special attention is paid in the last part of this chapter to sport facilities in the Netherlands and its role in enhancing sport participation. The structure of the chapter is as follows: first we describe the sport system and the structure of organized sport. Next we will draw a picture of the financing of sport in the Netherlands. Furthermore, we will describe the main areas of sport policy in the Netherlands and the issued programs and interventions. We then turn to the outcomes of sport participation surveys in the Netherlands, held between 2006 and 2011, and shed light on the trends in sport participation. In addition we pay attention to the role of sport facilities in enhancing sport participation. Finally, we will summarize our findings and describe the main conclusions and main challenges for sport in the Netherlands.

## 10.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

Sport in the Netherlands has roots both in England and in the German/Scandinavian gymnastic tradition. With England, it shares a focus on “sport,” with its clubs and federations. However, whereas in England the development of sport was mainly centered around and in the school context, in the Netherlands in the twentieth century, sport mostly developed outside the educational system. The sport club setting was established separately from the school context. The involvement of municipalities in the development of the sport clubs was very limited at that time. The sport clubs were mainly initiated by the elite and not yet a democratized phenomenon that could count on municipal involvement and contributions. Within schools the physical education was based on “gymnastic” that was adopted from Germany and the Scandinavian countries.

As a result of this development of sport in the Netherlands in the early years, sport clubs are, and always have been, the most important framework for organized sport activities – more than schools, municipal organizations, or commercial providers (Fig. 10.1). Sport clubs are not for profit organizations, based on a system of mutual support (voluntary work) and self-organization. The sport clubs, 27,000 in total, are generally affiliated to sport-specific national sport federations. These sport clubs form the core of the Dutch sport system. Over the years, becoming a member of a sport club has become less self-evident though. Participating in unorganized sports or at a commercial sport provider, among which the over 2,000 commercial fitness centers in the Netherlands, has risen over the years. Nevertheless, the commercial sector is still hardly regarded as a partner for the government in setting up policies and interventions. The nonprofit sport clubs, and increasingly also schools and the education system in general, are more easily regarded as potential policy partners. This is true on the local level as well as on the national level.

The government’s involvement in sports is not restricted or guided by a specific law on sports (Breedveld et al. 2011). However, various statutory regulations do have an impact on sport policy and the sport sector. Most important in this regard is



**Fig. 10.1** The organization of sport in the Netherlands. Note: *NISB* National Institute for Sport and Exercise, *VSG* Union of Local Authorities, *VNG* Association of Netherlands Municipalities, *NOC\*NSF* National Olympic Committee\*Netherlands Sport Federation (For an easier comprehension of the general structure bodies like the commercial sport providers and sport for disabled, specific elite sport organizations were excluded from the figure)

the Public Welfare Act of 1994 that – until recently – served as a general framework for the sport policies of different authorities. The concrete general framework for sport activity is enshrined in guidelines and plans at a decentralized level. The Public Welfare Act entails that municipalities are responsible for the so-called executive work (e.g., facilitating sport and maintaining the sport facilities), provinces are responsible for the activities that supports this executive work, and the national government is responsible for national sport infrastructure, for the monitoring of

societal developments, for the stimulation of new initiatives in sport, and for international exchange of information and knowledge.

At the national level, the Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sport is in charge of promoting physical exercise and a healthy lifestyle and responsible for sport policy. Responsibility for physical education lies with the Ministry of Education. The central government supports sport primarily because it promotes social values and contributes to key government objectives in the fields of prevention and health, youth policy, education, norms and values, integration, communities, safety, and international policy. The government's responsibility is complementary to that of other parties such as the local authorities.

The 12 provinces of the Netherlands play a modest role in sport policies. Provinces mainly support local development programs and function as an intermediary between the local and the national level.

The municipalities are responsible for the promotion of sport, in general, and moreover for the sport participation of specific target groups. They are also responsible for the support of local sport clubs, for urban and rural development, and for spatial planning at local level. Municipalities have the responsibility (i) to build and maintenance of sport facilities, (ii) to organize special projects in the neighborhoods (e.g., projects that combine sport, school, and activities in the neighborhood), (iii) to promote sport in schools and around school times, (iv) to promote high-level sport, and (v) to organize high-level or top-class events. Yet, these responsibilities are not legally enshrined.

Municipalities are supported and stimulated in the field of sport policy by the Union of Local Authorities (VSG). The National Institute for Sport and Exercise (NISB) develops projects and programs and ensures their implementation at the local level. Furthermore, InnoSportNL is an innovation platform that stimulates public and private parties to joint innovative projects. In addition the Netherlands has a specific organization that is responsible for sport for disabled, "Gehandicaptensport Nederland," and receives funding to support local organizations in setting up or continuing sport activities for disabled.

Sport clubs still are the key sport providers, supplemented by the commercial providers and to a small extent company sport providers, welfare workers, and after school programs. Sport clubs are also the main users of the municipal sport facilities. As well as in other countries, sport clubs are represented by sport-specific national sport federation. Most of these sport federations are in turn affiliated to the National Olympic Committee\**Netherlands Sport Federation (NOC\*NSF)*, which consists of the merger of the two bodies in 1993. More than 72 sport federations, together representing 27,000 clubs, are affiliated to the *NOC\*NSF*. The *NOC\*NSF* herewith unites the interests of more than five million athletes who are organized into federations. The sport federations and *NOC\*NSF* are responsible for the promotion of sport participation and for high-level sport, with the objective for the Netherlands to be ranked in the world's top 10 on the Olympic medal scale, to increase the sport participation rate to 75 % in 2016, to have more people members of local sport clubs, and to improve the quality of the national and local sport organizations.

### 10.3 Financing of Sport

Sport in the Netherlands is financed by the consumers (active and passive), the government (national, regional, and local), lotteries (revenues of gambling), sponsors, and to a small extent media rights. The Dutch sport sector has a total gross national product of about EUR 9 billion (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek [CBS] 2012; Policy Research Corporation [PRC] 2008).

The biggest contributors to the financing of sports are the sport participants (*consumers*), especially those active in a sport club. They pay a membership fee to participate in sport activities of the sport club and take part in competitions or tournaments. The sport club has to pay a membership fee for each member to the sport federation. For this contribution the sport federation offers club support and organizes competitions. The sport sector is herewith to a large extent self-sufficient but nevertheless still needs the support of the government to maintain its current structure.

The *government* invests around EUR 1.2 billion in sports – excl. the EUR 0.7 billion investments in physical education. In relation to the government, the municipalities are the biggest investors in sport. Almost 90 % of the government's expenditures are accounted for by municipalities, compared to about 10 % by the national government and 1 % by the provinces. About 85–90 % of the municipal investments in sport are related to sport facilities, which is in total about EUR 1 billion. A large share of the investments in sport facilities is related to the reduced fees that sport clubs pay for the use of sport facilities. For some types of facilities, the fees just cover about 10 % of the true costs to run and to maintain the facility. This reduced fee is the result of the perceived contribution of sport and sport club participation to the society as a whole. The investment in sport at the national level entails the launch of subsidized policy programs for the sport sector and the provision of subsidies to national supporting organizations, such as NOC\*NSF, NISB, and VSG, and to research organizations, which monitor the developments in the sport sector (e.g., Mulier Institute).

Another component of the financing of sport is the *lotteries*. Three different lotteries support the sport sector in the Netherlands: the Dutch Lottery, the Sponsor Bingo Lottery, and the Lotto. The total revenue to sport from lotteries and games of chance was over EUR 100 million. This money is mainly distributed to NOC\*NSF and further to the federations to uphold the organizational infrastructure of the sport federations. To some extent the money is labeled for elite sport, talent development, coach development, sport infrastructure, and grassroots sports.

In 2008, an estimated 1,581,000 volunteers were involved in sport, working an average of 3 h a week. This represents 118,575 full-time equivalents (FTE) and an economic value of around EUR 2.3 billion.<sup>1</sup> Under the income law, volunteers working for sport clubs can receive compensations up to an amount of EUR 1,500 per year without being subject to income tax.

---

<sup>1</sup>Based on national average wage (Eurostat).



There are also fiscal incentives for the funding of grassroots sports in the Netherlands. According to the Tax and Customs Administration, the services provided by sport clubs to their members are exempt from VAT. Commercial sport provisions are taxed 6 % VAT rather than 21 % that is common for sundry services. Also, since 2009, gifts and donations from individuals to sport clubs are free of tax.

## 10.4 Sport Policy

The introduction of sport policy in the Netherlands came about when sport became a more democratic phenomenon, something that is done and viewed by the people (Breedveld et al. 2011). Sport in the Netherlands emerged modestly after the introduction of the 8-h working day in 1919 up to the Second World War. Sport became a regulated and competitive form of exercise. The big growth in sports occurred in the 1960s and 1970s. During that period in the context of the welfare state, sport became visible in the morphology of the cities as a result of the focus in sport policies on facilitating sports (Hoekman and Van der Poel 2009). In 1967, a national system for subsidies was introduced to increase the number of sport facilities in the Netherlands. This system for subsidies was only temporary, but it led to a structural investment of municipalities in sport facilities later on. The temporary arrangement was a success. In a few years time, a large number of swimming pools, sport fields, and sport halls were built and operated by municipalities. The sport clubs were provided with the long-desired qualitative facilities and opened up for anyone who wanted to participate in sport (Bottenburg 1999; Pouw 1999). The social and physical infrastructure for sport shaped itself and unmistakably became part of the cities' life. From 1980 onward a redirection occurred on the status of sport within national policy. In the crisis-like atmosphere of the 1980s, the question was whether the government should be concerned with sport (Beckers and Serail 1991). Sport participation was a leisure activity and in essence a responsibility of the individual. Sport participation was not a core task or responsibility of the government, and legitimating investments in sport at times of recession was therefore difficult. In these times of financial crisis many sport facilities were privatized and hardly any new facilities were built.

From 1990 onward things changed the good way. In the larger cities, "sportive renewal projects" were launched, which connected sport, urban policy, and social renewal (Vos 1998). Sport was within these projects put forward as an important instrument to increase the social cohesion, especially in low-status neighborhoods. In this period the sport market emerged, with private investors taking interest in sports. From 1994 till now, the new direction from the previous period has led to a new approach: from "sport as a goal and objective" to "sport as an instrument to reach other goals." In 1994, sport was finally mentioned in the name of a ministry in the Netherlands: the Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sports. This was an obvious signal of the growing importance of sport in the Netherlands. From this period on, sport was more than ever considered a mean to achieve the objectives set out in the policy fields of welfare, social cohesion, public health, and national pride. Sport was

placed in a social civil context. Also, there is more and more serious attention for elite sport, especially visible in the renovation and construction of top-class sport facilities such as the Pieter van den Hoogenband swim stadium in Eindhoven, Omnisport (cycling, athletics) in Apeldoorn, Flik-Flak (gymnastics) in Den Bosch, integrated in Olympic Training Centers, and in putting effort in bids to host top events and in setting objectives related to the ranking on the Olympic medal scale (linked to the Olympic Plan 2028 – for economic reasons temporarily put on hold).

The role of central government in sport policy became primarily one of coordination, funding, and encouragement (Breedveld et al. 2011). Money raised is transferred to other organization in the network to execute sport policy. Besides the national sport policy letter or policy document, most sport policy is a local issue. A particular feature of sport policy in the Netherlands is the fact that it is the result of cooperation between different sport policy partners (a sport policy network of public authorities, the sport umbrella organizations, sport clubs, companies, and the media): no single partner in this network can achieve anything without the commitment of the others. National sport policy is centered around three main policy objectives: (i) health, improving health through sports and physical activity and reducing injuries; (ii) participation, increase sport participation rates and levels of physical activity, stimulate to become a member of a sport club, and encourage volunteering; (iii) achieving/to excel, investments in elite sport to achieve a top 10 ranking on the Olympic medal scale.

The beneficial aspects of sport have resulted in an ambition of the Dutch government, supported by the sport sector, to raise the sport participation level to 75 % in 2016. In perspective of this ambition, the Dutch government set three priorities: (i) possibilities to participate in sport and be physically active in the area people live, (ii) toward a safer sport environment, and (iii) to excel in sports.

With regard to the first priority, the Dutch government regularly initiates new 3–4-year programs, offering financial support and manpower to local sport providers to develop and run sport activities, especially for groups that do not or hardly participate in sport. In these new programs, the demands of the potential sport participants should form the starting point, and cooperation with other local organizations, such as other sport providers, municipality, schools, and health and welfare organizations, is a precondition to obtain funding. In the past years several projects have been launched for 3–4 years, which were after this period replaced by projects with a slightly different approach. It started with the “Breedtesportimpuls” focusing on all age groups. This program was followed up by the “BOS-impuls” focusing on school-age boys and girls with a compulsory cooperation between neighborhood, education, and sport. The next program, “Meedoen,” was aimed at sport clubs, providing them the manpower and money to initiate new activities and to increase their cooperation with local partners, such as schools and welfare workers within neighborhoods. The following programs “Combinatiefuncties” and “Buurtsportcoach” did not only offer manpower to sport clubs but as well to other sport providers and to schools for physical education and after school programs. The subsidized new workers had to work for more than one sector and, for instance, be active both for educational organizations and sport organizations. These new workers form an

important local linking pin. By cooperating on a local level and making use of each other's qualities, it is assumed that higher sport participation is more likely to be achieved and a better contribution can be made to the liveability of the neighborhoods. In the most recent program, "Sportimpuls," the organizations have to make use of the available long list of good practices of sport and physical activity programs to be eligible for funding.

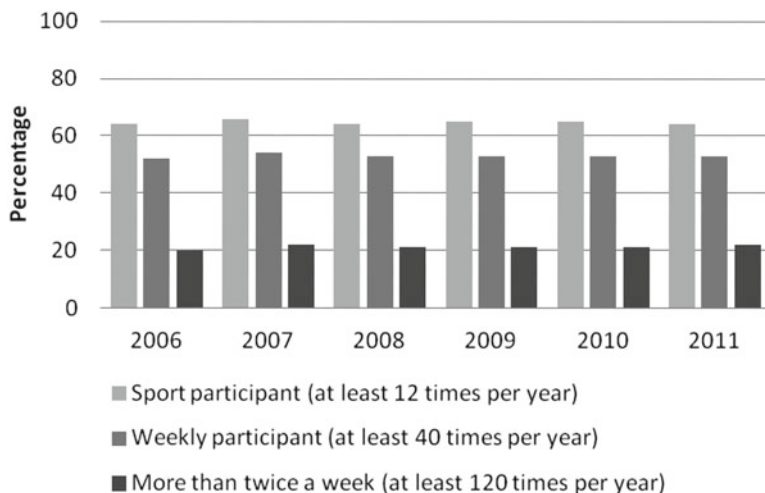
To achieve a safer sport environment, the government invests in a program that aims to encourage desired behavior of fair play and respect and bans any undesired behavior. This program is headed by NOC\*NSF. As such, NOC\*NSF acts as an important party for implementing government sport policies, as well as being a powerful organization with its own policy and funding for promoting both amateur and elite sport (and the support thereof).

In order to excel in sports, the government supports promising elite sport programs of sport federation by funding talent development, coach development, and the hosting of elite sport events. Choices as to which elite sport programs are most promising, and herewith eligible for funding, have traditionally been the territory of NOC\*NSF. However, where it used to be that NOC\*NSF merely advised the government on these matters, it is now the case that government transfers funds to NOC\*NSF and does not interfere with NOC\*NSF's policies. This system is also used for the elite sports for disabled.

## 10.5 Sport Participation

The most prominent target of sport policy on local and national level concerns the sport participation rate (Van der Werff and Hoekman 2011). In order to develop and evaluate policies that aim to increase sport participation rates, the government monitors the sport participation in the Netherlands and has a basic understanding of differences in sport participation as well as the development of sport participation rates over time. The Netherlands has different surveys that address aspects of sport participation. The large national survey "Injuries and Physical Activity in the Netherlands" (OBiN), with about 10,000 respondents each year, is currently the most used as it offers sport participation rates up to 2011. OBiN is a large-scale population survey that started in 2000 and that is geared to measure levels of physical activity, sport participation, and injury proneness among different social groups. From 2006 onward the OBiN survey became a mixed-mode survey by using the Internet as well as telephone interviewing. Sixty percent of the respondents aged 15–64 years were prompted to fill in the questionnaire via the Internet (online), while the remaining 40 % of the respondents were approached through Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI). A result of this change in methods is that sport participation rates are only comparable through time from 2006 onward.

The policy targets in the Netherlands on sport participation are based on a sport participation of at least 12 times in the last 12 months, excluding sport at school during classes. In the following the results of the sport participation surveys are presented, paying attention to the development of sport participation rates through



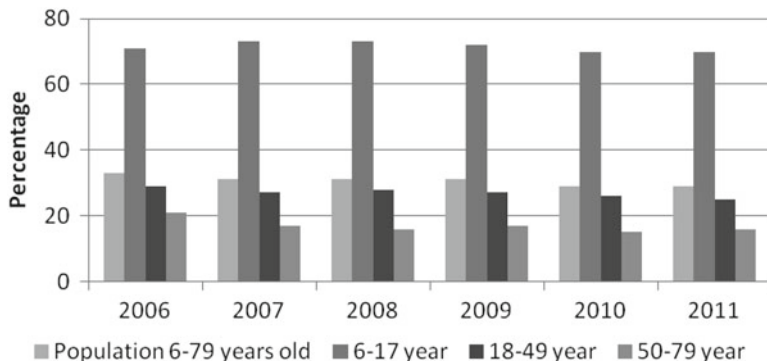
**Fig. 10.2** Trend line sport participation based on at least 12 times a year, at least 40 times a year, and at least 120 times a year, 2006–2011, population 6–79 years (in %) (Source: Injuries and Physical Activity In the Netherlands [OBiN] 2011a)

time, from 2006 through 2011, and differences in sport participation between social groups. In addition, attention is paid to aspects of sport participation such as the organizational context and the type of sport that is practiced.

The OBiN 2006–2011 survey showed that the sport participation in the Netherlands is quite stable through time. Sport participation fluctuated between 2006 and 2011 around 65 % of the Dutch population aged 6–79 years. Similar trends were observed by Tiessen-Raaphorst and Van den Dool (2012) for that period using another national dataset. Previous surveys, such as the Facility Use Survey (CBS 2007) in 2003 and 2007, showed at that time an increase in sport participation between 2003 and 2007 from 61 % to 65 % (Kamphuis and Van den Dool 2008). However, this upward trend from the past has leveled off in recent years.

Figure 10.2 shows that this stable trend was also visible for more frequent sport participation, for instance, once a week (40 times a year) or at least 120 times a year. In 2011, 53 % of the population practiced sport at least 40 times a year, compared to 52 % in 2006. A quite similar share of the populations practiced sport for at least 120 times a year throughout the years, varying between 20 % and 22 % from 2006 to 2011.

When focusing on sport participation of social groups, social differences in sport participation have always been clearly visible and, over the greater length of the past decades, have not diminished. Nevertheless, in recent years, the differences between low- and high-income groups and low- and high-education groups appear to become somewhat smaller. The monthly (at least 12 times) and weekly (at least 40 times) sport participation of lower-income and lower-education groups increased significantly. In 2006, 45 % of the lower educated participated in sports on a weekly basis, and in 2011 this share was increased to 49 %. With regard to the income groups, we noticed an increase in weekly sport participation from 39 % to 43 % and an increase in monthly sport participation from 49 % to 54 % for the group with a



**Fig. 10.3** Sport club participation by age, population 6–79 years old (2006–2011) (Source: OBiN 2011a)

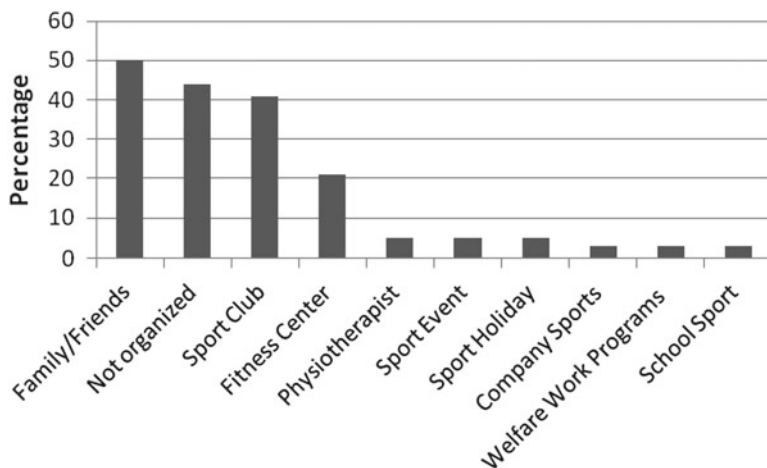
below modal income. On the other hand, the sport participation of higher-income groups and higher educated decreased between 2006 and 2011.

Sport participation still decreases by age. In 2011, the age group of 6–11 years participated most in sport; 88 % participated monthly. The age group of 65–79 years held the lowest sport participation rate; 49 % participated monthly. Nevertheless, the sport participation of 65–79 year olds increased considerably. In 2006, about a third of this age group participated monthly in sports; in 2011, this holds true for one out of two people within this age group. A decrease in monthly sport participation occurred in the age group of 18–24 year olds, from 77 % in 2006 to 70 % in 2011.

Sport participation can take place in different contexts: at a sport club, commercial sport provider, and self-organized together with friends or family, company sports, or alone. Membership statistics of NOC\*NSF as well as OBiN data shows that 29 % of the population is a member of a sport club. Herewith, the Netherlands have close to five million sport club members. This number has been quite stable for years now, which implies that with the growing number of sport participants in the population, the sport clubs have lost market share compared to a decade ago. The youth in the age of 6–17 years is more often a member of a sport club (70 % in 2011) than is the case for other age groups, especially compared to the oldest age groups. The membership rate of the population has been stable over the last years. Only in 2006 a higher membership rate was measured (Fig. 10.3).

A closer look at the sport participants and the settings where they are active shows that sport is mostly practiced with family and friends (50 %), alone (44 %), or within a sport club (41 %; see Fig. 10.4). Fitness centers are for one out of five sport participants the setting in which the sport practice takes place.

In the Netherlands fitness, swimming, walking, running, and cycling are the most popular sports and have been for the last years (Kamphuis and Van den Dool 2008). The popularity of types of sport differs between age groups. Soccer is more popular for the youth and young adults aged 18–24 years. Also dance and gymnastic are sports that are mainly practiced by children. Swimming is the only sport that appears in the top five of most popular sports for all age groups. Fitness is also popular in many age groups but is hardly practiced by 6–11 years old. Running is part of the



**Fig. 10.4** Setting and context of sport participation, 2011, sport participants 6–79 years old (Source: OBiN 2011a)

five most popular sports from age group 12–17 onward. However the popularity of this sport drops after the age of 50.

Based on urbanity of the area people, live differences can be seen in the practiced sports. In more urban areas, running and fitness are more popular than in rural areas. On the other hand, in rural areas, cycling, walking, and soccer are practiced more compared to urban areas.

The differences in the practiced sports between urban and rural environments are likely to be the result of the physical environment. The rural areas are more appealing to go cycling or walking, while the urban environment has more fitness centers. The higher popularity of soccer in rural areas could be explained by the less divers sport possibilities in these areas, whereas in urban areas people can choose from numerous sports, such as handball, netball, volleyball, baseball, athletics, and ice skating. The presence or absence of certain sport facilities or sport environments could lead to other decisions with regard to participating in sport – and which type of sport – or not. In the remainder of this chapter, attention is paid to the presence and role of sport facilities.

## 10.6 Sport Facilities in the Netherlands

About 85–90 % of the Dutch sport budget is dedicated to sport facilities (see Sect. 10.3) (Hoekman et al. 2011). This makes sport facilities an important, or perhaps the most important, aspect of sport policy. The main contribution of municipalities to sport participation lies in the fact that they facilitate sport to a large extent. Due to this facilitating role of the municipalities together with the presence of over 27,000 sport clubs in the Netherlands, there is a wide sport infrastructure. Based on

a large national dataset with over 12,000 sport facilities, it is shown that sport facilities are well spread in the Netherlands, with more facilities per 25,000 inhabitants in rural areas than in urban areas (Hoenderkamp and Hoekman 2013). Nevertheless, in rural areas the inhabitants do have to travel further to the sport facilities, although the facilities are still in these areas within a decent distance range. In urban areas, where less facilities per 25,000 inhabitants were found, the facilities appear to be bigger and more focused on an efficient use of space, among others, illustrated by the higher density of fields with artificial grass that have a higher capacity than fields with natural grass (Hoekman 2013).

This paragraph provides an overview of the use of sport facilities by sport participants and focuses on the value of additional sport facilities in enhancing sport participation.

### ***10.6.1 Facility Use***

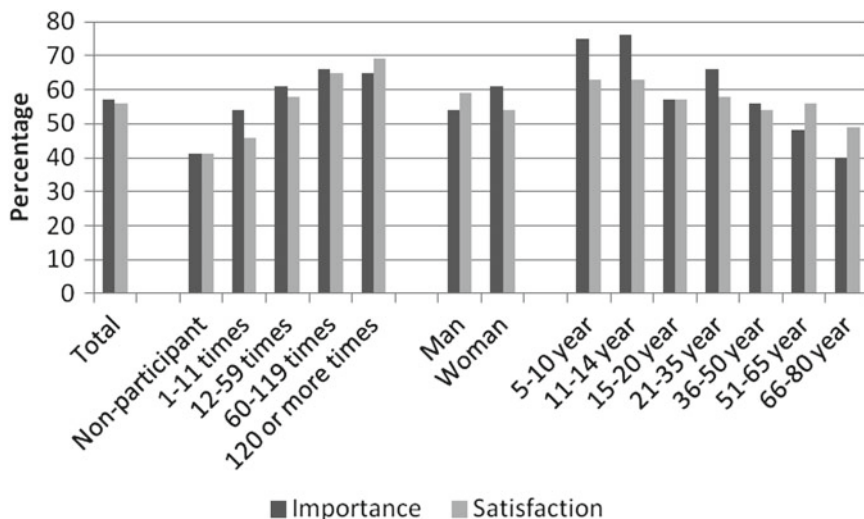
Based on OBiN 2006–2011 data, we have looked at the use of sport facilities by sport participants (at least 12 times). The outcomes show that the public road is mentioned most as used facility for sport participation. But also other informal facilities, with no primary sport function, such as forests and parks, are mentioned quite often as sport environments. The formal sport facilities, such as fitness centers, swimming pools, sport fields, and sport halls, are each used by about a quarter of the sport participants for their sport participation.

Gender differences are visible with regard to the use of sport facilities. A bigger share of the sportsmen than sportswomen uses sport fields (32 % and 14 %, respectively), the public road (42 % and 35 %, respectively), and a clubhouse or café (9 % and 4 %, respectively). Sportswomen on the other hand indicated more than sportsmen that they used swimming pools (27 % and 18 %, respectively) and fitness centers (27 % and 20 %, respectively). More sportsmen (read boys) use compared to sportswomen (read girls) playgrounds (8 % and 3 %, respectively) and school yards (5 % and 1 %, respectively).

Related to age, we see that the youth is more than adults using public facilities, such as sport fields and sport halls. The adult age groups are mostly using public space to participate in sport, such as public road and parks. This, of course, relates to the sport preferences for these age groups. Young people mainly practice sport within a sport club context, such as soccer, tennis, or hockey. Young adults go to the fitness centers, while older adults enjoy walking and cycling, mainly taking place on the public road or in parks or forests.

### ***10.6.2 Opportunities to Participate in Sport***

From the previous it is apparent that sport is practiced in a variety of places and spaces. The question is however if the availability of sport infrastructure



**Fig. 10.5** Importance of and satisfaction on opportunities to be physically active and to participate in sport by sport frequency, gender, and age, 2011, population 5–80 years old (in %) (Source: Nationaal Sport Onderzoek 2011b)

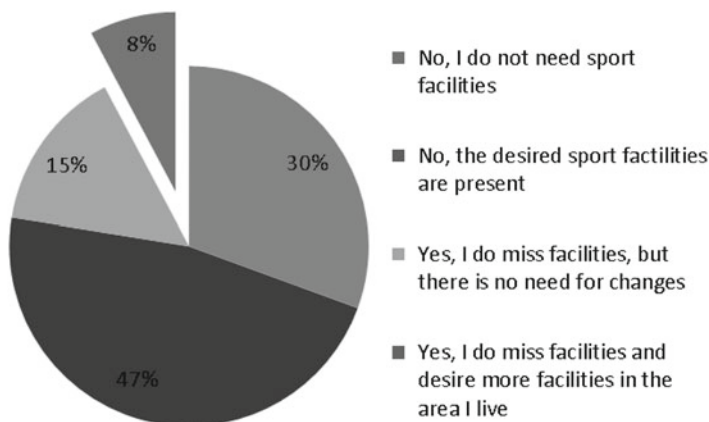
complements to the demand of the (potential) sport participants. Based on the data (age 5–80 years, n=4,151) from the Nationaal Sport Onderzoek (2011b), we looked at the perceived importance of and satisfaction on sport and exercise opportunities in the area people live. Furthermore we analyzed to what extent a lack of sport facilities hinders sport participation.

The importance of having the opportunity to participate in sport in the area people live is underlined by half of the respondents. People that participate in sport find sport opportunities in the area they live more important than people that do not participate in sport. Women find sport opportunities in the area they live more important than men and are less satisfied with the provided opportunities compared to men. The fact that sport participants are more outspoken satisfied with the provided opportunities to participate in sport is mainly due to the big share of non-participants that have answered “no opinion” (Fig. 10.5).

On the question whether sport facilities are missed, a third of the population answers that they have no need for any sport facility (e.g., no interest in participating in sport whatsoever). A fourth of the population indicates that they do miss a certain sport facility in the area they live. Although, only 8 % of the population stresses that they desire that a sport facility added to the current sport opportunities in the area they live. This desire for additional sport facilities is mainly found in the group of sport participants.

To obtain a better insight in the influence of the availability of sport infrastructure on sport participation, we have further questioned the people that expressed that they missed sport facilities in the area they live, focusing on the influence of this on their decision to participate in sport or on the frequency of sport participation.





**Fig. 10.6** Perceived lack of sport facilities and desire for additional sport facilities in the area people live, 2011, population 5–80 years old (in %) (Source: Nationaal Sport Onderzoek 2011b)

Looking closer at the group that misses a certain sport facility, the results show that 19 % of this group expressed that missing a sport facility is one of the reasons to not participate in sport or to participate less in sport. Within the group that misses a sport facility, a larger share of the nonparticipants and 21–35 year olds indicated that this was a reason to not participate in sport or participate less in sport (respectively, 24 % and 28 %, not in figure). For the nonparticipants it concerns a very small group, because only a small share of this group indicated that they missed a sport facility in the area they live. However, it does indicate that there is somewhat to gain in sport participation if sport opportunities are provided in the proximity of these nonparticipants (Fig. 10.6).

The sport facility that is missed most is a swimming pool. One out of five respondents that miss a certain sport facility indicated that they miss a swimming pool in the area they live (not in table). Most provided argument appeared to be the currently large travel distance to the nearest swimming pool that withholds them from going to a swimming pool. Fitness centers are second on the list (14 %) followed by dancing schools (5 %) and playgrounds for youth (5 %). Noteworthy is that 5 % expressed the need for affordable sport opportunities and a similar share the need for specific courses or programs and sport facilities for disabled.

## 10.7 Discussion and Conclusion

The results show that the Netherlands is characterized by a strong sport club system and a good sport infrastructure. This is underlined by research on a European level that has shown that the citizens of the Netherlands are most satisfied with their opportunities to participate in sport or be physically active in the area they live (NL 95 %, EU average 75 %) (European Commission 2010).

Municipalities are, apart from the consumers, the main investors and facilitators of sport in the Netherlands. Municipalities provide numerous sport facilities against reduced fees, below the actual costs for maintaining a sport facility. The focus on sport facilities and the well-established sport infrastructure has most probably contributed to the high levels of sport participation and physical activity in the Netherlands. Together with the Nordic countries, the Netherlands had the most physically active citizens in the European Union (European Commission 2010). Yet, several studies have indicated that the social-economical profile of the country remains the most powerful source of variance in sport participation between the European member states.

Currently the sport participation in the Netherlands, based on participation at least once a month, is around 65 % and has been stable for the past 5 years. The lack of an increase in sport participation rates gives little hope for achieving the set target of 75 % in 2016. However, there are some positive points to address. Recently, the social differences in sport participation seem to diminish a bit. Furthermore, older age groups display a huge increase in sport participation, which is hopeful for the years to come.

Looking closer at the most practiced sports, it seems that individual and health-related sports, such as fitness, swimming, walking, running, and cycling, are the most popular in the Netherlands. It is also these types of sport that are the most popular at the older age groups, making these types of sport most likely, with the expected graying of society and further increase in sport participation in older age groups, also the most popular sports in the coming years. As a result of the popularity of the aforementioned sports, the public road is most mentioned as used facility for sport participation, and also many sport participants use forest and parks. The most used more formal sport facilities are sport fields, fitness centers, sport halls, and swimming pools. The youth is more active within sport clubs and therefore makes more use of the more formal sport facilities (sport fields, sport halls, gymnastic facilities) that are provided by the municipalities, while the older age groups are more likely to use public space for sport participation (public road, parks, and forests).

In order to increase the sport participation rates toward 75 % in 2016, the Dutch government has issued several policy programs. In the recent sport policy letter of the Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sports, the emphasis is on providing a range of sport possibilities in the area people live that is attuned to the desires of every individual. Given the good sport infrastructure in the Netherlands, it is questionable whether – except perhaps for some older inner city areas – additional sport facilities do sort effect in increasing sport participation rates. Particularly because groups that lack behind in sport participation show different facility use patterns: more use of public space and informal facilities. Herewith facilities on itself will most probably have little effect on sport participation, as is also shown by the analysis in this chapter. The sport organizations and sport providers should make the difference and are at play to include more people in sports. The government acknowledges this as well, bringing sport clubs more and more in the picture as a policy partner for municipalities. Municipalities persuade sport clubs to fulfill a wider role within the community in exchange for the reduced fees that sport clubs pay to use the municipal sport facilities. As municipalities are well aware of the fact that hardware, software, and orgware are important in increasing sport participation – there need to be

facilities to be active in (hardware), activities that are organized (software), and good organizations, such as sport clubs, that arrange these activities and try to get, and keep, people engaged. This is also envisioned with the recent policy program “Sport impulse” of the Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sport, where the focus is on offering new proven effective activities to target groups in cooperation with local partners using existing facilities. Making better use of what is present, a promising approach is given the good sport infrastructure in the Netherlands. And in times of financial hardship, it is definitely the most viable approach.

## References

- Beckers, T. A., & Serais, S. (1991). *Nieuwe verhoudingen in de sport: de toekomst van het nationaal sportbeleid in het licht van maatschappelijke ontwikkelingen*. Katholieke Universiteit Brabant: Vakgroep Vrijetijdswetenschappen; IVA. Instituut voor sociaal-wetenschappelijk onderzoek.
- van Bottenburg, M. (1999). *Van Pro tot Prof. 50 jaar lokaal sport en recreatiebeleid*. Dordrecht: LC.
- Breedveld, K., Van der Poel, H., De Jong, M., & Collard, D. (2011). *Beleidsdoorlichting Sport: hoofdrapport*. Utrecht: W.J.H. Mulier Instituut: 's-Hertogenbosch.
- Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS). (2007). *Facility Use Survey (AVO)*. [http://www.scp.nl/Onderzoek/Bronnen/Beknopte\\_onderzoeksbeschrijvingen/Aanvullend\\_voorzieningengebruikonderzoek\\_AVO](http://www.scp.nl/Onderzoek/Bronnen/Beknopte_onderzoeksbeschrijvingen/Aanvullend_voorzieningengebruikonderzoek_AVO). Accessed 24 June 2013.
- European Commission. (2010). *Sport and physical activity. Special Eurobarometer 334/wave 72.3*. Brussels.
- Hoekman, R. (2013). Slotbeschouwing. In *Sportaccommodaties in beeld* (pp. 173–185). Nieuwegein, Utrecht: Arko Sports Media/Mulier Instituut.
- Hoekman, R., Collard, D., & Cevaal, A. (2011). *Sportinfrastructuur in Nederland. Quickscan sportaccommodaties en sportorganisaties*. 's-Hertogenbosch: W.J.H. Mulier Instituut.
- Hoekman, R., & Van der Poel, H. (2009). Sport: Speelbal voor de ruimtelijke ordening. *Rooilijn; Tijdschrift voor wetenschap en beleid in de ruimtelijke ordening*, 42(2), 458–465.
- Hoenderkamp, K., & Hoekman, R. (2013). Spreiding sportaccommodaties. In *Sportaccommodaties in beeld* (pp. 53–71). Nieuwegein/Utrecht: Arko Sports Media/Mulier Instituut.
- Kamphuis, C., & Van den Dool, R. (2008). Sportdeelname. In K. Breedveld, C. Kamphuis, & A. Tiessen-Raaphorst (Eds.), *Rapportage sport 2008* (pp. 74–101). Den Haag: Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau (SCP), W.J.H. Mulier Instituut.
- Mulier Institute. (2011a). *Injuries and Physical Activity in the Netherlands (OBiN)*. <http://www.veiligheid.nl/onderzoek/ongevallen-en-bewegen-in-nederland-obiin>. Accessed 24 June 2013.
- Mulier Institute. (2011b). *Nationaal Sport Onderzoek*. <http://www.mulierinstituut.nl/projecten/monitoringprojecten/sportersmonitor-nationaal-sportonderzoek.html>. Accessed 24 June 2013.
- Policy Research Corporation. (2008). *De economische betekenis van sport in Nederland*. Rotterdam: PRC.
- Pouw, D. (1999). *50 jaar nationaal sportbeleid: Van vorming buiten schoolverband tot breedtesport* (Dutch ed.). Tilburg: Tilburg University Press.
- Tiessen-Raaphorst, A., & Van den Dool, R. (2012). *Factsheet: Ontwikkeling van sportparticipatie, verenigingslidmaatschap en vrijwilligerswerk in de sport na 2007*. Den Haag: Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau.
- Van der Meulen, J., Boskamp, J., Daems, E., Goossens, R., Oostrom, C., & Van den Tillaart, J. (2012). *De bijdrage van sport aan de Nederlandse economie*. Den Haag: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek.
- Van der Werff, H., & Hoekman, R. (2011). *Integraal, interactief en SMART. Een inventarisatie van lokaal sport- en beweegbeleid*. 's-Hertogenbosch: W.J.H. Mulier Instituut.
- Vos, J. (1998). *Recreatie in Rotterdam (Tussen burger en bestuur)*. Amsterdam: Boom.

# Chapter 11

## Poland

Jolanta Żyśko

### 11.1 Introduction

Similar to other areas of social life, sport in Poland is undergoing systemic transformation. The changes affecting sport during the transformation period are complex in nature, just as in any other area. The path of necessary change in sport does not lead directly from centralized government to a decentralized democracy of a system of self-governments. According to (Doktór 1996), as far as sport is concerned, this process takes place significantly longer and is more complex than in other areas of social life. At the same time, as (Krawczyk 1995) emphasizes, in many post-communistic countries undergoing systemic transformation, the process is more rapid and lively and involves very intricate mechanisms of change.

### 11.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

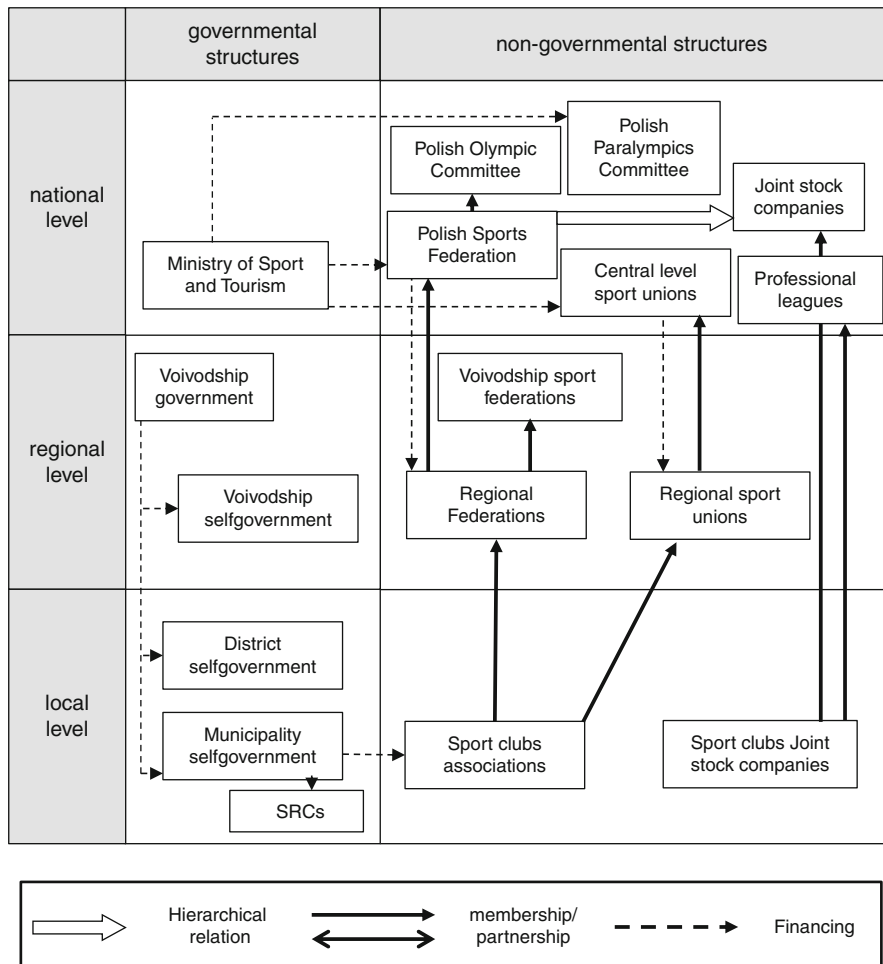
The organizational system of sport in Poland can still be classified as centralized and interventionist (Żyśko 2008). The structure of sport is based on the so-called state-society model. Two sectors coexist and cooperate within the model: the governmental structures and the nongovernmental structures, as shown in Fig. 11.1. The latter can be divided into the commercial sector and the nonprofit sector.

The sector of governmental organizations that are involved in sport is mainly composed of public authorities, public administration bodies, and their subordinate units such as centers of sport and recreation.

---

J. Żyśko (✉)

School of Tourism and Hospitality Management in Warsaw, JózefPiłsudski University of Physical Education in Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland  
e-mail: j.zysko@vistula.edu.pl



**Fig. 11.1** The organization of sport in Poland

The Act of September 4, 1997, on the Fields of Government Administration ([Journal of Laws No. 141](#), item 943, as amended) names two separate fields: (i) physical culture operating according to rules provided in particular by the Act of June 25, 2010, on Sport ([Journal of Laws No. 127](#), item 857, as amended) and (ii) tourism operating according to rules provided in particular by the Act of August 29, 1997, on Tourist Services ([Journal of Laws of 2004, No. 223](#), item 2268, as amended). Since 2007, the primary organ of government administration responsible for the two fields is the Minister of Sports and Tourism, aided by the Ministry of Sports and Tourism established in 2005 as the Ministry of Sport.

The Ministry was established per the Act on Qualified Sport due to the detachment of organizational units dealing with the fields of physical culture and sport

from the Ministry of National Education and Sport and due to the disbanding of the Polish Sport Confederation. The Ministry was created primarily to provide a single decision-making center that would supervise the entire competitive sport (including professional sport). It was tasked with leading Polish sport out of crisis and stimulating its optimal development. Beginning on July 23, 2007, the Minister's portfolio also included the field of tourism, previously supervised by the Ministry of Economy.

Two bodies coexist on the voivodeship<sup>1</sup> (regional) level within the structure of units of the public sector: the national body (i.e., the voivode) and the voivodeship self-government (i.e., the Marshal's Office).

The roles played by voivodeship offices and voivodes have decreased significantly of late. In many voivodeships, departments responsible for sport have even been disbanded or severely limited, and their authority has been transferred to lower levels, that is, to the levels of the district and the municipality. Moreover, the authority has also been assumed by voivodeship-level self-governmental structures, that is, voivodeship self-governments whose bodies are the Regional Council, the Voivodeship Management Board, and specially appointed sport boards.

The main aim of these boards is to conduct training of voivodeship staff in each age group, prepare voivodeship representatives for participation in the national system of sport competition of children and youth, activate and motivate citizens to take up sport in different environments, and promote physical culture by supporting tasks related to sport on the highest national and international levels. In addition, sport events are organized thanks to donations from voivodeship self-governments. Furthermore, as per the Internal Regulation of the Minister of Sport and Tourism of August 23, 2010, on Financing Tasks from the Physical Culture Development Fund (Ministerstwo Sportu [MS] 2010), voivodeship self-governments are required to create programs for the development of their sport base.

Environmental programs – school, university, rural, people with disabilities, or general-population sport – play an important role at this level as well. These initiatives are carried out and cofinanced by voivodeship self-governments in strict cooperation with NGOs that deal with the area of physical culture and sport.

Units of local self-governments carry out all tasks related to physical culture as their own tasks. Municipalities, districts, and voivodeships are thus required to cooperate with governmental administrative bodies and other units of local self-government. Such cooperation is especially important when creating legal, organizational, and economic conditions for the development of physical culture. In addition, municipalities, in cooperation with governmental administrative bodies, sport clubs, and physical culture associations and unions, are obliged to organize their operation in the area of recreation and to create appropriate financial and technical conditions for the development of recreation. The main reason for the cooperation of self-governments with other partners is that the number of duties related to physical culture and sport that have been assigned to units of local self-government.

---

<sup>1</sup> Voivodeship is a level on administrative division administered by voivod. It is comparable to regional level. Since 1999, Poland has been divided into 16 voivodeships or regions.

The district carries out local public tasks that are not handled by municipalities (i.e., above municipality-level tasks). Districts also do not have supervisory authority over municipalities.

Municipality self-government carries out public tasks that aim to satisfy the needs of the self-government community. These tasks are carried out as own tasks (per Article 166 of the Constitution). The municipality self-government also carries out tasks commissioned by the state, as needed. Units of local self-government are provided a share of public income proportional to their respective tasks. This income is composed of the units' and subsidies' own income as well as earmarked funds from the national budget.

Each municipality is obliged to satisfy the collective needs of its citizens, including needs related to the popularization of physical culture and sport.

The Act on Sport allows sport boards to operate within units of local self-government whose members perform their social functions. The aims of these boards are primarily to provide opinion on (i) development strategies of municipalities, districts, and voivodeships in terms of physical culture; (ii) plans for the budget for physical culture; and (iii) development programs for the local sport base, particularly local land use plans related to areas used for the purposes of physical culture.

Sport and Recreation Centers (SRCs) operate on the basic level within the sector of public finances; most often, these are budget units or budget facilities. SRCs promote physical culture, sport, and recreation among the citizens of a given town. They also manage sport facilities and organize sport competitions on the local level. SRCs are financed by local self-governments from the budget of the town or the municipality.

In the sector of the nongovernmental organizations, there is no single central organization that would consolidate actions related to sports or the Olympics.

The primary national-level organization that deals with the Olympics is the Polish Olympic Committee (POC). It is a union of associations that includes Polish sport associations and other legal entities, organizational units with no legal standing, and individuals dealing with the promotion of Olympics and the development of Polish sport. The main aim of the POC is to ensure participation of the nation's representation in the Olympics, promote Olympic priorities, and represent Polish sport in the international Olympic bodies and before other national Olympic committees. The POC is a nongovernmental organization that establishes and carries out the Olympics' objectives on its own.

To ensure the participation of Poland's handicapped athletes in the Paralympics, the Polish Paralympics Committee was formed.

There is no central federation-type organization in Poland that would consolidate Polish sport associations. However, two types of sport unions can be named that deal with competitive sports: sport unions and Polish sport associations.

Central-level sport unions were previously referred to as sport affiliations. Usually, they deal with many disciplines and they are connected to specific environments. Examples of such sport unions are the Academic Sport Association (a university student club), the National Association of Folk Sport Teams (rural sport), the School Sport Union (sport in schools), "The Guard" Polish Sport Federation (sport

in the police), the Military Sport Federation (sport in the army), the Society for the Promotion of Physical Culture (recreation), the National Federation of Sport for All (recreation), the “START” Polish Sports Association for the Disabled, and the Polish Tourism and Sightseeing Society (tourism).<sup>2</sup> The aforementioned unions of associations are a remainder of the structure of Polish sport that functioned in the 1960s and 1970s. At that time, every sport club had to belong to an affiliation. Currently, sport clubs have legal standing and may operate independently from their affiliations. The role of unions of associations has been redefined: today, they support the development of sport in given environments. Furthermore, new organizations and unions of associations have been created that complement the current list of sport affiliations. These include organizations within belief communities, such as the Salesian Sport Organization, the Lutheran Sport Organization, the Catholic Sport Association of the Republic of Poland, and the Lutheran Sport Society, as well as the increasingly numerous handicapped sport organizations that function alongside the “START” Polish Sports Association for the Disabled, such as the National Association of Special Olympics Poland, the Polish Federation of Sport of Deaf Persons, the “CROSS” Association of Physical Culture, Sport and Tourism of Blind and Hard-of-Sight Persons, and the SSON Disabled Persons Association.

The main objectives of these sport unions are provided by their charters and regulations; most often, these objectives are to (i) conduct activities in the area of sport and physical recreation, (ii) organize sport competitions and sport and recreational events, and (iii) popularize and teach about physical culture.

Polish sport associations operate in Olympic or non-Olympic disciplines. Currently, there are 69 active Polish sport associations in the country. This number is not stable and changes over the years.

Polish sport associations are given a unique monopoly, being exclusively entitled to (i) organize and conduct sport competitions for the title of Champion of Poland and for the Polish Cup in a given discipline; (ii) develop and carry out sport, organizational, and disciplinary rules in sport competitions organized by the association; (iii) select the national representatives and prepare them for the Olympics, the Paralympics, the Deaf Championships, or the European Championships; and (iv) represent a given discipline in international sport organizations.

Polish sport associations are not as autonomous as sport federations in other countries. As per Article 7 of the Act on Sport of June 25, 2010 ([Journal of Laws No. 127](#), item 857, as amended), “establishment of a Polish sport association requires the consent of the Minister responsible for matters of physical culture.” The Act not only limits the autonomy of Polish sport associations in terms of their establishment and authorization of their charters but also in terms of the supervision of their daily activity. Supervision over the activity of Polish sport associations is the remit of the Minister responsible for matters of physical culture. The only decisions

---

<sup>2</sup> With the exception of the Polish Federation of Youth Sport, the main aim of which is to develop children’s and youth sport across the country and to coordinate the actions of all member associations and organizations.



not supervised by the Minister are the disciplinary and regulatory decisions of the management of Polish sport associations connected with organizing and conducting sports competitions.

Professional leagues operate on the national level of Polish professional sport. These leagues are nongovernmental organizations, but are entirely different in nature to associations of the nonprofit sector, that is, volunteer organizations in the form of national associations and sport unions. Professional leagues deal with sport disciplines in which competitions take place in the form of league matches and where over half of participating sport clubs are joint-stock companies. The professional league is managed independently of a Polish sport association by a legal entity in the form of a limited company, either a limited liability company or a joint-stock company.

As per the Act on Sport (2010), the rules of operation of a professional league are laid down in an agreement between a Polish sport association and the company that manages the league. The agreement should in particular guarantee the implementation of the laws of a Polish sport association as listed above and indicate the sport union's share of the income earned from managing the professional league. Such an agreement is also reached after acquiring the consent of the Minister responsible for matters of physical culture. The Minister is entitled to reject the agreement if it is found to be inconsistent with the law. Currently, there are four active professional leagues in Poland: basketball, soccer, volleyball, and motorcycle speedway.

Within the structure of NGOs, many sport unions have their own intermediate structures on the regional level. Polish sport associations and multidisciplinary unions both have structures on the voivodeship level.

There are also 16 voivodeship multidisciplinary associations of sport unions (also called voivodeship sport federations). Voivodeship interdisciplinary associations are a remnant of the structure of Polish sport in the 1970s. In the past, these organizations had their counterparts in the form of eight macro-regional unions of associations of physical culture, as well as a structure on the national level, that is, the Polish Sport Federation, which operated between 1974 and 1977. Today, the aim of these organizations is to create conditions for the development of children and youth sport in addition to physical education classes at school (termed "outside-school" sport).

The basic unit carrying out the aims and tasks related to sport is the sport club. Traditionally, most sport clubs in Polish functioned legally as associations, that is, units of the nonprofit sector. Today, a sport club can operate as a legal entity, meaning it can be an association, a limited company (either a limited liability company or a joint-stock company), or a foundation. A particular type of a sport club is the school sport club, which also functions legally as an association but differs from other associations in the way it is registered, which is by the head of the local district board. The members of a school sport club include school children, their parents, and teachers.

Currently, there are almost 7,000 active sport clubs belonging to the aforementioned sport affiliations (the Academic Sport Association, the Folk Sport Teams, the Society for the Promotion of Physical Culture, and START) and nearly as many (about 6,500) school sport clubs and belief community clubs. Moreover, at the basic

level within the structure of general-population sport, there is an almost comparable number of private entities that offer commercial services related to sport and recreation in various organizational and legal forms; however, most often these take the form of a sole proprietorship under the Freedom of Economic Activity Act ([Journal of Laws No. 173](#), item 1807).

### 11.3 Financing Sport

The current model of financing of sport has been in force for more than 50 years and assumes that the main source of money for sport is the public sector. It is difficult to estimate the amount of spending on sport from the national budget because the money comes simultaneously from multiple governmental departments. Under the Act on Sport, the Minister of Sport and Tourism may finance the participation, organization, and promotion of sport. The Minister of National Education and the Minister of Science and Higher Education may support, through financial means as well, the development of sport in the school and academic environments, respectively. The Minister of National Defense and the Minister of the Interior may support, also through financial means, the development of sport in organizational units subordinate to or supervised by these Ministers.

The Minister responsible for the matters of physical culture may also grant a member of the national representation a recurring scholarship for achievements in international sport competitions. Due to the unsatisfactory results during the last two Olympic Games, the current Minister of Sport and Tourism issued an order in December 2012 on “the Financing Programme for Tasks related to Preparing the National Representation for Participation in the Olympic Games, the Paralympic Games, the Deaf Olympics, the World Championships, and the European Championships in Olympic or non-Olympic sports in 2013,” which considerably changes the approach to financing of Polish sport, particularly tasks carried out by Polish sport associations. The reform will increase the participation of Polish sport associations in the financing of their training-related tasks as well as increase their responsibility. The performance of sport unions will also be rated based on very particular commissioned tasks.

The structure of public spending is, however, fairly decentralized and indicates the significant participation of units of local self-government in the financing of sport. Only about one-third of the total budget comes from the national budget and from surcharges on stakes in games of chance, which are a state monopoly ([MS 2007](#)). The Totalizator Sportowy lottery plays a key role in financing Polish sport by performing the legal duty of transferring financial resources for the development of children and youth sport and for the construction of sports facilities. Funding for sport investment primarily comes from the Development of Physical Culture Fund (DPCF). The distribution of funds from the DPCF is disorganized and does not take into account the total life cycle of the financed projects. The current financial structure of projects is very efficient. The number of sources of funding and resources for

sport-related aims is fairly high, which allows more valuable projects to be financed in a smaller amount of time, but also makes it necessary to supervise funds allocated for sport and to maximize spending effectiveness, especially the effectiveness of financing the construction of sports infrastructure. This is achievable through making funds available under commercial funding (private capital), as opposed to public funding, in which the assessment, management, and allocation of risk are the same as in private projects or in public and private partnerships. Such an approach is unfortunately still lacking in Polish sport.

Public spending on sport mainly comes from the budgets of local self-governments at all levels. It currently amounts to approximately 1–1.5 % of these budgets. The Sport Development Strategy sets the target share at 2.5–3 % (MS 2007). This is going to be achieved through a policy of motivating local self-governments to work on field programs of sport development and to support regional initiatives under the “popularization of sport for all” and “development of sport and recreational infrastructure” priorities.

The former aim can be achieved by supporting basic organizational units operating within Polish sport. A sport club that is active in the area of a given unit of local self-government and is not profit-based is entitled to an earmarked donation from the budget of the unit, as per the rules provided by the Act of August 27, 2009 ([Journal of Laws No. 157](#), item 1240, as amended), related to giving earmarked donations for entities outside the sector of public finances that are not profit-based. Such a donation is to benefit the realization of a public aim and may be spent in particular on (i) carrying out sport training programs, (ii) purchasing sports equipment, (iii) covering the costs of organizing sport competitions or of participating in them, (iv) covering the costs of using sport facilities for the purpose of sport training, and (v) financing sport scholarships and acknowledging trainers of a sport club, if it helps improve conditions for its members to participate in sport or increase the accessibility of the club’s sport activity to the local community.

Units of self-governments can also set and fund recurring sports scholarships, awards, and distinctions granted to individuals for their performance in sport and to trainers in charge of training athletes who perform well in international sport competitions or in national sport competition, granted by units of local self-government and funded from the budget of these units, taking into account the importance of a given discipline for the unit and the sport accomplishments.

In January 2013, the Minister of Sport and Tourism introduced very important changes to the financing of Polish sport, with an Internal Regulation of the Minister of Sport and Tourism of December 11, 2012, on implementing program of financing the preparation of the national team to the mega sports events (MS 2012). These changes were motivated by an unsatisfactory performance of the Polish representation at the Olympic Games in Athens, Beijing, and London. During the Olympic Games in London, Poland scored the worst among countries whose representation comprised over 200 athletes. Historically, funding was not allocated in a way that would promote dynamically developing sport disciplines. A sum of PLN 170 million per year was given to 37 Polish Olympic sport associations and 34 non-Olympic unions. Generous funding available for numerous sport unions meant that they did

not have to actively seek to obtain funds. This resulted in a passive approach and a lack of concrete strategies for the development of a given discipline. The lack of strategic management is the worst issue of Polish sport not only in terms of financing but also in terms of managing sport in general as an area of social life, both in the macro- and microscale, that is, in sport clubs as basic organizational units.

The reform introduced at the beginning of this year will hopefully change the situation. The crucial element of the reform was the division of sport disciplines into groups. Individual sports were divided into strategic sports (the gold group), important sports (the silver group), fairly important sports (the bronze group), and minimally important sports. Crucial for Polish sport are the strategic disciplines, that is, those that have the greatest potential for development and promotion of Poland in international competitions. To be included in the group, the following were required: historic accomplishment, medals won in the last 3 or 4 Olympic cycles, a good organizational foundation, and promising athletes, both senior and junior. Nine disciplines have been included in the gold group. Corresponding sport unions will receive the same amount of funding as in the previous year, except for athletics, canoeing, and rowing, which will receive 10 % less funding, as they have not met the targets set out for them before the Olympics in London.

Team sports were divided into two groups. The better group includes disciplines which “are going to be generously financed” by the Ministry, that is, basketball, handball, volleyball, and football. On the other hand, group II, which includes field hockey, ice hockey, and rugby, will receive decreased funding for seniors, while “interesting projects for youth training” will be supported. Only rugby sevens, which is the Olympic rugby, will be financed.

## 11.4 Sport Policy

State policy concerning sport, together with the structure of Polish sport, has undergone constant change in recent years. The participation of the state in managing Polish sport makes law one of the tools employed by the government.

The Polish constitution does not contain regulations governing sport activity. However, it includes a whole set of Act-level stipulations concerning sport activity. Of these, the most important ones are the Act on Physical Culture of 1996 ([Journal of Laws No. 25](#), item 113), the Act on Qualified Sport of 2005 ([Journal of Laws No. 155](#), item 1298), the Act on Associations of 1989 ([Journal of Laws No. 20](#), item 104), and the Act on Mass Events Security of 1997 ([Journal of Laws No. 106](#), item 680). The legal system of sport in Poland is decidedly interventionist in character and is similar to the system in France. State interventionism on the part of governmental structures manifests itself, for example, by the need to be granted the consent of the Ministry of Sport for establishing a Polish sport association and to authorize its charter, by state supervision of Polish sport associations, and by sports clubs that do not legally operate as joint-stock companies having to be granted consent for participation in a professional league.

The detailed state policy regarding sport is provided by the Act of the Republic of Poland of January 21, 2005, on the development of sport in Poland ([Official Gazette of the Republic of Poland No. 6](#), item 75) and by the Strategy of Sport Development until 2012 ([2004c](#)), replaced in 2007 with the Strategy of Sport Development until 2015 ([2007](#)). These documents emphasize that “The aims a country wishes to accomplish though sport require particular tasks that need to be carried out not only by sport clubs and associations, but also by a separate structure of government administration.”

The primary strategic objective provided in the Strategy is “an active and fit society” ([2007](#)). This objective is realized through three priorities: (i) popularization of sport for all, that is, improving physical fitness of children and youth and physical fitness of the society; (ii) improvement of sport accomplishments, carried out by improving performance in qualified sports, by professional training and improvement for the purposes of sport, and by the development of science and medicine in sport; and (iii) development of sport and recreational infrastructure, that is, increasing awareness of “fact-based sport management,” increasing the role of sport in the national economy and development of sport infrastructure.

The majority of strategic objectives and tasks described above are currently being carried out. However, development of sport and recreational infrastructure has in the recent years been a priority, defined in an exposé by Prime Minister Donald Tusk in 2007 as a priority within the government’s activity concerning sport. An analysis of sport infrastructure conducted in the recent years found considerable negligence in terms of sport. Particularly problematic was a lack of a clear concept of sport infrastructure development in Poland and a lack of modern sport centers. Because Poland and Ukraine were granted the right to organize the Euro 2012 and to promote this international event, the government decided to carry out the “My Football Pitch–Orlik 2012” program that involved constructing new multifunctional pitches in each Polish municipality and modernizing existing sport facilities with financial support on the part of the government ([Republic of Poland 2008](#)). Between 2008 and 2012, the result was the creation of 2,272 facilities.

“My Football Pitch–Orlik 2012” is a nationwide program aimed at creating a common, equal access to sport activities and sport infrastructure. The program should contribute to the development of new, healthy habits in young people; to shaping their character; and to positive approaches emerging within local communities as well. Research conducted by the “2012 Social Project” proves that the “My Football Pitch–Orlik 2012” program “has initiated real, positive changes in local communities ([2008](#)). However, we must allow time for the recently initiated changes to fully develop. Much depends on careful strategic actions on the part of the programme’s main initiators, that is, the Ministry of Sport and Tourism and local self-governments. Strategic thinking means that both the staff of local units of self-governments and the initiators themselves will have a thorough knowledge on the strengths and limitations of the new infrastructure and at the same time will develop concrete, pragmatic ideas for the best ways of employing one’s potential that will result in precise objectives and strategies.”

## 11.5 Sport Participation

Research on physical fitness of the whole society in Poland has been conducted fairly rarely. Even though such research has become a priority within state policy, the monitoring of physical fitness is still insufficient. Among the few studies conducted on the subject, there are the study done by Charzewski (1997), by the Central Statistical Office (Główny Urząd Statystyczny, GUS) (1999), reports of the Public Opinion Research Centre, and the WOBASZ (Multi-environment National Research of Public Health) Programme, conducted jointly by six centers in Poland (2004). However, it needs to be underlined that these studies were conducted using different methodologies and were not based on international standardized research tools, which would enable a comparison of results on a broader scale, either on a European or even world scale. The insufficient number of comparable studies on participation in sport and recreation and on physical activity of the Polish society is partially alleviated by research done by Piątkowska (2010, 2012) that compared physical activity of Poles and Europeans (Eurobarometer 2003) and by the findings of Eurobarometer (2010).

According to Eurobarometer (2010), 40 % of EU citizens engage in sport at least once per week (9 % engage 5 times per week and 31 % engage 3–4 or 1–2 times per week). Of this group, 9 % declare that they engage in sport 5 days per week or more. In Poland, the share of persons engaging in sport “regularly” or “with some regularity” is much lower than the European average, amounting to 25 % (6 % and 19 %, respectively).

Only 12.2 % of Poles and 14.9 % of Europeans declared that they were very active during sport and recreational sessions. According to a study done by GUS (2009), Polish people largely prefer to organize sport and recreation sessions on their own. They organize such sessions either alone or among their relatives or friends. Polish people relatively rarely take advantage of the offer of sport clubs or private organizers of sport and recreation sessions. Poles most often declare noninstitutional and outdoor (43 %) forms of physical activity. Only 3 % of Poles visit fitness clubs (compared to 11 % of Europeans) and 5 % train at sport clubs.

According to the data (shown in the Table 11.1) from research made by GUS (2009), cycling is the most popular form of recreational physical activity, as declared by 54.8 % of all physically active Poles. Among children aged 10–14 years, as many as 65.1 % of Poles declare competitive or recreational cycling. The popularity of the bicycle decreases with age, but still 39.9 % of Poles aged 60 years or older declare cycling as their form of active recreation. The second most popular form of physical recreation is swimming, as declared by 37.2 % of respondents. Persons aged 20–29 years and 30–39 years are the most avid swimmers (48.2 % and 47.5 %, respectively). The third most popular discipline is walking of all types. Engagement in this discipline was declared by 28.2 % of respondents. The share of persons engaging in recreational walking increases with age: 15.5 % among children aged 4–9, 29.5 % among persons aged 30–39, and 52.9 % among persons aged 60 or older. The next

**Table 11.1** “Top 10” types of physical activity undertaken by Poles by gender

Type of activity	Total (%)	Females (%)	Males (%)
1 Cycling	54.8	55.5	54.1
2 Swimming	37.2	35.6	38.7
3 Jogging, Nordic walking	28.2	35.3	21.4
4 Football	23.2	3.9	42
5 Volleyball	14.5	14.0	15.0
6 Gymnastics	9.4	15.9	3.1
7 Badminton	8.3	9.8	6.8
8 Basketball	8.2	5.5	10.9
8 Skating	8.2	9.7	6.7
9 Skiing	7.6	6.1	9.1
10 Dancing	7.0	9.9	4.2

Source: GUS (2009)

most popular discipline in Poland is football, chosen by 23.2 % of persons engaging in sport and recreational activities. In contrast to walking, the popularity of football as a form of recreation decreases with age. As many as 47.5 % of children aged 10–14 engage in football, 24.6 % of persons aged 20–29, and only 3.0 % of persons aged 50–59. Volleyball is the fifth most popular form of physical recreation in Poland. Volleyball players constitute 14.5 % of persons engaging in sport and recreation, with the discipline being the most popular within the age group of 10–19 years old.

Women primarily choose cycling as their form of sport and recreation, followed by swimming and walking. On the other hand, men most often declare football after cycling as their form of recreation. Most forms of sport and recreation are taken up by younger persons (aged 10–24). Sport and recreational activity among Poles decreases with age in most disciplines.

A large percentage (49 %) of Poles declare a complete lack of physical activity, compared to the European average of 39 %. The most common motivation for physical activity declared by Poles is improving one’s health, similar to Europeans (62 % of Poles compared to 61 % of Europeans), followed by improving one’s physical fitness (41 % and 40 %, respectively) and the need for relaxation and fun (a total of 46 %, compared to 70 % of Europeans).

Lack of time is the greatest barrier to engaging in physical activity, as declared by Europeans (45 %). In Poland, lack of time is also relatively common; moreover, it has increased from 36 % in 2004 to 46 % in 2009. Other barriers include illness or being handicapped (13 % in the EU and 15 % in Poland), lack of willingness to participate in competitive sports (7 % in the EU and 3 % in Poland), high costs (5 % in the EU and 2 % in Poland), as well as a lack of appropriate sports infrastructure at one’s place of residence, in which case the difference between Europeans and Poles is fairly significant (3 % in the EU and 8 % in Poland). Therefore, in 2009, a lack of appropriate infrastructure constitutes a relatively significant barrier to engaging in physical activity by Poles.

According to a report by the Central Statistical Office (GUS 2011) on the engagement in sport clubs, football was the most popular sport in Poland in 2010

(as in 2008): 47 % of all persons participating in sport groups engaged in this discipline. The number of persons engaging in football was more than nine times greater than the number of persons engaging in the next most popular sport, volleyball (4.9 % of all participating in sport groups in 2010 and 5.1 % in 2008). The next most popular discipline was karate (3.6 % in 2010 and 3.9 % in 2008), followed by athletics (3.0 % in 2010 and 3.4 % in 2008). Also popular were shooting sports (2.8 % in 2010 and 2.1 % in 2008), basketball (2.7 % both in 2010 and 2008), and swimming (2.5 % in 2010 and 2.3 % in 2008).

## 11.6 Conclusion

Polish elite sport system is strongly interventionist, centralized, bureaucratic, intensely formalized, and unstable. The emergence in 2005 of the Ministry of Sport, with very broad supervising and controlling powers over sport organizations, conflicts with the EU policy and with the strategies adopted in other European states, where the dominant model is based on autonomous nongovernmental organizations. Moreover, the current Polish sport system is a combination of traditional and new elements – voluntary activity of nonprofit organizations with centralized state administration management. Also the ceaseless changes in the system compromise its efficiency.

The model of financing of sport has been in force for more than 50 years and assumes that the main source of money for sport is the public sector. It is difficult to estimate the amount of spending on sport from the national budget because the money comes simultaneously from multiple governmental departments.

## References

- Charzewski, J. (1997). *Aktywność sportowa Polaków*. Warszawa: COS.
- Doktor, K. (1996). Dylematy współczesnego sportu. In *I Ogólnopolska Konferencja Menedżerów Sportu, Warszawa, 1996* (pp. 9–22). Polska Korporacja Menedżerów Sportu.
- European Opinion Research Group. (2003). *Eurobarometer, physical activity*. Bruxelles: Directorate General Health and Consumer Protection.
- Główny Urząd Statystyczny. (1999). *Uczestnictwo Polaków w sporcie i rekreacji ruchowej*. Warszawa.
- Główny Urząd Statystyczny. (2009). *Uczestnictwo Polaków w sporcie i rekreacji ruchowej w 2008 roku*. Warszawa.
- Główny Urząd Statystyczny. (2011). *Kultura fizyczna w Polsce w latach 2008–2010*. Warszawa-Rzeszów.
- Krawczyk, Z. (1995). *Spółeczne przesłanki przeobrażeń kultury fizycznej w krajach Europy Środkowo-Wschodniej*. Paper presented at the Międzynarodowej Konferencji Naukowej na temat: “Przeobrażenia kultury fizycznej w krajach Europy Środkowej i Wschodniej”. Warszawa.
- Ministerstwo Sportu. (2007). *Strategia rozwoju sportu w Polsce do 2015 roku*. Warszawa.



- Ministerstwo Sportu. (2010). *Internal Regulation of the Minister of Sport and Tourism on Financing Tasks from the Physical Culture Development Fund*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws No. 156, item 1051.
- Ministerstwo Sportu. (2012). *Internal Regulation of the Minister of Sport and Tourism on implementing Program of financing the preparation of the national team to the mega sports events*. Warszawa.
- Piątkowska, M. (2010). Uczestnictwo Polaków w aktywności fizycznej w porównaniu do innych krajów Unii Europejskiej. In *Współczesne metody badań aktywności, sprawności i wydolności fizycznej człowieka*. Warszawa: Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego Józefa Piłsudskiego w Warszawie.
- Piątkowska, M. (2012). Self-rated physical activity level across Europe – Poland and other European countries. *Biology of Sport*, 29, 23–31.
- Republic of Poland. (1989). *Act on Associations*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws No. 20, item 104.
- Republic of Poland. (1996). *Act on Physical Culture*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws No. 25, item 113.
- Republic of Poland. (1997a). *Act of September 4, 1997, on the Fields of Government Administration*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws No. 141, item 943.
- Republic of Poland. (1997b). *Act on Mass Events Security*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws No. 106, item 680.
- Republic of Poland. (2004a). *Act of Freedom of Economic Activity*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws No. 173, item 1807.
- Republic of Poland. (2004b). *Act on Tourist Services*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws, No. 223, item 2268.
- Republic of Poland. (2004c). *Strategy of Sport Development until 2012*. Warszawa.
- Republic of Poland. (2005a). *Act on Qualified Sport*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws No. 155, item 1298.
- Republic of Poland. (2005b). *Act on the development of sport in Poland*. Warszawa: Official Gazette of the Republic of Poland No. 6, item 75.
- Republic of Poland. (2007). *Strategy of Sport Development until 2015*. Warszawa.
- Republic of Poland. (2008). *My football Pitch – Orlik 2012*. <http://orlik2012.pl/index.php>. Accessed 03 July 2013.
- Republic of Poland. (2009). *Act of August 27*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws No. 157, item 1240.
- Republic of Poland. (2010). *Act on Sport*. Warszawa: Journal of Laws No. 127, item 857.
- TNS Opinion & Social. (2010). *Eurobarometer 72.3. Sport and physical activity*. Bruxelles: Directorate General Education and Culture.
- WOBASZ. (2004). *National Multi-centre Health Survey project*. Warszawa.
- Żyśko, J. (2008). *Zmiany we współczesnych systemach zarządzania sportem wyczynowym w wybranych krajach europejskich*. Warszawa: AWF.

# Chapter 12

## Spain

Fernando Lera-López and Enrique Lizalde-Gil

### 12.1 Introduction

Since 1975, when national information was first available, sport participation in Spain has increased significantly, becoming nowadays a social activity with very important implications in terms of health, integration, or socialization. This development has been accompanied by a change in the very concept of sport from that of an organized and competitive practice to a much broader concept involving unorganized, noncompetitive, recreational sporting activity. Also, sport has become a growing economic sector, especially in terms of consumer expenditure on sport.

In the following pages, the Spanish sport system is described, and the different sport policies are developed to promote sport participation. How sport is financed in Spain shall also be explained. Thereafter the evolution of sport participation in Spain in the period 1975–2010 is analyzed. The chapter will end with the analysis of the role played by sport infrastructure and the quantification of sport consumption in the country.

### 12.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

In Spain sport organization is the result of the collaboration among the public sector, associative private sector, and commercial private sector. The public sector distributes its functions and responsibility in terms of the territorial sphere of action: national, regional, and local, through the operations of different organisms as detailed in Fig. 12.1.

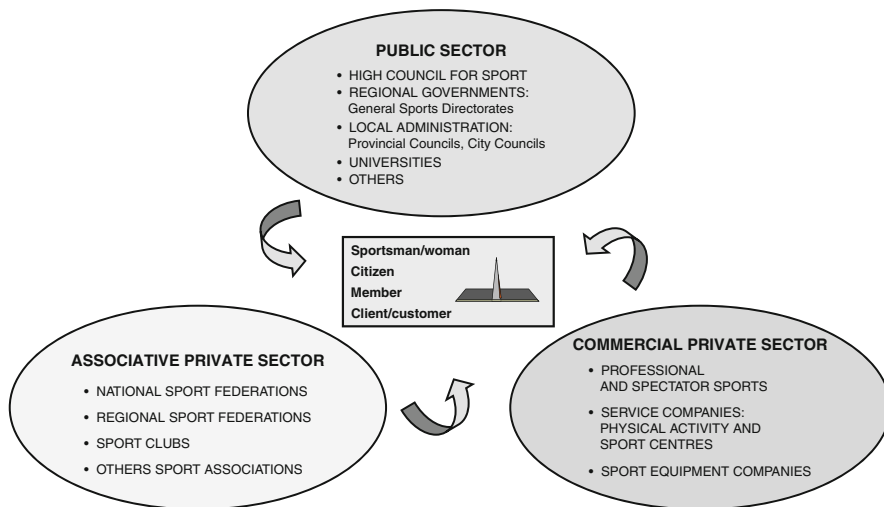
---

F. Lera-López (✉)

Department of Economics, Public University of Navarra, Pamplona, Spain  
e-mail: lera@unavarra.es

E. Lizalde-Gil

Spanish High Council for Sport (CSD), Madrid, Spain



**Fig. 12.1** The Spanish sport system

With regard to the private sector, there is a difference between the associative private sector (nonprofit making) and the commercial private sector (profit-making). The associative private sector is made up of the sport federations, sport clubs, and other sport associations. The commercial private sector concerns professional and spectator sports, as well as businesses related directly with the sport sphere: sport centers, gymnasia, services and sport equipment and supplies companies, etc. The role and functions of each of the three types of sport agents is described below.

### ***12.2.1 Sport and the Public Sector***

The organization and structure of sport in the public sector in Spain is complex due to the existing political structure which is decentralized and operates at three levels (national, regional, and local authorities). With regard to the national authorities, national responsibility for sport has belonged to the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport since December 2011 (it had previously belonged to other Ministries: Presidency, Education, Education and Science, and Culture). The CSD belongs to this Ministry and as an autonomous administrative organ channels the actions of the national authorities in the sport sphere (as defined by the current Sport Act 10/1990 of 15th October).

Some of the responsibilities of the High Council for Sport affect the national character of sport, like the authorization to organize official international sport competitions in Spain as well as the participation of Spanish national teams in

international competitions. It is also in charge of doping control and prevention measures, fomenting scientific research in sport matters, defining minimum standards for sport qualification courses, approving the articles of association and operations of the Spanish sport federations, and granting them financial aid.

Other responsibilities, due to this decentralization policy in Spain, are carried out in coordination with the autonomous regions, like the encouragement of sport activities in general, the programming of school and university sports, as well as the construction and improvement of sport facilities.

The governing organs of the CSD are the president and the advisory committee. The president of the High Council for Sport has the rank of a secretary of state and is nominated by the Council of Ministers. The advisory committee is made up of members of the national authorities, autonomous regions, local entities, national sport federations, and other prestigious personalities from the world of sport.

With regard to autonomous authorities, the autonomous regions (17) have ample responsibilities in the sport sphere, in order to promote and encourage sport in their respective territories. It is the task of these regional governments to regulate and organize sport at the different levels, to manage their own sport services, to recognize and watch over the territorial federations and clubs, to organize competitions and construct facilities in their region, to be responsible for inspections and sanctions, and to carry out other actions with regard to training (sport qualifications) and research in their respective territory.

The administrative organization of sport is not identical in all autonomous regions, although they are based on a very similar model. Generally there is a General Sports Directorate, which at times has responsibilities from other spheres (youth, culture, etc.). It is important to underline that the sport legislation in each region may be different from that of other regions and the country in general.

In Spain, local authorities include different institutions (provincial, district, local) which encourage sports, although in different ways according to the manner in which sport is organized in each autonomous region. The provincial governing bodies, with different titles, have their own responsibilities with regard to the sport sector: generally related with the coordination, cooperation, technical assistance, etc., of the different municipalities which make up the province. In some regions they play an important role in sport organization, in others they concentrate on giving support to the smaller municipalities.

In any case, all the municipalities have generic responsibilities for sport activities and facilities. By law, town councils serving populations of more than 20,000 inhabitants (5,000 inhabitants in Cataluña) have the obligation to provide sport services for their citizens. In municipalities of this size, there are usually different organizations which are responsible for providing sport services and managing sport facilities: a municipal sport service, a municipal institute, or a publicly owned municipal company. In some regions smaller municipalities form associations or districts (smaller than the province), which at times possess organized structures for the management of common public sport services.

### ***12.2.2 Sport in the Associative Private Sector***

In this sphere sport is organized at two levels: on the one hand, sport clubs, and on the other, groups of clubs, sport federations, professional leagues, or other promoting entities. Sport clubs can be divided into three types:

- Elementary sport clubs
- Basic sport clubs
- Sport Limited Companies

Elementary sport clubs have a very simple organization and structure and are aimed at sport practice and participation in competitions at the local and/or regional level, with very elementary operating regulations.

Basic sport clubs are more complex structures. They have their own legal personality and possess articles of association which reflect specific operating regulations. In turn, they form part of the sport federations and/or competitions.

Sport Limited Companies (SADs) are designed for professional sport. The clubs, or their professional teams, which compete in official sport competitions at the professional and national level, have to adopt this legal form. The SADs are subject to the general regulations for limited companies, with the particularities stipulated in the national sport regulations. In Spain they are active in professional soccer and basketball and have specific legal regulations.

The professional leagues are associations of clubs which are constituted exclusively and compulsorily when there are official competitions at the professional and national level. They are private entities with their own legal personality and autonomy for their internal organization and operations with regard to their corresponding national sport federation of which they form part. They are made up of the clubs which participate in the official competitions of a professional and national nature. At present this involves the professional leagues of soccer (LPF), basketball (ACB), indoor soccer (LNFS), and handball (ASOBAL).

The Spanish sport federations are private entities, with their own legal personality, which operate in the whole of the country (or autonomic region in the case of the regional federations), to fulfill their responsibilities. The sport federations include the following: the sport clubs, the athletes, the technicians, referees, and judges. At present in Spain there are 65 legally constituted national sport federations.

The national sport federations, as well as their activities of management, organization, and regulation of their sport specialties, carry out, with the coordination and supervision of the High Council for Sport and in coordination with their corresponding autonomic entities, other public functions such as the following:

- Promoting their sports specialties in the whole of the country
- Designing and carrying out the plans for the training of top performance athletes in their respective sports specialties
- Exerting sport disciplinary powers

The Spanish Olympic Committee (COE) is situated at the apex of the second level of sport associations. It is a nonprofit making association with the aim of

developing the Olympic movement and disseminating the Olympic ideals. It consists of the national sport federations of Olympic specialties (30) and represents Spain before the International Olympic Committee (IOC), being responsible – with the support and backing of the CSD – for the teams which participate in the different Olympic competitions. In the same way the Spanish Paralympic Committee (CPE) groups the federations and associations of the paralympic sports sphere.

Finally it is necessary to underline the creation in Spain in 1988 of the Olympic Sports Association (ADO) program which was conceived as an initiative to support top performance sport with a view to the holding of the Olympic Games of Barcelona 1992. This support took the form, for the first time in the history of Spanish sport, of the entry of private sponsors who made it possible to finance specific plans for the Olympic training of top performance athletes. Since then this program has become consolidated in subsequent Olympic participations in the form of grants to support top performance athletes as well as to provide ideal training conditions for achieving optimal performance. This program was founded by the CSD, the Spanish Olympic Committee (COE), and Spanish Radio and Television (RTVE), and integrated large sponsoring companies.

In the same way, in 2005 the plan for the “Support for the Athlete: Objective the Paralympic Games” (ADOP) was implemented with the same operating system as the ADO program.

### ***12.2.3 Sport in the Commercial Private Sector***

The economic importance of sport in society is an indisputable fact. The professionalization of sport activities not only embraces the professional and spectator sport sphere but is also related to all types of sport facilities, equipment, and services which as consumer products constitute an enormous economic market.

For all of these reasons, different companies related to the sport sphere have grown up and are active in the world of sport activities. In Spain these companies related to sport can be divided into three types:

- Companies manufacturing sport equipment
- Companies distributing sport equipment and supplies
- Sport service companies

## **12.3 Financing of Sport**

The economic resources available to sport, and in particular, to top performance sport represent one of the main factors for its development. Spain has a diversity of agents involved in the support of sport, which interact on the basis of a system of collaboration between the public and private sector.

The different Spanish public authorities devote specific budgets to the promotion and development of sport as a function of their responsibilities. The nongovernmental

nonprofit making structures are financed variously by the budgets of the public authorities, by sport sponsorship, and, where appropriate, by the provision of services or the contribution of the participants.

Private financing is very important for the training and participation of top performance athletes in international competitions and is channeled through the ADO program (EUR 63.1 million for Beijing 2008 and EUR 51.3 million for London 2012), from specific programs of the Spanish Olympic Committee (EUR 4.2 million in 2012, 20 % of which came from the CSD and the rest from sponsorship) and the national sport federations, either through contracts with the athletes or very specific sports specialties for sponsorship and image rights.

Professional sport with its commercial management of the professional clubs and leagues obtains abundant economic resources in the sphere of image rights and television broadcasting. Extra financing comes from 10 % of the income earned from sport gambling and the lottery. A percentage of the soccer pools is given to soccer (grass roots teams and the building of pitches), and occasionally a determined amount collected from the national lottery is devoted to important sport events in Spain (World, European Championships, etc.).

The incidence of private sponsorship through tax incentives is for the moment scarce, pending the implementation of a new sponsorship law.

Below is a description of the main characteristics of public sport financing.

### ***12.3.1 The General State Budget***

The state is one of the sources of sport financing, as is reflected in the published annual general budgets. This investment is carried out through the High Council for Sport.

In the last decade the budgets assigned were EUR 142.3 million in 2002 gradually increasing to a maximum of EUR 191.3 million in 2009. Since then, in a context of economic crisis, the budgets have decreased considerably, being EUR 185 million in 2010 and EUR 166.6 million in 2011, which represents about 0.04 % of the total national budget.

The available budget is mainly devoted to developing top performance sport (the programs of the national sport federations, the organization of international events, top performance sport facilities), accounting for 81 % of the budget in 2011. The remainder of the budget is devoted to financing national school and university championships and to supporting scientific research into sport.

With regard to the entities and organisms which receive state financing, the most important are the national sport federations, followed by the regional and local authorities and sport clubs.

In 2011, the national sport federations received direct financing from the CSD to a value of EUR 79.5 million, which represented 26 % of their total resources, with their own resources being their main source of financing. The distribution of the financing to the federations depends on their fulfillment of a series of previously established criteria and does not give priority to any determined sports.

**Table 12.1** Budgets of the autonomous regions 2012

Autonomous region	2012 sports budget (million EUR)	% of the total regional budget	Inhabitants <sup>a</sup>	Spending per inhabitant (EUR)	Decrease since 2008
Andalucía	55.7	0.17 %	8,424,102	6.6	63.40 %
Aragón <sup>b</sup>	9.7	0.18 %	1,346,293	7.2	73.20 %
Asturias <sup>c</sup>	26.8	0.62 %	1,081,487	24.8	4.50 %
Baleares	13.6	0.37 %	1,113,114	12.2	2.00 %
Canarias	12.7	0.18 %	2,126,769	6.0	69.60 %
Cantabria	14.9	0.61 %	593,121	25.1	29.50 %
Castilla y León <sup>c</sup>	25.3	0.25 %	2,558,463	9.9	28.50 %
Castilla-La Mancha <sup>c</sup>	54.7	0.68 %	2,115,334	25.9	17.00 %
Cataluña	76.7	0.25 %	7,539,618	10.2	15.60 %
Extremadura	22.6	0.45 %	1,109,367	20.4	8.00 %
Galicia	21.4	0.23 %	2,795,422	7.7	48.90 %
La Rioja	8.78	0.70 %	322,955	27.2	5.00 %
Madrid	47.7	0.28 %	6,489,680	7.4	63.60 %
Murcia	9.3	0.19 %	1,470,069	6.4	39.90 %
Navarra	28.4	0.74 %	642,051	44.3	11.00 %
País Vasco	13.5	0.13 %	2,184,606	6.2	78.00 %
Valencia	12.5	0.08 %	5,117,190	2.4	67.20 %
Total	454.7	0.23 %	41,274,357	11.0	50.60 %

Source: Muñoz and Díaz (2012)

<sup>a</sup>Number of inhabitants – data from the INE 2011

<sup>b</sup>Budget extended from 2011

<sup>c</sup>Budget for 2011

### 12.3.2 *Budgets of the Regional Governments and Local Entities*

Public financing of sport from the budgets of regional governments and local authorities has been a very important factor in the development and “democratization” of sport in Spain, given the proximity of these administrations to their citizens. An overview is presented in Table 12.1.

The autonomous regions have exclusive responsibility for the promotion and development of sport in their territories so each regional government independently establishes the budget devoted to this end, after the opportune political debate. This is why there is a great deal of heterogeneity in the budgets at the regional level in Spain, as shown in Table 12.1 for 2012. Total investment in sport reached EUR 454.7 million in 2012.

In the last few years due to the crisis, this financing has experienced a considerable drop. So, with reference to 2008, the budgets assigned to sport by the autonomous regions in 2012 have decreased by about 50 %. In general, the expenditure on sport in the autonomous regions is directed, among other things, at maintaining the activities and competitions of the regional sport federations, the construction and management of sport facilities, subsidies for regional sport clubs, and the development of their own sports promotion programs.



The local authorities (provinces, districts, town councils) are the ones which are nearest to the citizens thus favoring the development and encouragement of grass roots sport activities. In the same way as the regional government, according to their responsibilities, they basically finance expenses to provide sport services through the municipal sport structures, to construct local sport facilities in collaboration with other public administrations, and to give aid to local sport clubs.

It should be borne in mind that the autonomous and local authorities can receive part of the budget of the state administration for objectives related to top performance sport: athletes' travel expenses, operation and improvement of the technical level of top performance centers, and sport facilities for top level sports events. In the same way, it should be taken into account that the local entities incorporate into their budgets the possible transfer of funds from the autonomous governments for programs or the construction of facilities.

With regard to income, as well as their own budget appropriations and those from other public authorities, consideration should be given to that obtained from the provision of services (user fees) and the sponsorship which they get for certain programs of sport promotion. It is at the local level that the impact of volunteering is the greatest, receiving social recognition, but presenting difficulties with regard to estimating its financial value.

## 12.4 Sport Policy

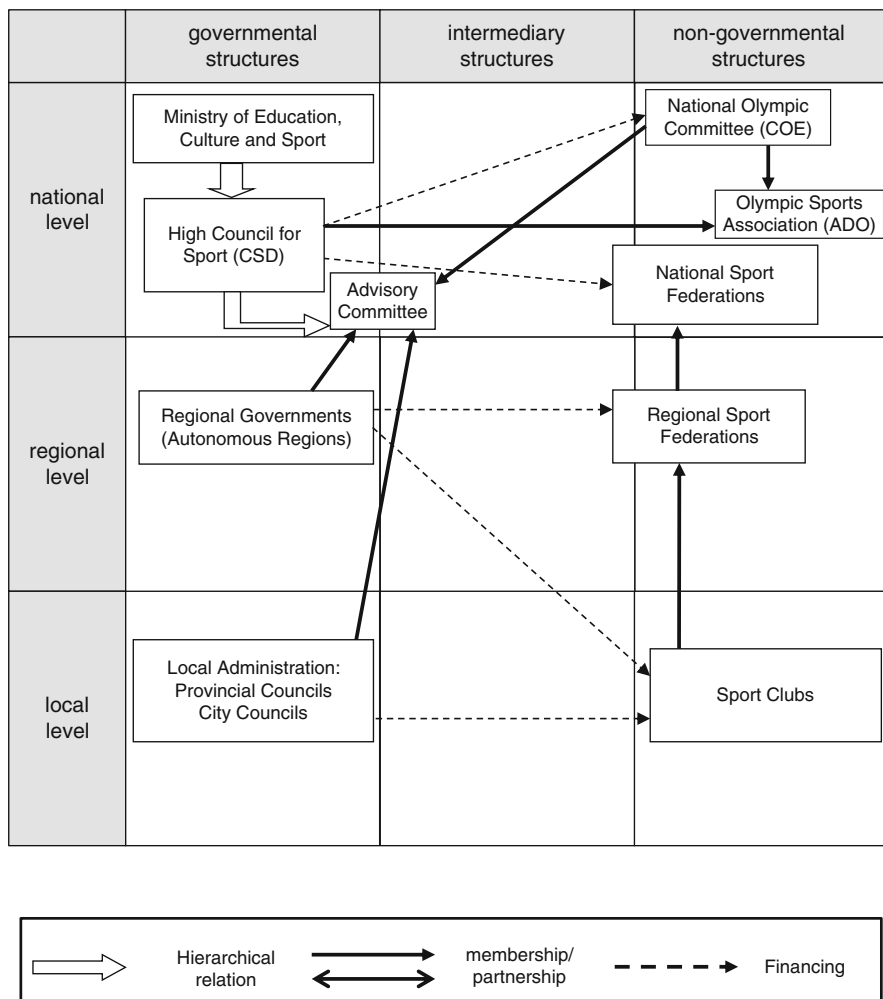
Overall national sport policy reflects the decentralized political structure of Spain (national government, regional and local governments). The demarcation of responsibilities and sport policies is determined by the 10/1990 Sport Act, which stipulates national responsibilities and by the sport laws of the autonomous regions.

The general principles established by the Sport Act are as follows:

- Respect for the responsibilities of, and coordination with, the autonomous regions and local entities for the general promotion of sport
- The inclusion of physical education and sport in compulsory education; provision of sport facilities for schools
- Support for the federations and clubs
- Promotion of equality in sport practice
- National support for top performance sport as an essential factor to encourage grass roots sport and to represent Spain in official international sport competitions
- The promotion of research and scientific support in sport

Starting with these general principles, national sport policies have been developed and are implemented specifically according to the priorities established by the respective government. As an example, below is a list of the strategic areas developed by the CSD in the period from 2008 to 2012:

- Increasing sport practice by improving coordination with the autonomous regions and municipalities and the drawing up of the A+D Plan to increase the practice of physical activities and sport by the Spanish population



**Fig. 12.2** Spanish sport framework

- Consolidating Spain as a top performance sport power, with investments in Top Performance Centers, support for the federations and clubs and for top performance athletes
- Strengthening the Spanish sport system with new regulations to prevent violence, eradicate doping, etc.
- Encouraging the social impact of sport, fomenting the synergies of sport with education, health, social exclusion, or support for women among other areas
- Encouraging the international projection of Spanish sport
- Figure 12.2 displays the Spanish sport framework as a summary of the previous sections

## 12.5 Sport Participation

### 12.5.1 *Methodological Questions*

Since 1975 national information is available about sport participation in Spain. In 1980, it was decided to conduct a national survey every 5 years to measure the level of sport participation in the country. Traditionally, the surveys have been developed by the Spanish Centre for Sociological Research (CIS) with the financial support of the CSD and coordinated by Professor Manuel García, from the University of Valencia.

It is the only national representative individual survey about sport participation in Spain and contains economic and sociodemographic information. Until 1985, the population studied was between 15 and 65 years of age. Since 2000, the age limit has been increased to 75 years. Also, the size of the sample has steadily increased in every survey, from an initial sample of 2,000 individuals to 8,925 individuals in the last survey in 2010. The questionnaires have been administered in face-to-face interviews.

In order to facilitate data comparison, sport participation has been traditionally measured in a very general way (“Nowadays, do you practice any sport?”). Additionally, questions are asked about the frequency of sport participation, also making a distinction between participation in only one sporting activity and more than one.

In a second step, a list of sporting activities is presented in order to quantify the most popular sports. The list of sports has also incorporated new sport specialties, from the initial 25 sports to the 46 sports in the last survey. It should be highlighted that the surveys make a clear distinction between sport participation and physical activity. The practice of walking and its frequency is investigated in a separate section of the questionnaire. Other physical activities such as gardening and house cleaning are not considered part of the study.

### 12.5.2 *Evolution of Sport Participation in Spain*

Table 12.2 shows the evolution of sport participation rates in Spain from 1975 to 2010, making a distinction between participation in only one sport or more. During the last 35 years in Spain, sport participation has increased by 105 %. Nevertheless, this increase has not been continuous. In the period 1995–2005, sport participation rates reached a stagnation point, and only in the last survey in 2010 did there seem to be a clear rise in sport participation. In addition, Table 12.2 shows a more qualitative change in sport evolution: the highest increase has occurred in the population practicing two or more sports, with a growth rate of 186 % in the period 1975–2010.

On the other hand, Table 12.3 compares the evolution of sport participation in terms of frequency. As is shown, regular participation in Spain has increased by

**Table 12.2** Evolution of sport participation rates in Spain, 2010–1975 (in percentage)

Sport participation	2010	2005	2000	1995	1990	1985	1980	1975
Total	45	40	38	39	35	34	24	22
One sport	25	24	22	23	18	17	15	15
Two or more sports	20	16	16	16	17	17	9	7
Nonparticipation	55	60	62	61	65	66	75	78
Sample size	7,358	7,190	4,550	4,271	4,625	2,008	4,493	2,000

Source: Drawn up by the authors from García (2006) and García and Llopis (2011)

Note: Population between 15 and 65 years

**Table 12.3** Evolution of frequency of sport participation rates in Spain, 2010–1990 (in percentage)

Frequency	2010	2005	2000	1990
3 or more times per week	57	49	49	31
1–2 times per week	37	37	38	28
With less frequency	6	14	13	41

Source: García and Llopis (2011)

84 % in the period 1990–2010, while participation 1–2 times per week has increased only by 32 %. This significant rise has been particularly important in the 1990s and in the last few years. This means that 57 % of participants practice sport at least three times per week. This evolution is particularly positive because it implies the development of a social habit among the Spanish population with positive impact in terms of health and well-being.

As a consequence of the sport policy distribution between national, regional, and local authorities and the development of specific sport policies at the regional level, in Spain, there are significant differences in sport participation rates: between the most sporting region (La Rioja, 46 %) and the least sporting (Extremadura, 31 %) the difference is 15 points. Possible explanations could be associated to regional development and the implementation of different sport policies to promote sport participation at the regional level.

### 12.5.3 Sport Participation and Sociodemographic Variables

Traditionally, in many countries a positive relationship has been shown between being male and being involved in sport.<sup>1</sup> These gender differences may be attributed

<sup>1</sup>For a more detailed analysis of the determinants of sport participation in Spain, see Lera-López and Rapún-Gárate (2007), Downward et al. (2011, 2012), and Kokolakis et al. (2012). For a more descriptive contribution, see García (2006) and García and Llopis (2011).

**Table 12.4** Distribution of sport participation according to gender, 2010–2000 (in percentage)

Sport participation	2010		2005		2000	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
One sport	25	20	25	21	24	18
More than one sport	24	11	20	9	22	9
Nonparticipation	51	69	55	70	54	73

Source: Drawn up by the authors and from García and Llopis (2011)

**Table 12.5** Sport participation rates according to age, 2010, 2000, and 1980 (in percentage)

Age interval	2010	2000	1980
15–24 years	60	58	52
25–34 years	54	45	34
35–44 years	44	35	13
45–54 years	34	28	8
55–64 years	30	20	4
65 and over	19	12	–

Source: Drawn up by the authors

to biological factors and cultural and social influences, reflecting, for example, differences in family responsibilities and social expectations. Nevertheless, it seems that this gap has narrowed in some European countries in the last 10 years (Fridberg 2010). Unfortunately, in Spain, and in spite of the rise in sport participation, the gap between men and women is still clear and has not decreased during the last 20 years: in 1980 it was 16 points, increasing to 18 points in 2010.

Nevertheless, if participation in terms of the number of sports practiced is analyzed, Table 12.4 displays that the real difference is in terms of participation in more than one sport and that the level of nonparticipation has continuously decreased among women over the last few years, with a clearer tendency than for men.

A second demographic variable included in the analysis has been age. Traditionally, empirical evidence has revealed that the probability of sport participation decreases with age due to biological and physical limitations (Downward et al. 2011, 2012), but at the same time, there is a positive relationship with frequency (García et al. 2011). In Spain, the decline of sport participation with age is shown in Table 12.5. Apart from the decline, it should be emphasized how sport participation has increased at all age intervals, with the highest rise from 34 years and above. This is a very interesting result because it means that people who were involved in sports in the 1980s continue to participate 20 years later. Also, new middle-aged and elderly participants have been incorporated.

In addition, Table 12.6 shows this positive relationship between age and sport participation, previously shown by García et al. (2011) in Spain. It can be seen how regular participation increases steadily from 35 years reaching a high value among the elderly. Also, it seems that after incorporation into the labor market and up to 44 years, regular sport participation decreases. Family constraints could also negatively affect regular participation, although these constraints lose importance after the age of 40, with regular sport participation increasing.

**Table 12.6** Distribution of regular sport participation by age interval, 2010 and 2000 (in percentage)

Age interval	2010	2000
15–24 years	63	56
25–34 years	54	48
35–44 years	50	42
45–54 years	54	36
55–64 years	59	51
65 and over	66	57

Source: Drawn up by the authors

**Table 12.7** Distribution of sport participation by educational level, 2010 and 2000 (in percentage)

	2010	2000
No qualifications	10	10
Elementary	33	23
Secondary	48	41
Higher (university)	58	54
Total	40	36

Source: Drawn up by the authors

Educational level has been positively associated to sport participation in previous studies in Spain (Downward et al. 2011, 2012; Kokolakis et al. 2012), and Table 12.7 confirms this evidence. Also, except for the lowest educational level, sport participation rate has increased in the period 2000–2010 at all remaining educational levels.

#### ***12.5.4 Other Aspects of Sport Participation: Top Sports and Ways of Participation***

As has happened in other countries, in Spain the increase of sport participation has been accompanied by a decrease in participation in traditional sports in favor of other new recreational sporting activities, more focused on health impacts, the search for adventure, and contact with nature. Table 12.8 shows the top 10 sports and their participation rates in Spain in 2010 and 2005. With the exception of two sports (paddle instead of bodybuilding), there have been no changes in list of sports included in the top 10 in the last 5 years.

Nevertheless, there are some changes in sport rates and in the positions in the ranking. For example, in the last 5 years, there has been an increase in the participation in gym, aerobics, and other activities such as Pilates, yoga, and tai-chi. In contrast, swimming that was in 2005 the most practiced activity in 2010 went down to the third position. The second position is for soccer that in Spain is the most important professional sport activity and the most popular recreational team activity.

Also, during the last 20 years, the percentage of people who decide to practice sport outside of any associative and organized framework has increased, reaching

**Table 12.8** Top 10 sports and their participation rates (in percentage)

Sports	2010	Sports	2005
Gym, aerobics, and other activities <sup>a</sup>	35	Swimming	33
Soccer	25	Soccer	27
Swimming	23	Gym, aerobics, and other activities <sup>a</sup>	26
Cycling	20	Cycling	19
Jogging and running	13	Activity in nature (mountaineering, climbing, etc.)	12
Activity in nature (mountaineering, climbing, etc.)	9	Footing and running	11
Basketball	8	Basketball	9
Tennis	7	Tennis	9
Athletics	6	Athletics	7
Paddle	6	Bodybuilding, weight-lifting	7

Source: García and Llopis (2011)

<sup>a</sup>Including aerobics, Pilates, spinning, body power, aqua fitness/aerobic/gym, gym-jazz, yoga, tai-chi, and aikido

**Table 12.9** Sport facilities used to practice sports, 2010–1980 (in percentage)

Type of sport facilities	2010	2005	2000	1990	1980
Public facilities	51	51	54	40	33
Public places (parks, countryside, etc.)	45	43	38	40	43
Nonprofit clubs	18	20	17	25	25
School/university	5	13	10	11	11
Gyms	13	8	8	7	–
At home	11	8	7	9	9
At work	1	1	2	1	2

Source: García and Llopis (2011)

Note: As a person could use more than one sport facility, percentages are higher than 100

75 % in 2010 from 63 % in 1990. This tendency is closely associated to the development of some sporting activities such as swimming, cycling, footing, and running and the increasing importance of sport in nature (mountaineering, climbing, footing and running, etc.). Also, in the last 5 years, the economic crisis that Spain is suffering could be an additional explanation for the decrease in organized sport participation.

## 12.6 Sport Infrastructure and Sport Participation

A very important aspect of sports participation is the analysis of the organizational forms and the availability of sport facilities. As is shown in Table 12.9, public facilities and public places (parks, lakes, etc.), particularly in urban areas, are the most used sport facilities in Spain. In this context, it should be highlighted that the

**Table 12.10** Population who live near sport facilities (Av.) and population who, living near a sport facility, use it (Use) (in percentage)

Type of facility	2010		2000		1990	
	Av.	Use	Av.	Use	Av.	Use
Tennis/paddle court	40	23	37	25	32	26
Outdoor swimming pool	51	45	49	48	40	45
Outdoor sport center	48	33	46	36	36	31
Indoor swimming pool	44	35	36	36	19	30
Indoor sport center	51	30	49	34	27	26
Soccer field	65	26	63	27	53	26
Other fields (rugby, etc.)	17	17	20	16	17	18
Fronton	25	21	26	14	21	27

Source: Drawn up by the authors from García and Llopis (2011)

number of sport facilities, particularly public facilities, has significantly increased in the last 25 years due to new investment made by local and regional authorities to boost sport participation. In addition, the presence of the commercial sector (gyms, mainly) has increased due to the development of a new kind of sport activities, as has been shown previously in Table 12.8.

Finally, the economic crisis that Spain has been suffering since 2008 could explain that a significant percentage of the Spanish population has decided to use public spaces or taken the decision to practice sport at home with their own equipment.

Nevertheless, 49 % of the Spanish population considers that in spite of the development of new sport facilities, there are not enough (García and Llopis 2011). To analyze this in more detail, Table 12.10 shows the percentage of the population who live near sport facilities as well as the percentage of the population that, living near sport facilities, use them. As can be seen, the use of sport facilities in Spain is in general relatively low, in concordance with the great use of public places shown previously. In fact, the use of the most important sport facilities seems to have been very steady over the last 20 years, although the availability of these facilities has increased in this period of time. Consequently, nowadays an acceptable level of sport facilities that could be used more frequently exists.

## 12.7 Sport Consumption in Spain

The striking increase in mass sport participation in the period 1975–2010 in Spain has had some significant social and economic implications. During the last decades the economic importance of sport in Spain has also seen a significant increase: from the initial estimations of 1.2 % of national gross domestic product (GDP) (Alonso et al. 1991) to 2.4 % of GDP in 2006 (Lera-López et al. 2008), on a par with estimations for other European countries where sports constitute a significant economic activity (European Commission 2011). This evolution also shows that sport is a



**Table 12.11** Distribution of sport consumption in Spain, 2007

Items	In EUR/year	In %
<b>Active participation</b>	<b>441.8</b>	<b>74.3</b>
Sport membership	81.2	13.6
Entrance fees	17.0	2.9
Guidance fees	12.4	2.1
Clothing and footwear	123.1	20.7
Equipment (durable)	114.2	19.2
Equipment (nondurable)	47.2	7.9
Travelling costs	29.7	3.5
Food, drinks, vitamins	13.5	2.3
Cost of illness and injuries related to sport participation	12.5	2.1
<b>Passive participation</b>	<b>152.7</b>	<b>25.7</b>
Attendance at sport events	29.8	5.0
Travelling costs	20.3	3.4
Merchandising, meals, drinks in attendance	11.4	1.9
Sport TV and video	35.9	6.0
Sport books and newspapers	27.5	4.6
Sport lottery and gambling	27.0	4.7

Source: Drawn up by the authors from Lera-López et al. (2008)

“good” with an income elasticity higher than one in Spain and that its growth has occurred at the same time as Spanish economic growth in the last 15 years.

This increased economic importance of the sport sector could explain how sport is accounting for a significant percentage of household consumer spending and explain the increasing number of studies (i.e., Breuer et al. 2010 for a general literature review; Lera-López et al. 2012 for recent analysis in Spain; Lera-López et al. 2011).

In Spain, Lera-López et al. (2008) have estimated sport consumption at EUR 595 per capita/year, and EUR 1,227 per participant, which represents 4.2 % of gross disposable household income in 2006. The authors make a distinction between active participation and passive participation (attendance at sport events, sport books and magazines, etc.). Table 12.11 shows the distribution of sport consumption in Spain in active and passive participation categories.

By categories, sport equipment (durable and nondurable) with EUR 161 and 37 % of total active consumption, clothing and footwear with EUR 123 and 28 %, and the use of sport facilities (including sport membership and entrance and guidance fees) with EUR 110.6 and 25 % are the main sport consumption categories in active participation.

In terms of passive participation, the different expenses associated to attendance at sport events (attendance, travelling costs and merchandising, meals and drinks bought at the event) represent EUR 61.5 and the 40 % of total consumption in passive participation. Pay per view for sports programs is 23.5 % (EUR 35.9) followed by sport lottery and gambling with EUR 27.9 and 18.3 % of total consumption in passive participation. This analysis emphasizes the rising economic importance of some consumption in some passive activities of sport demand, particularly attendance at sporting events, sport TV programs and lottery and gambling.

## 12.8 Conclusions

Sport in Spain is regulated both by national legislation and regulations and by autonomous regional laws. Sport for all is carried out in the framework of the elementary sport clubs, local public and private services, and, in the case of sport competitions, with the territorial federations. These sport activities are promoted, supported, and supervised by the different regional, provincial, or local governments. The present economic crisis has decreased sport budgets at the regional level by 50 % dropping to EUR 454.7 million in 2012.

Sport activities at the national and top performance level are the responsibility of the High Council for Sport, the organism which directs national top performance sport policy and which assigns most of the necessary resources, either from the public budget or from sponsorship programs (e.g., the ADO Plan). As a result of the crisis, the national budget for sport decreased by 13 % in the period from 2009 to 2011, dropping to EUR 166.6 million in 2011.

In terms of participation, during the last 35 years, sports have become a substantial activity in Spanish life, with significant social and economic implications: nearly 16 million Spanish people practice sport in Spain, with nearly seven million practicing two or more sports. Sport participation has increased in all age intervals and in the middle and high educational levels. As negative aspects, the regional differences and the gender gap can be mentioned.

This development in sport participation has been closely associated to the significant increase in the number of sport facilities in Spain. As a consequence, nowadays, it could be considered that Spain has got an acceptable level of sport facilities and this factor could not be considered as a constraint to promoting sport participation in the future.

In a similar way, during the last decades the economic importance of sport in Spain has also seen a significant increase: 2.4 % national GDP and EUR 595 per capita in 2006, with 74 % corresponding to active participation and 26 % to passive participation.

## References

- Alonso, J. C., Ruesgas, S., Sáez, F., & Vicens, J. (1991). Impacto económico del deporte en España. *Revista de Investigaciones y Documentación sobre las Ciencias de la Educación Física y el Deporte*, 18, 21–35.
- Breuer, C., Hallmann, K., Wicker, P., & Feiler, S. (2010). Socio-economic patterns of sport demand and ageing. *European Review of Aging and Physical Activity*, 7(2), 61–70.
- Downward, P., Lera-Lopez, F., & Rasciute, S. (2011). The Zero-Inflated ordered probit approach to modelling sports participation. *Economic Modelling*, 28(6), 2469–2477.
- Downward, P., Lera-Lopez, F., & Rasciute, S. (2012). The economic analysis of sport participation. In L. Robinson, P. Chelladurai, G. Bodet, & P. Downward (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sport management* (pp. 331–353). Abingdon: Routledge.
- European Commission. (2011). Sport Satellite Accounts. An European project. Brussels.

- Fridberg, T. (2010). Sport and exercise in Denmark, Scandinavia and Europe. *Sport in Society*, 13(4), 583–592.
- García, M. (2006). *Postmodernidad y deporte: entre la individualización y la masificación. Encuesta sobre hábitos deportivos de los españoles*. Madrid: CIS.
- García, M., & Llopis, R. (2011). *Ideal democrático y bienestar personal. Encuesta sobre los hábitos deportivos en España*. Madrid: CIS and CSD.
- García, J., Lera-López, F., & Suárez, M. J. (2011). Estimation of a structural model of the determinants of the time spent on physical activity and sport evidence for Spain. *Journal of Sports Economics*, 12(5), 515–537.
- Kokolakakis, T., Lera-López, F., & Panagouleas, T. (2012). Analysis of the determinants of sports participation in Spain and England. *Applied Economics*, 44(21), 2785–2798.
- Lera-López, F., & Rapún-Gárate, M. (2007). The demand for sport: Sport consumption and participation models. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21(1), 103–122.
- Lera-López, F., Rapún-Gárate, M., & Aguirre, J. (2008). *Análisis y evaluación económica de la participación deportiva en España*. Madrid: CSD.
- Lera-López, F., Rapún-Gárate, M., & Suárez, M. J. (2011). Determinants of individual consumption on sports attendance in Spain. *International Journal of Sport Finance*, 6(3), 204–221.
- Lera-López, F., Olló-López, A., & Rapún-Gárate, M. (2012). Sports spectatorship in Spain: Attendance and consumption. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 12(3), 265–289.
- Muñoz, M., & Díaz, B. (2012). Las Comunidades reducen un 51 % sus presupuestos por la crisis. *Deportistas*, 44, 6–8.

# Chapter 13

## UK: England

Chris Gratton, Peter Taylor, and Nick Rowe

### 13.1 Introduction

The organization and funding of sport in the United Kingdom is complicated. Elite sport, including major sports events and the financial support of elite athletes, is the responsibility of UK Sport. Support for sport participation and grassroots sport, however, and the monitoring of this through collection of data on sport participation is the responsibility of agencies of the home countries of the United Kingdom: England, Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. Each of these countries has its own sports council with responsibility for sport policy and each collects its own data on sport participation. This chapter is concentrating on sport participation not elite sport and therefore the situation in only one of the four home countries, England, will be considered. However, many of the activities of UK Sport do have a significant impact on England as by the far the largest of the countries that make up the United Kingdom so these will be considered as well where appropriate.

### 13.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

The structures for administering and delivering sport in England are complex. The organizational network can be structured according to four levels (see Fig. 13.1):

- National (government)
- National (nongovernment)

---

C. Gratton (✉) • P. Taylor

Sport Industry Research Centre, Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield, UK  
e-mail: c.gratton@shu.ac.uk; peter.taylor@shu.ac.uk

N. Rowe

Former Strategic Lead for Research and Evaluation, Sport England, Sheffield, UK

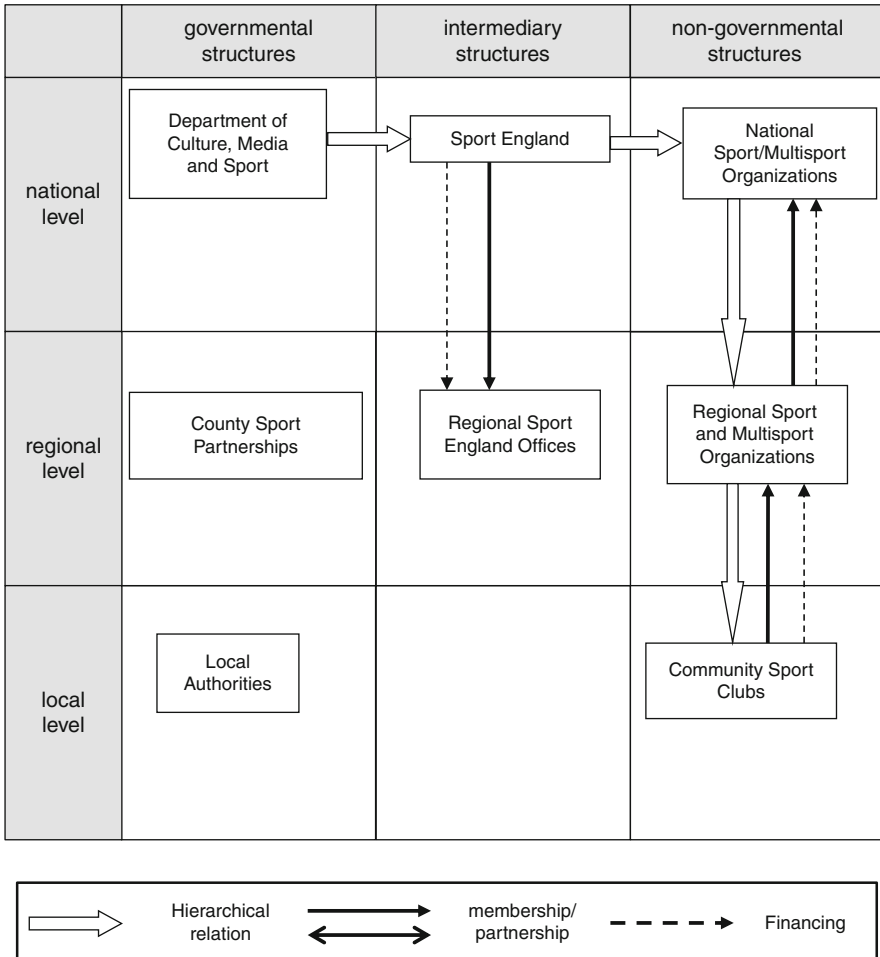


Fig. 13.1 The structure of sport in England

- Regional
- Local

### 13.2.1 National Organizations

Although the principal UK government department responsible for sport is the Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS), a number of other central government departments are relevant to sport, including Department of Health; Department for Children, Schools and Families; the Home Office; Department of Business, Enterprise and Regulatory Reform; HM Treasury; and Department of

Communities and Local Government. This reflects the fact that sport contributes to a number of crosscutting agendas, such as social inclusion, crime reduction, citizenship, health, education, and enterprise.

Sport England is a nondepartmental public body (NDPB), funded by government, with main responsibility for sport participation and related policy in England. Sport England is accountable to parliament but used to have a reputation for being “quasi-autonomous” agents in the cause of sport. In the last two decades, however, it has been claimed that they are now much more agents of government policy.

Individual sports are run by independent governing bodies, the majority of which are “recognized” national governing bodies (NGBs). In the UK there are over 250 NGBs for just over 100 sports – many sports have more than one NGB.

Some NGBs have a UK structure, some a GB structure, and most are constituted separately in England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Many of the major NGBs receive substantial funds from the government, via the national sports councils.

### ***13.2.2 Regional Organizations***

These include the following:

- Government offices
- Sport England regional offices
- County Sports Partnerships
- NGBs at regional and county levels

County Sports Partnerships (49 in England), also grant aided by Sport England and overseen by RSBs, were set up to provide strategic coordination in their geographical areas. Their remit is to help deliver Sport England programs in partnership with local authorities, healthcare providers, county level NGBs, and others and to facilitate a “joined-up” approach to increasing sports participation and building “talent pathways” for promising sportspeople.

### ***13.2.3 Local Organizations***

These include the following:

- Local authorities
- Community Sports Networks
- Schools
- Further and higher-education institutions
- Local trusts and not-for-profit organizations
- Private sector owners and operators, for example, health and fitness clubs
- Local sports councils, sports clubs, and associations

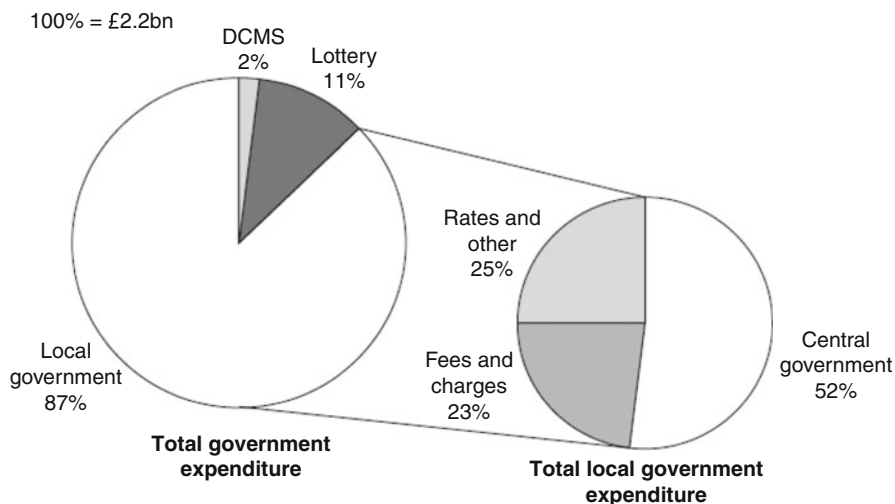
Local organizations are at the heart of sports provision in England and sports clubs and local authorities are the most significant. According to the Audit Commission (2006), there are 3,489 sport and recreation facilities with public access in England, three-quarters of these being local authority owned.

### 13.3 Financing Sport

Funding for sports comes from a variety of sources, including the following:

- Central government
- Local government
- National Lottery
- Sponsorship
- SportsAid (formerly Sports Aid Foundation), a private charity set up to provide funding to promising sportspeople
- Private sector companies
- Voluntary sector, benefactors, donors, and the public

According to DCMS/Cabinet Office (2002), in 2000 nearly 90 % of central government funding for sport was distributed by local authorities, and this central government funding represented just over a half of local authorities' expenditure on sport (see Fig. 13.2). The rest was financed by fees and charges to users (23 %) and local taxes (25 %).



**Fig. 13.2** Estimated government and lottery expenditure on sport and physical activity, 2000 (DCMS 2002). Note: total expenditure on sport estimated on the bases of lottery grants, sports council allocations, local government expenditure on leisure and recreation, education, sundry policing and grants to local clubs, and sundry central government expenditure through departments such as MoD, Royal Parks, and the prison service

**Table 13.1** National Lottery funding for sport by UK Sport and Sport England 1995–2009

	No. of grants	GBP million	Population (million)
Sport England	18,716	2,777	51.092
UK Sport	11,309	443	60.975

Source: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/Product.asp?vlnk=15106>

The National Lottery awards began in 1995 and sport has been one of the good causes throughout its existence. The DCMS website reveals a total of 47,703 grants awarded by the sports councils in the UK, totaling GBP 37.4 billion in value since awards began. Table 13.1 gives the details of the funding distributed by Sport England and UK Sport from 1995 to 2009. Sport England grants amounted to GBP 28 billion over this period with UK Sport adding a further GBP 4 billion. Given the relative population size of England to the United Kingdom, the majority of UK Sport grants will be in England. Many UK Sport grants are primarily for elite sport including elite training facilities, but in reality these facilities are also used for community use. One of the contentious issues with lottery awards is that increasing amounts have been going to major projects, such as the 2012 Olympics facilities, leaving less money for community level sport. Another concern is that Lottery funding has not all represented a net addition to investment in sport because it has been used as an excuse to reduce normal capital funding of sport by central government and local authorities.

SportsAid raises funds and supports talented young people usually aged between 12 and 18 and disabled people of any age. Since it was founded in 1976, it has distributed more than GBP 20 million and now gives grants to around 1,500 sportspeople a year.

## 13.4 Sport Policy

Sport, historically, was promoted by individuals, clubs, and associations and the governing bodies that they founded. Today, governments typically play a crucial role in terms of policy, sponsored agencies, and funding. A watershed document was published 50 years ago. The *Wolfenden Report (1960)*, commissioned by the Central Council for Physical Recreation (CCPR), identified the need for a Sports Development Council. The Sports Council was established in 1965 and granted independent status by Royal Charter in 1972. Three other national councils followed, for Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland.

In parallel with the setting up of the Sports Council, the second report from the Select Committee of the House of Lords on Sport and Leisure (1973) called for action to remedy deficiencies in sporting opportunities. This period was a turning point in sport and leisure policy:

“The state should not opt out of caring for people’s leisure when it accepts the responsibility of caring for most of their other needs. The provision of opportunities



**Table 13.2** Sports facilities in England, 2009

Facility type	Total count
Athletics tracks	379
Golf	3019
Grass pitches	56,097
Health and fitness suite	6,737
Ice rinks	44
Indoor bowls	366
Indoor tennis center	325
Ski slopes	159
Sports hall	9,311
Swimming pool	5,005
Synthetic turf pitch	1,651
<b>Total</b>	<b>83,093</b>

Source: Active Places Power, <http://www.activeplacespower.com/>

for the enjoyment of leisure is part of the general fabric of the social services” (House of Lords 1973).

Central government at the time had a belief that the provision of sports and leisure opportunities could help to alleviate antisocial behavior and many ills of the world. This belief was documented in Policy for the Inner Cities (Department of the Environment 1977) and the report of the Scarman Inquiry into riots in Brixton, London (Scarman 1981). In 1974 the government produced a White Paper on sport and recreation, which proposed substantial changes (Department of the Environment 1975). It was local authorities which took up the challenge and changed the face of public sports provision. In 1970, there were just 12 sports centers and 440 swimming pools in the whole of the United Kingdom. By 1980, this had risen to 461 sports centers and 964 swimming pools (Gratton and Taylor 1991), and Table 13.2 shows that in 2009, there are 9,311 sports halls and 5,005 swimming pools in England alone.

The next major development, in 1995, was a government policy document, *Sport: Raising the Game* (Department of National Heritage 1995). Sports participation in schools had declined and the policy aimed at reversing the trend, promoting closer links between schools and sports clubs, and establishing a new British Academy of Sport that would serve as a pinnacle of a national network of centers of excellence. This was later renamed as the English Institute of Sport. This development, together with Lottery funding for elite sportspeople, was significant because example: “Some countries invest vast public funds in special facilities, training programs and financial and status rewards for elite athletes, in order to win prestige and trade internationally. It is neither tradition nor policy to treat top level sport in this way in Britain” (Sports Council 1982).

Another pivotal government strategy for sport was produced by the government’s Cabinet Office (DCMS 2002). *Game Plan* was described by the prime minister in the foreword as “a thorough analysis of where we are now and an essential route

map to get us to where we want to be in the future” (DCMS 2002). It confirmed two major objectives for the government role in sport:

- To increase participation, “primarily because of the significant health benefits” (DCMS 2002)
  - To improve Britain’s success in international competition “particularly in the sports which matter most to the public” (DCMS 2002)
- Recommendations addressed not only these objectives but also the following:
- The need for “a more cautious approach” to hosting major events, especially in relation to the government’s role and the assessment of benefits
  - Organizational reform to encourage closer working between public, voluntary and commercial sectors
  - Identifying “what works” before committing further government investment in sport

A later independent review, the Carter Report (Carter 2005) concentrated on the financing and organization of sport. It echoed both the need for a better evidence base on which to build further public investment in sport and the need for organizational reform to eliminate wasteful duplication of effort. The Sport England strategy for 2008–2011 (Sport England 2008) attempts to address the organizational reform agenda. First, it creates a clear differentiation between responsibility for school sport, with the Youth Sport Trust; responsibility for community sport when school is finished, with Sport England; and responsibility for elite sport, with UK Sport. Second, it restricts Sport England’s remit to sport, narrowly defined, with physical activity being driven by a number of other government departments but particularly the Department of Health.

Sport England aims to deliver their key outcomes, which are as follows:

- More people taking part in sport
- Lower post-school dropout in at least five sports
- Increase in participants’ satisfaction with the quality of their sport experience
- Improved talent development systems in at least 25 sports
- A major contribution to the delivery of 5 h a week high-quality sports opportunities to young people 5–19 years

Sport England’s programs are largely designed to promote mass participation. Recently their strategies have identified National Governing Bodies of Sport (NGBs) as the key agencies with which they will work (Sport England 2008, 2012d). NGBs of 46 sports are funded by Sport England, and they have been required to include national participation programs and targets into their whole sport plans. Furthermore, in recent years NGBs have been held accountable to these targets and some have suffered financial penalties when their participation targets have not been achieved. Sport England publishes progress reports for all NGBs funded by them (Sport England 2012a).

The 2009–2012 period of NGB funding by Sport England totaled GBP 438.6 million across 46 sports (Sport England 2012a). The 2013–2017 funding totals GBP 494.1 million, a rise of 13 %. However, mainly because of falling participation

numbers, some NGBs have had cuts to their Sport England funding for the new period – noticeably cricket, rugby union, rugby league, tennis, and judo. Other sports have had significant increases in their NGB funding, for example, archery, bowls, wheelchair basketball, and wheelchair rugby. Furthermore, Sport England has taken GBP 40 million of the total funding as a “Reward and Incentive” fund for particularly successful NGBs in the new period.

In addition to NGB funding, Sport England has several other major funding programs for mass participation, in particular, Places People Play, a GBP 150 million program over 3 years. This program includes Iconic Facilities, Inspired Facilities, and Protecting Playing Fields, three schemes for improving facilities; Club Leaders, a scheme to improve business skills in community sports clubs; Sport Makers, a program to recruit, train, and deploy 40,000 volunteers in sport; and Sportivate, a program to attract teenagers and young adults to sport (Sport England 2012c). Other Sport England funding programs include a Small Grants Program for nonprofit organizations, Sportsmatch to match sponsorship funding, Inclusive Sport for disabled participation, Active Colleges, and a Community Sport Activation Fund for very local initiatives (Sport England 2012b). All of this funding, however, will be directed from National Lottery monies, thus demonstrating that in practice the dividing lines between public expenditure and National Lottery funding are vague.

Sport England’s call for what realistically is a sea change in participation rates up to 2020 may intensify current academic debates between sociologists who emphasize controlling structures and society and psychologists such as Chelladurai (1985) who focus on individual agency, motivations, and intentions. However, the renewed welfarist drive to attain genuine Sport for All may well flounder in an era of austerity and public expenditure cuts.

In terms of sport development during the past two or three decades, an increasing emphasis on individual choice and motivations has been accompanied by increasing efforts to convince all groups in society to participate in sport. This tension between providing opportunities for all, while recognizing that not all individuals will want to become involved, has been clearly articulated by academics such as Coalter (1998). Interestingly while it has often been suggested that financial cost is the major barrier to greater participation, especially from the low participant groups, other research by Coalter for the Sports Council, as long ago as 1991 (Coalter 1991), suggested that this is not always the case. Coalter and Allison (1996) threw a sharper focus on lifestyle and individual choice in terms of identifying reasons for low or nonparticipation.

The sometimes evangelical zeal of those agencies and organizations committed to sport must be understood in the context of an increasingly open and flexible culture, where individuals may exercise choice to be indifferent or reject sport. Sports policy discourse is reminiscent of Victorian ideals of muscular Christianity, character building, and moral development through sport (McIntosh 1987). However, not everyone is convinced of the potency of government exhortations to play sport, volunteer, adopt health lifestyles, and become good citizens.

The latest UK government plan for sport at the time of writing is *Playing to Win*, from the Department of Culture, Media and Sport (2008), which sets out “a vision

for sport to 2012 and beyond.” This plan reinforces the direction of change made clear in the Sport England strategy, the vision being “to give more people of all ages the opportunity to participate in high quality competitive sport.” The means to deliver it is a “system which will nurture and develop sporting talent, underpinned by a high quality club and competition structure.” This narrows the concept of sport to “competitive,” which is much more restricted than, for example, the commonly accepted definition of sport.

Recreational, noncompetitive sport is by inference no longer a remit of the DCMS, but instead is part of physical activity and therefore the remit of the Department of Health. The DCMS and Sport England plans are much more focused on a competitive sports system which delivers sporting success at the international level, particularly the 2012 Olympics, and also more focused on the voluntary sector – NGBs and clubs – to deliver this outcome. This is only partly consistent with one of the principal government aims for sport – to engage a more people in regular sport participation. The major increases in UK sport participation in recent years have been both noncompetitive (individual, fitness-oriented activity and not in the voluntary sector but in the public sector (local authorities) and commercial (fitness) sectors. Furthermore, these trends are likely to continue.

However, the focusing of DCMS and Sport England strategies does not mean they are turning their backs on noncompetitive sport and physical activity. DCMS (2008) does acknowledge its role in working with other government departments to promote physical activity and sports development. Furthermore, there is significant funding of initiatives to generate increases in physical activity, such as the GBP 140 million free swimming program for young and old people. The difference is that such initiatives are jointly funded by a number of government organizations – for example, free swimming is a cross-government initiative with funding from five government departments as well as investment from the Amateur Swimming Association (ASA) and Sport England (SE).

One puzzle remains, despite all this attention on government policy. Although over 90 % of government funding for sport and physical activity is distributed by local authorities, sports services have always been a discretionary service for local authorities in England and Wales. Other services such as education and refuse collection and disposal are mandatory. If sport is so important to government, why give local authorities the option to not do anything for sport?

## **13.5 Sport Participation**

### ***13.5.1 Measuring Participation in Sport: The England Experience***

Since 2005, Sport England has invested millions of pounds to carry out an annual survey of adult (16 plus) participation in sport. The Active People Survey – the largest

survey of its kind in Europe – involves over 188,000 telephone interviews each year (in 2005/2006 only the sample size was 363,000 and there was no survey in 2006/2007) to establish patterns of sport participation. The survey – which is run continuously throughout the year – includes at its core measures of the types of sport people take part in, the frequency with which they take part (in a 4-week reference period), the intensity (in terms of energy expended – light, moderate, or vigorous), and the duration (in minutes taking part per session). The survey also includes measures of the following: the context in which participation takes place (club, competition, and coaching/tuition), the levels of volunteering, the reasons why people do or do not take part in sport, and their future intentions. An extensive range of sociodemographic questions is also included, supporting complex social profiling and modeling.

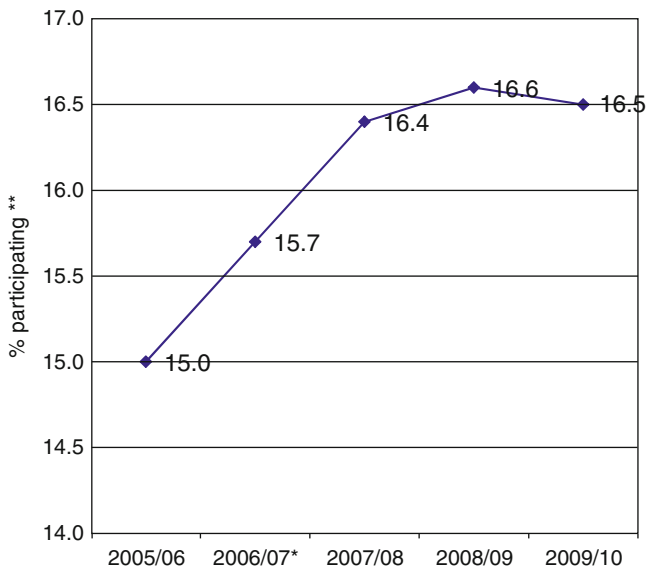
The Active People Survey has had a transformational effect on policy and practice across the whole of the sport system in terms of the following: (a) strengthening the accountability framework at national and local level (Sport England has a national target to grow and sustain participation rates in sport; national governing bodies have individually negotiated sport-specific targets linked to 4-year development plans; and many local authorities have adopted sport participation as key service outcome measures); (b) increasing understanding of trends, local geographical variations, and determinants of participation; and (c) supporting the development of tools that have practical policy and practice applications.

The survey results in England are consistent with many of the general European trends. As Fig. 13.3 indicates participation rates have increased between 2005/2006 and 2009/2010 with most of the increase occurring in the period 2005/2006–2007/2008 and a subsequent leveling of rates in the next 2 years.

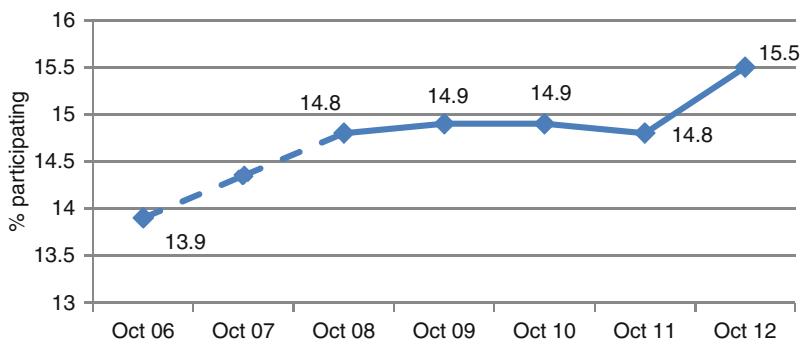
The standard measure of sports participation used in England changed with the Active People Survey. Before this the standard measure of participation was the percentage taking part in sport at least once in the previous 4 weeks. With Active People, as Fig. 13.3 indicates, the standard measure changed to the percentage taking part in sport on at least three occasions a week for at least 30 min and at least moderate intensity in the previous 4 weeks. This measure excludes all walking (which was included in the old measure). The reason for the change is the increasing emphasis on the health benefits of sport and health research indicating that the three times a week for at least 30 min is the minimum required for these health benefits to be realized.

In 2008 the government adopted a target of one million more people in sport (based on this new measure) by the end of 2012 on the basis of the inspiration to participate by the hosting of the Olympic Games in London in 2012. The benchmark level of participation was that achieved in APS2 in 2007/8 which as Fig. 13.3 shows was after the large increase in participation from APS1. As the figure shows nothing much happened to the level of participation in the next 2 years and the target was eventually abandoned in December 2011.

The standard measure of sport participation in Sport England's Active People Survey changed in 2012 to taking part at least once a week for a minimum of 30 min at moderate or more intensity. Only 14 % of the adult population was found to take part once a week in sport and active recreation in 2006. Trend figures for once-a-week participation from the Active People Survey are shown in Fig. 13.4. They

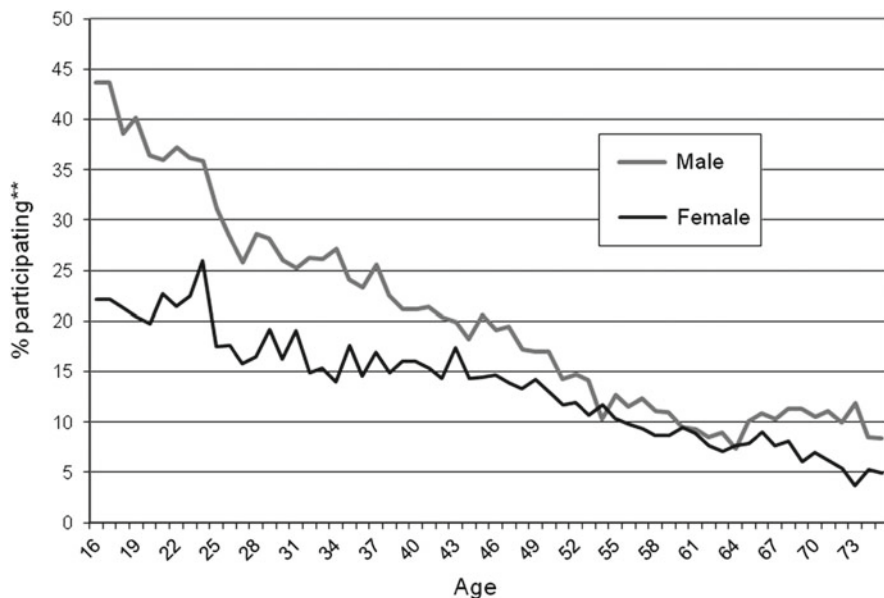


**Fig. 13.3** Sport participation in England, 2005–2010 (adults 16+) (Source: Active people survey 2009b, a). Note: \*Authors’ interpolation; \*\*On at least three occasions for at last 30 min and at least moderate intensity per week in the last 4 weeks (excludes all walking, includes frequent recreational cycling)



**Fig. 13.4** Sport participation in England 2006–2012 (once a week (1x30), adults (16+)) (Sport England 2012b)

demonstrate a period of strong growth from Active People 1 (2005/2006) to Active People 2 (2007/2008) followed by a flat period with no growth from 2008 to 2011, but then a significant rise in 2011–2012, possibly attributable to the policy emphasis on sport, the inspiration of the London Olympics and Paralympics, and a generally increasing concern for health and body image. The number of people participating in sport had actually increased from 13.9 million in 2005/2006 to 15.5 in 2011/2012,

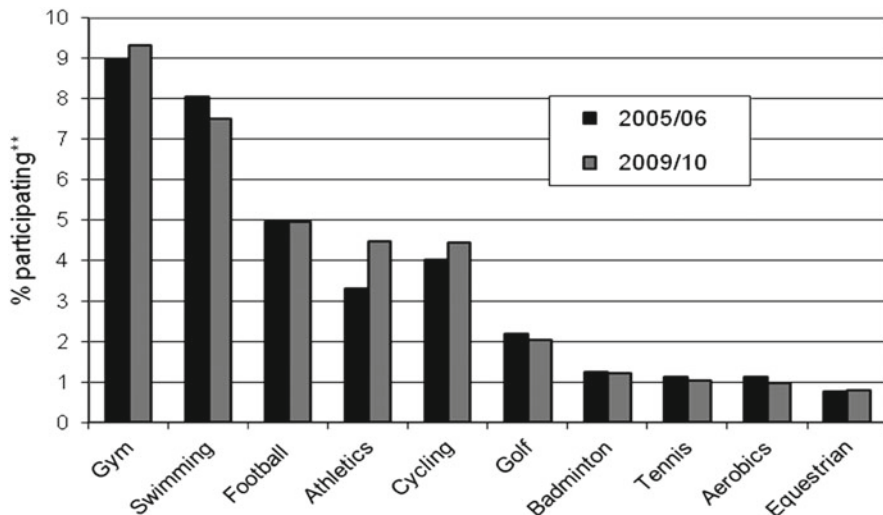


**Fig. 13.5** Sports participating by age and gender, England, 2009–2010

an increase of 1.6 million, substantially more than the target of one million. However, even if the target had been set with the new measure of participation, it would not have been met because the benchmark from which the growth was measured was 2007/2008 when participation had already grown to 14.8 million. The reality though is that over the period since London was awarded the Olympics participation did grow but not consistently over the whole period. There was strong growth in the early part of the period post-2005 and strong growth in 2011/2012 with little or no growth in between.

England, despite many years of concerted public policy focused on reducing sporting inequities, has yet to overcome the barriers (whether physical, social, or psychological) to achieve the greater levels of equality in participation seen in Nordic countries. For example, participation in sport in England declines with age with men having higher participation rates than women, particularly among young adults, as Fig. 13.5 demonstrates. These “structural inequities” of age and gender in participation in sport go a long way towards explaining England’s “middle range” European position for overall participation rates as presented in the recent Eurobarometer statistics.

The European trend towards more informal participation in health and fitness-related sports and a decline in more traditional team sports is replicated in England. As Fig. 13.6 indicates, the biggest growth sports between 2005 and 2010 have been in athletics (which includes road running and jogging), gym, and cycling. More traditional sports, such as golf, badminton, tennis, cricket, rugby union, and rugby league, have all experienced a decline over the same period.



**Fig. 13.6** Changes in participation in top 10 sports, 2005–2010, England. (Source: Active people survey 2009b, a). Note: \*\*On at least 1 occasion for at least 30 min and at least moderate intensity per week in the last 4 weeks (excludes all walking, includes frequent recreational cycling)

## 13.6 Conclusion

The awarding of the 2012 Olympic Games to London in 2005 was partly attributed to the final presentation to the IOC by Sebastian Coe in which he argued that if the games were awarded to London, they would “inspire a generation” to take part in sport. This argument was incorporated into sport policy in 2008 with a target of getting one million more people in sport by 2012. This chapter has shown that that target was achieved if measured from 2005 and on the current measure used for sport participation. However, the parameters on which the target was set were different and the target was abandoned before Olympic year even started. Sport participation has increased in England over this period but the distribution of this participation by gender, age, and social status remains unequal.

## References

- Audit Commission. (2006). *Public sport and recreation services*. [http://archive.audit-commission.gov.uk/auditcommission/sitecollectiondocuments/AuditCommissionReports/NationalStudies/leisure\\_finalproof.pdf](http://archive.audit-commission.gov.uk/auditcommission/sitecollectiondocuments/AuditCommissionReports/NationalStudies/leisure_finalproof.pdf). Accessed 15 May 2013.
- Carter, P. (2005). *Review of national sport effort and resources*. [http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/+http://www.culture.gov.uk/images/publications/Carter\\_report.pdf](http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/+http://www.culture.gov.uk/images/publications/Carter_report.pdf). Accessed 15 May 2013.
- Chelladurai, P., & Zeigler, E. F. (1985). *Sport management: Macro perspectives*. Victoria: Sports Dynamics.



- Coalter, F. (1991). Sports participation: Price or priorities? *Leisure Studies*, 12(3), 171–182.
- Coalter, F. (1998). Leisure studies, leisure policy and social citizenship: The failure of welfare or the limits of welfare? *Leisure Studies*, 17(1), 21–36.
- Coalter, F., & Allison, M. (1996). *Sport and community development*. Edinburgh: Scottish Sports Council.
- DCMS. (2002). *Game plan: A strategy for delivering government's sport and physical activity objectives*. [http://www.gamesmonitor.org.uk/files/game\\_plan\\_report.pdf](http://www.gamesmonitor.org.uk/files/game_plan_report.pdf). Accessed 15 May 2013.
- DCMS. (2008). *Playing to win: A new era for sport*. <http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/7626/1/DCMSplayingtowin.pdf>. Accessed 15 May 2013.
- Department of National Heritage. (1995). *Sport: Raising the game*. London: Department of National Heritage.
- Department of the Environment. (1975). *Sports and recreation*. London: HMSO.
- Department of the Environment. (1977). *Policy for the inner cities*. London: HMSO.
- Gratton, C., & Taylor, P. (1991). *Government and the economics of sport*. Harlow: Longman Group UK Ltd.
- House of Lords. (1973). *Second report from the select committee of the House of Lords on sport and leisure*. London: HMSO.
- McIntosh, P. (1987). *Sport in society*. London: West London Press.
- Scarman, L. G. (1981). *The Brixton disorders: First report of an inquiry*. London: HMSO.
- Sport England. (2008). *Sport England strategy 2008–2011*. [http://www.sportengland.org/sport\\_england\\_strategy\\_2008-2011.pdf](http://www.sportengland.org/sport_england_strategy_2008-2011.pdf). Accessed 15 May 2013.
- Sport England. (2009a). *Active people survey 2, individual sports results*. London: Sport England.
- Sport England. (2009b). *Active people survey 2, key results for England*. London: Sport England.
- Sport England. (2012a). *30-month performance review for Sport England funded national governing bodies*. [http://www.sportengland.org/funding/ngb\\_investment/ngb\\_progress\\_reports\\_2011-12.aspx](http://www.sportengland.org/funding/ngb_investment/ngb_progress_reports_2011-12.aspx). Accessed 15 May 2013.
- Sport England. (2012b). *Get Funding*. [http://www.sportengland.org/funding/get\\_funding.aspx](http://www.sportengland.org/funding/get_funding.aspx). Accessed 15 May 2013.
- Sport England. (2012c). *Places people play: Delivering a mass participation legacy from the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games*. [http://www.sportengland.org/about\\_us/places\\_people\\_play\\_%E2%80%933\\_deliverin.aspx](http://www.sportengland.org/about_us/places_people_play_%E2%80%933_deliverin.aspx). Accessed 15 May 2013.
- Sport England. (2012d). *A sporting habit for life: 2012–2017*. London: Sport England.
- Sports Council. (1982). *Sport in the community: The next ten years*. London: Sports Council.
- Wolfenden Committee. (1960). *Sport and the community*. London: CCPR.

# Chapter 14

## China

Fan Hong, Liu Li, Min Ge, and Guan Zhixun

### 14.1 Introduction

Since its establishment in 1949, sport has always played an important role in the People's Republic of China. Sporting organizations are well established and policies issued and implemented. Since the period of economic reform began at the end of the 1970s, the commercialization of sport has changed the shape of its model for financial support from one of government subsidy to one of independent reliance. National sport participation in China has increased with more sporting facilities being provided for mass sporting events, especially in the 2000s. However, progress comes with challenges. This chapter will examine the transformation of the sports policy, management system, and sports participation from the 1980s to the present and explore the future of sport development in China.

### 14.2 The General Administration of Sport, the ACSF, and the COC

In the People's Republic of China (PRC), the core principle of the overall structure of sport, proposed by Chairman Mao Zedong in 1952, is to "Promote Sport, Build up People's Physical Strength" (Fu 2008). This has led to the development of

---

F. Hong (✉)

University of Western Australia, Perth, Australia  
e-mail: fan.hong@uwa.edu.au

L. Li • M. Ge • G. Zhixun

University College Cork, Cork, Ireland

e-mail: liulihappy1206@163.com; gemin1983@gmail.com; guanzhixun@163.com

competitive sports to improve elite sport and mass sport participation. Sport was also included in China's national and regional constitutions.

The Constitution of China is the highest law within the PRC (The Central People's Government of the PRC 2013). The 21st article in the first chapter of the current national constitution stated that the Chinese state promotes sport and popularizes mass sport to improve people's physique (The Constitution of China 2013).

The governing body of sport in the People's Republic of China has changed its names within the different historical periods. It was called the Central People's Government Sport Committee (中央人民政府运动委员会) from 1952 to 1954, the Sport Committee of the People's Republic of China (中华人民共和国体育运动委员会) from 1954 to 1998, and the General Administration of Sport of China (国家体育总局) from 1999 to the present (General Administration of Sport of China 2012). It is under the leadership of the State Council of China. The main responsibilities of the General Administration of Sport of China (GASC) are as follows:

1. Creating a national sport framework and supervising the implementation of sport policies
2. Guiding and promoting the sport system reform and formulating the strategy of sport in both a short- and long-term development plan
3. Promoting national fitness regulations among schools and regional and local communities
4. Overall planning in the development of elite sport, while balancing the setting and layout of national sport events and the monitoring and enforcement of drug use and other anticompetitive measures
5. Managing and organizing national or international sporting activities in China, international cooperating and liaising with other countries, the Special Administrative Regions (SAR) of Hong Kong and Macao, as well as Taiwan
6. Supporting and funding research into the development of sport
7. Implementing regulations on the governing of the sporting industry market and advocating best practice
8. Responsibility for the examination and qualification of the national sporting committees
9. The undertaking some other duties assigned by the State Council.

The GASC is a powerful, centralized, and hierarchical state organization. It directly supervises the 37 provincial and regional sport administration committees and the 53 sports management centers, such as the following:

- The Management Center of Cycling
- The Management Center of Football
- The Management Center of Track and Field, Motorcycle and Swordplay Sports
- The Management Center of Swimming
- The Management Center of Gymnastics
- The Management Center of Basketball
- The Management Center of Volleyball
- The National Olympic Sport Center
- The National Research Institute of Sport Science

- The PRC's Anti-doping Agency
- The Sport Culture Development Center
- The Sport Lottery Management Center

The most influential nongovernmental, nonprofit sport organizations at national level are the All-China Sports Federation (the ACSF; 中华全国体育总会) and the Chinese Olympic Committee (the COC; 中国奥委会). Due to historical reasons these two organizations have very close ties with the GASC. They were the so-called three legs stool before the 1980s. Nevertheless, the ACSF and the COC, technically speaking, became semigovernmental sport organizations after the 1980s.

The ACSF was established in 1952 after the Communists took over China and established the People's Republic. It was then acknowledged by the International Olympic Committee (the IOC) in 1954 as an official member of the IOC, and it now governs all Olympic activities in China (Fan and Lu 2013). However, prior the 16th Summer Olympic Games held in Melbourne in 1956, the IOC invited both the People's Republic of China (Beijing) and the Republic of China (Taipei) to participate in the games, which resulted in the "Two Chinas" issue. This invitation itself was a gross violation of Olympic rules which stipulated that only one Olympic Committee from each country is allowed to participate in the games (Kolatch 1972). In response, the ACSF lodged a protest to the IOC and withdrew its membership in the IOC in 1958. The PRC did not return to the IOC until 1979 when the IOC finally decided to resume the legal status of the Chinese Olympic Committee. The Olympic Committee in the Republic of China was allowed to maintain its status in the IOC under the name of "China Taipei Olympic Committee."

The responsibility of the ACSF is to strengthen the ties between athletes and others who are engaged in sports in order to develop sporting excellence, to improve sporting standards within the global arena, to strengthen friendship through sports with other nationalities and peoples from across the world, and to increase public participation in sporting activities in order to encourage a more active lifestyle among Chinese citizens. The ACSF has developed close cooperation with the Chinese Olympic Committee and has established contacts with Taiwan, Hong Kong, Macao, as well as the overseas Chinese in sport field.

All the activities of the ACSF are in line with the constitution, law, regulation, and policy. The ACSF accepts the supervision and guidance of the GASC and the Ministry of Civil Affairs. The ACSF consists of individual sporting associations at national, provincial, city, and county levels, for both Olympic events and non-Olympic events. Such associations include the following:

- The Chinese Baseball Association
- The Chinese Ice Hockey Association
- The Chinese Weighting lifting Association
- The Chinese Basketball Association
- The Chinese Volleyball Association
- The Chinese Boxing Association
- The Chinese Mountaineering Association
- The Chinese Bodybuilding Association
- The Chinese Dragon Boat Association (All China Sport Federation 2013)

After 1979 when the PRC had resumed its seat in the IOC, the Chinese Olympic Committee was separated from the ACSF to legally represent the PRC in the IOC. The main tasks of the COC are to promote the Olympic movement in China, to send Chinese sport teams to participate in the Olympic Games and other international sports competitions, and to assist other national sport organizations to host sporting events in China. The COC abides by the constitution, laws, and regulations, as well as other national policies, and respects the sport ethics to promote the Olympics in China. According to the requirement of the IOC's Olympic Charter, the COC is authorized to use the Olympic names, symbols, flags, mottoes, and anthems in non-profit sporting events and activities related to the Olympics hosted by the PRC. The COC also has the responsibility to protect the Olympic symbols, flags, mottoes, and anthems from illegal usage in the PRC.

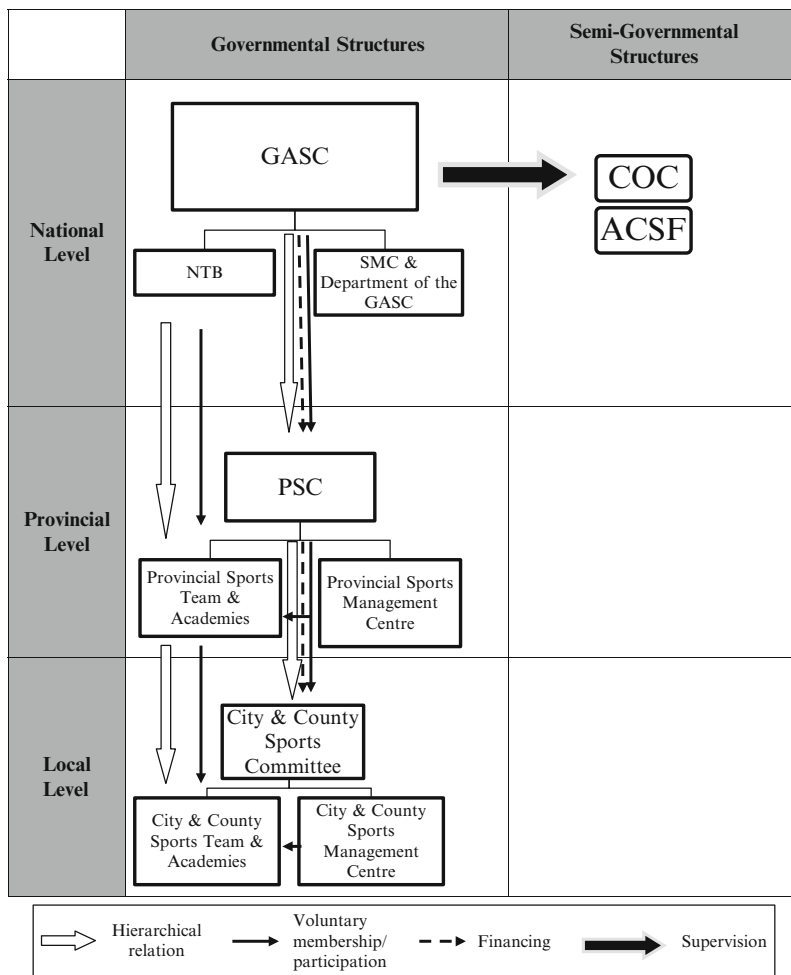
Since the reform of Chinese sport began in the 1980s, the commercialization of sport and fitness for all has become a new phenomenon in the new era. Many non-governmental organizations have emerged within local communities and working units, which have included fans' associations, fishing associations, yoga clubs, and swimming clubs. The government has welcomed these voluntary sporting bodies and encouraged them to provide better service to the public.

In summary, the GASC is a national sport governing body under the State Council of China with the ACSF and the COC acting as semigovernmental sporting organizations under the supervision of the GASC. These three major sporting governing bodies have different responsibilities and obligations, but together they make the key decisions for Chinese sports (Fig. 14.1).

### 14.3 Financing Sport

Due to the transformation of China's economic system and the changes of relevant government policies, sport was financed different ways during different periods. After the establishment of PRC in 1949, China's economy was under a planned economic system. The central government controlled all the resources and directed the allocation of funding. Prior to 1990s, Chinese sport was completely government funded (Yang and Fang 2011).

In 1992, the Chinese government proposed the idea of framing a socialist market economy, and in order to suit the new economic system, Chinese sport began a process of reform as well. The process of the commercialization of sport introduced various financial resources into the sport system as new funding sources from enterprise, industry, and individuals began to grow in tandem with funding directly from the government. New organizations such as the China Sports Lottery, which launched in 1994, became one of the financial resources along with other funding resources, such as company sponsorship and personal donations (Shi 2007). Although the sport financing structure has changed, government funding is still the most important financial source for Chinese sport as other sources financing are viewed as supplementary funding.



**Fig. 14.1** Sport structures in the PRC. Note: *GASC*, General Administration of Sport of China; *COC*, Chinese Olympic Committee; *ACSF*, All-China Sports Federation; *SMC*, Sport Management Centre; *NTB*, National Training Bureau; *PSC*, Provincial Sport Commission. The hierarchical relationship from *GASC* toward *PSC* includes the membership and financing which applies as well to the relation from *GASC* towards *NTB* and *SMC & Department of GASC*, the same applies in Provincial Level and Local Level

According to the *GASC*, the main revenue categories include government financial allocation, which takes 57 % of the whole revenue, sport institutions revenue which comes through the hosting of sporting events, market development organized by various sports institutions, and other sporting institution-operating revenue which comes from non-independent accounting activities organized by different sporting institutions. Further revenues also include banking interests and donations (*General Administration of Sport of China 2012*). In terms of expenditure, there are six major categories: sport foreign affairs; sport education; sport science and technology;

culture, sport, and media; social security; and employment and housing spending (General Administration of Sport of China 2012).

According to the “People’s Republic of China Sport Law,” which was issued in 1995, the financing of sport should be included in provincial and local government budgets. It should also be included in infrastructure investment plans (Yang and Fang 2011). Sport development was also included in the Five Year Plan, which was introduced by the government to boost China’s industry and economy.<sup>1</sup> According to the 12th Five Year Plan (2011–2015), provincial and local governments would play a major role in financing the development of both mass sport and elite sport. The current government policy emphasizes that with the rise of Chinese economy, more funding would be channeled to sport development (Zhou et al. 2004). The state-run lottery fund is another financial resource for sport.

In terms of the allocation of government funding, different regions receive different allowances from Beijing. Provinces and autonomous regions in Western China would receive more funding than Central China and Eastern China (Mu 2012). While sport policy and financing system are changing, volunteering in sport is developing, although compared with European countries, the development of volunteering in sport is still at an early stage in China. The Beijing Olympic Games was the highlight with 100,000 volunteers, making it the biggest volunteer team in Olympic history (Chen 2010). It provided sufficient human resource for the games to ensure the event went smoothly and successfully. According to Wei, volunteers in Beijing Olympic Games have provided a service value of 4.275 billion RMB (Wei 2010).

For a long time, Chinese sporting policy has been concentrated on elite sport. However, since the adoption of the Physical Health Law of the People’s Republic of China in 1995 and the promulgation of the State Council on the Outline of Nationwide Physical Fitness Program, Chinese sport at a grassroots level has developed which further offered individuals and organizations favorable tax preferences with donations to national fitness programs (Fan et al. 2010). In short, together with the economic reform, China’s sport financing system is in transition.

## 14.4 China’s Sport Policy

The development of Chinese sport policy has always been state-controlled and shaped by political, economic, educational, and ideological requirements (Fan et al.: 2010). The Sport Ministry in the PRC made different national sport policies, which could reflect the intention of the state and the change of Chinese society within different historical periods. From 1959 to 1960s, Chinese national sport policy witnessed the socialization of sport with the help of Lao Wei Zhi (劳卫制 – Ready for Labor and Defense the Motherland), which was a mass sport program that was imported from the Soviet Union. The Sino-Soviet Split in the 1960s brought Lao Wei Zhi to an end and resulted in sport policies that concentrated all the

---

<sup>1</sup>The first Five Year Plan was introduced in 1953 and China is now in the 12th Five Year Plan period.

resources on elite sport in order to produce high performance on the international sport stage. Chinese sport went through a disaster at the beginning of the Cultural Revolution (Tang 1986) as during this time sport schools closed, sport competitions ceased, and Chinese team members suffered mentally and physically because they were condemned as the sons and daughters of the bourgeois. From 1971, the sport system was revived to serve the country's political and diplomatic needs. Sport was promoted and developed rapidly both at elite and mass levels after China's economic reformation after the 1980s.

In 1995, new sport policies were made and approved by the China State Council: the Olympic Strategy, the National Fitness for All Program, and the Outline of Development of Sport Industry and Commerce. The General Administration of Sport in early 2009 reemphasized the continuation of the implementation of sport policies issued by the State Council in 1995. This ensures that Chinese sport will follow three main routes – elite sport, mass sport, and the commercialization of sport – and make new sport policies based on these three main routes (Fan and Lu 2013).

#### **14.4.1 *JuguoTizhi* (举国体制)**

Elite sport policy is known as “JuguoTizhi,” which can be translated into English as “whole country supports the elite sport policy and system.” It has contributed to the success of China's Olympic Strategy. After the PRC renewed its membership in the IOC and other international sports governing bodies, elite sport has been considered as one of the most effective ways to boost the PRC's new image on the world arena. The great successes by the Chinese Olympic delegation at the 2000 Sydney Olympics proved that “JuguoTizhi” worked. The concept of “JuguoTizhi,” was officially defined by the sports minister Yuan Weimin to the public at the All State Sport Ministers Conference in 2001. He stated that the meaning of “JuguoTizhi” was that central and local governments should use their power to channel adequate financial and human resources throughout the country to support elite sport in order to win glory for the Chinese state (Wu 1999). “JuguoTizhi” has proved to be a very efficient way to win gold medals at the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games and the 2012 London Olympic Games. Although there were many debates about the elite sport policy after the Beijing Olympic Games, whether “JuguoTizhi” is still necessary or not, the government has confirmed that the “JuguoTizhi” will continue.

#### **14.4.2 *National Fitness Regulation* (全民健身纲要)**

The National Fitness Program (全民健身纲要) was published by the State Council to promote mass sport in 1995. Ten years later, mass fitness and lifelong physical activities have become the new trend of mass sport in the twenty-first century in the PRC. In order to facilitate the development of mass sport, the State Council issued a new policy titled the “National Fitness Regulation” for mass sport in 2009. It



consists of 40 articles in six chapters. This new regulation clarifies the government's responsibilities for promoting mass sport and proclaims the citizen's right to participate in sport and indicates the government's desire to let mass sport depend on society. It also contains the plans for the national fitness program, the regulations for mass sport, and the explanation of the supporting measures for mass sport and clarifies the punishment if this regulation is violated. This regulation has provided a legal protection for people who take part in sport activities and has played an important role in guaranteeing the rights of people.

### **14.4.3 Outline of Development of Sport Industry and Commerce (体育产业发展纲要)**

In 1995, the "Outline of Development of Sport Industry and Commerce" was issued by the State Council since the CCP leadership has realized that commercialization should be the essential policy for the future development of sport. The decree contains three parts: the guiding ideology and its aims, the policy, and the measures of the development of sport industry and commerce in China.

This new policy emphasized that the sport industry should mainly depend on society instead of relying on investment from the government. This involves the sport industry developing sport fitness and entertainment markets as well as sport competition for the performance market. The industry should support the sport goods market and develop some relevant industries. At the same time, the government should provide more consultation services and preferential policies (Fan et al. 2010).

In addition, the "Sport Law" (体育法) was established in 1995 to supervise the development of Chinese sport. There are some critical aspects with regard to the implementation of the "Sport Law" and other sport policies. For example, sport activities should be promoted among governmental offices, institutions, companies, and schools, but they are not organized as often as required. There are still many problems in sport competitions, such as match fixing and corruption, illegal gambling, and doping. These problems violate the ethics which ensure fair competitions. In addition, another problem that exists is that people in rural areas in China did not benefit from the policies for mass sport in the same way as people in urban areas.

## **14.5 Sport Participation**

### **14.5.1 Definition of Sport Participation in China**

The policy on Chinese Sport Participation was produced in 1996. It took the following factors into consideration:

- Setting standards
- The general level of Chinese sport participators

- Nutrition and health conditions for competitors
- The environment of participation
- Standards in foreign countries
- The diversity of economic development among different areas in China (China Mass Sports Survey Research Group 1998)

It includes three main factors: time, intensity, and frequency of sports activities. It entails that one sport participation unit must meet these three needs: having three or more periods of physical activity per week; at least 30 min are required on every physical activity; and middle-intensity or high-intensity physical activity is required for each physical activity (China Mass Sports Survey Research Group 1998).

### ***14.5.2 Chinese Sport Participation in General***

The GASC reported in 2007 that Chinese people's participation rate in sport was 28.2 %. It proposed in 2011 to improve this number to 32 % by 2015 (12th Five Year Plan for Sport Development, 2013). The main factors that limit sport participation are time, income, education, lifestyle, and sports facilities (General Administration of Sport of China 2008). Environmental problems could also create barriers to sports participation. For example, in February 2013, most of the citizens in Beijing had to stop their outdoor sports activities for more than 2 weeks due to air pollution (China Meteorological Administration 2013).

### ***14.5.3 Top 10 Sports***

The top ten popular sports practiced by the Chinese people are as follows:

1. Walking (53 %)
2. Running (39 %)
3. Badminton, table tennis, tennis (24 %)
4. Ball sports (football, basketball, volleyball) (19 %)
5. Cycling (18 %)
6. Hiking (11 %)
7. Swimming (8 %)
8. Sport dancing (7 %)
9. Outdoor fitness exercise (6 %)
10. Gymnastics (6 %; Chen 2012)

The top three sports practiced by young people (16–19 years old) are as follows:

1. Ball sports (football, basketball, volleyball) 34.9 %
2. Running 31.5 %
3. Walking 19.1 %

**Table 14.1** Sport participation rate of different organizational forms

Organizational forms	With friends	Alone	With family	With colleagues	Community	Sport clubs Sport centers
Percentage (%)	41.19	25.02	13.76	11.04	6.00	2.99
<b>Ranking</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>

Source: The Second Beijing Mass Sports Survey Research Report (2009)

#### 14.5.4 Organizational Forms

Most of the Chinese people prefer to participate in sports activities and physical exercise alone or with families, friends, colleagues, and business partners. Youth sports and sports for the elderly are promoted by different organizations. Table 14.1 shows the sport participation rate of different organizational forms (see Table 14.1).

#### 14.5.5 Development of Sport Participation in the Past Decades

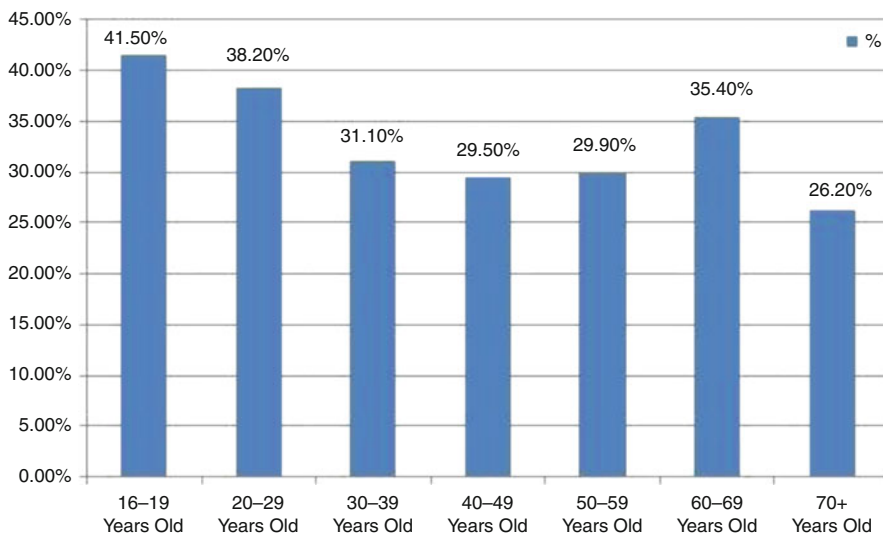
Sport participation rates have improved rapidly in the past two decades. According to the first national sport participation survey conducted in 1996, China's sport participation rate was 15.46 %. In 2007, the rate has increased to 28.2 % (General Administration of Sport of China 2008). One of the main reasons for this increase was China's successful bid for the 2008 Olympic Games (General Administration of Sport of China 2012).

At the same time, the number of sports facilities has also increased nationally. China had 527,050 sports venues and facilities in 1995, which means every citizen has 0.65 square meters of sports facility. The lack of sports venues and facilities has limited the development of mass sport. In 2003, the number of sports facilities increased to 850,080 (General Administration of Sport of China 2007). By 2011, the number reached one million.

But considering China's huge population, more facilities should be built to meet the rising demand of the people. The GASC issued a policy document in 2011 which proposed to increase the number of sports venues and facilities to 1.2 million so that every Chinese would have 1.5 square meters sport facility by 2015.

#### 14.5.6 Participation Rate in Sociodemographic Characteristics

In general, Chinese men undertake physical exercise more frequently than women. The gender ratio of sport participation is 57 % men to 43 % women. However, on female data there are big differences between different age groups.



Rescue: Report of Chinese Sport Participation Survey(2007).

**Fig. 14.2** The participation rate on age categories

The older female age group has a higher sport participation rate than younger women. Professor Xiao Huanyu (2005) pointed out that this is due to the policy that Chinese women retire at 55 years old which is 5 years earlier than Chinese men. It gives them more leisure time than younger women (Xiao et al. 2005).

In terms of age aspect, in general the young (16-29) and the aged (60-69) are the most active groups. The middle aged (30-59 years old) is the weak link (see Fig. 14.2).

Haibao (2005) stated that the huge pressure of work and life has left little time and space for middle-aged people to participate in sport and leisure activities. The “Report of 2007 Chinese Sport Participation Survey” shows that lack of leisure time is the major factor to prevent middle-aged people from practicing in sport.

## 14.6 Conclusion

The three major sports governing bodies in China are the GASC, the ACSF, and the COC. The GASC is under the direct leadership of the State Council. The ACSF and the COC in the PRC are semigovernment bodies. They work together to implement the government’s sporting policies at national, provincial, and local levels. China’s sporting policies and systems have been shaped over time by political, economic, educational, and ideological requirements. In the post-Beijing Olympics era, China’s sport policy and practice focus on three major areas: elite sport, mass sport, and commercialization of sport/sports industry. They were expected to support each other and achieve an all-round development.

## References

- All China Sport Federation. (2013). *All China Sport Federation*. <http://www.chinaculture.org>. Accessed 07 Mar 2013.
- Chen, H. P. (2010). Construction of Chinese sport volunteer security system in post-olympic era. *Journal of Wuhan Institute of Physical Education*, 44(3):29–32.
- Chen, W. (2012). The development of Chinese mass sports. *Sport Culture Guide*, 10(10), 22.
- China Mass Sports Survey Research Group. (1998). *China mass sports survey and research*. Beijing: Beijing Sports University Press.
- China Meteorological Administration. (2013). *Beijing haze continues today proposed to reduce outdoor activities*. [http://http://www.cma.gov.cn/2011xwzx/2011qxqxw/2011qxqyw/201303/t20130316\\_207900.html](http://http://www.cma.gov.cn/2011xwzx/2011qxqxw/2011qxqyw/201303/t20130316_207900.html). Accessed 10 Mar 2013.
- Fan, H., & Lu, Z. (2013). *The politicisation of sport in modern China: Communists and champions*. London: Routledge.
- Fan, W., Fan, H., & Lu, Z. (2010). Changes in Chinese sports policy: Pre- and post-Beijing Olympic Games. In H. Fan & J. A. Mangan (Eds.), *Post Beijing 2008: Geopolitics, sport, pacific rim*. London: Routledge.
- Fu, Y. (2008). *Zhong Guo Ti Yu Tong Shi [History of Chinese sport]*. Beijing: People's Sport Press.
- General Administration of Sport of China. (2007). *11th Five year plan for sport development*. <http://www.sport.gov.cn/n16/n1077/n1452/701256.html>. Accessed 08 Mar 2013.
- General Administration of Sport of China. (2008). *Report of 2007 Chinese sport participation survey*. <http://www.sport.gov.cn/n16/n33193/n33208/n33418/n33598/1010427.html>. Accessed 08 Mar 2013.
- General Administration of Sport of China. (2012). *12th Five year plan for sport development*. <http://www.sport.gov.cn/n16/n1077/n1467/n1843577/1843747.html>. Accessed 08 Mar 2013.
- Haibao, K. (2005). Analysis of the reasons for the age structure of Chinese sports population characterized by V Shape and the optimization of it. *Journal of Xi'an Institute of Physical Education*, 22, 31.
- Kolatch, J. (1972). *Sports politics and ideology in China*. New York: Jonathan David Publishers.
- Mu, F. (2012). *The guideline of public sport facility in the 12th five year plan period*. [http://www.china.com.cn/sport/2012-12/27/content\\_27531024.htm](http://www.china.com.cn/sport/2012-12/27/content_27531024.htm). Accessed 08 Mar 2013.
- Shi, S. T. (2007). Comparative analysis of financing mode of sport in China and foreign countries. *Journal of Future and Development*, 28(9):58–61.
- Tang, T. (1986). *The culture revolution and post-Mao reforms: A historical perspective*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- The Central People's Government of the PRC. (2013). <http://www.gov.cn/>. Accessed 05 Mar 2013.
- The Constitution of China. (2013). [http://www.gov.cn/gongbao/content/2004/content\\_62714.htm](http://www.gov.cn/gongbao/content/2004/content_62714.htm). Accessed 05 Mar 2013.
- Wei, N. (2010). *Experience, Value and Influence*, China Renmin University Press.
- Wu, S. (1999). *The history of sport*. Beijing: Chinese Book Company.
- Xiao, H., Weng, Z.-i. Q., & Chen, Y.-z. (2005). Basic characteristics of social and sports population structures of contemporary China. *Journal of Shanghai Physical Education Institute*, 29(2), 12.
- Yang, Y. H., & Fang, X. (2011). Financial system model and sport systems among China, the USA and Germany. *Journal of Chengdu Sport University*, 37, 9–10.
- Zhou, J. J., Qiu, J., & Fan, H. X. (2004). The past and future of unit sport in China. *Journal of Physical Education*, 11(5):13–17.

# Chapter 15

## Japan

Mitsuru Kurosu

### 15.1 Introduction

#### *15.1.1 The Great East Japan Earthquake and the Power of Sports*

At 2:46 p.m., the 11th of March 2011, an earthquake of magnitude 9.0 struck the east coast of Japan and led to an enormous tsunami. This resulted in approximately 390,000 buildings being swept away, and over 18,000 people were killed or are still missing (as of 26/12/2012 according to the National Police Agency). All infrastructures, including transport, telecommunications, power, and water supplies, were seriously damaged, and many people in the affected areas were forced to evacuate from their homes. Fukushima, where I reside, was no exception. I went through despairing days at the shelter in constant fear of aftershocks and a massive dose of radiation emitted from the damaged Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Plant. This incident made us realize that what we had believed was a well-established and well-working society could be easily destroyed in a split second.

However, there was not only despair. We also learnt that humans are bound to each other by ties and the ties bring us great comfort in any situation. The people there patiently faced up to such difficulties, keeping order, supporting each other, with a spirit of give-and-take. It should also be noted here that grassroots-like organizations such as nonprofit organizations (NPOs), volunteers, local communities, and cooperative associations provided amazing support to the victims of the disasters. In addition to this, the disasters also prompted public and private sectors to openly tie and work together, particularly within community sports clubs. In situations where national and local governments had to deal with recovery from the

---

M. Kurosu (✉)

Faculty of Human Development and Culture, Fukushima University, Fukushima, Japan  
e-mail: kuro@educ.fukushima-u.ac.jp

disasters as quickly as possible and on a large scale, it was difficult for them to fulfill individual needs. Consequently, the community sports clubs made the best use of their existing networks and functioned flexibly. They were able to respond to individual needs of the local residents immediately and appropriately, which was even faster than administrative agencies like national and local governments.

For instance, some sports clubs utilized their networks to help send relief to the victims, and some were entrusted by their local governments with management and administration of temporary housing for the victims, employing 12 victims and playing a central role for reestablishing the local communities. Another club has organized a sports event every year and provided the residents who have been forced to live in other places in order to avoid radiation with an opportunity to get together. All of these examples have testified that community sports clubs have built up social capital through their activities and made a significant contribution to their communities. As seen in the previous examples, sports clubs in Japan have continued to develop into so-called headquarters of supporting operations nationally and internationally (Shito et al. 2012).

Certainly, the glorious victory of the Japanese national women's soccer team at the FIFA World Cup in July 2011, 4 months after the disaster, brought delightful news to the Japanese, who were still sunk in the darkness of the devastation.

The 2011 Great East Japan earthquake and tsunami undoubtedly changed Japanese values. They used to only pursue economic growth and the convenience of modern life and work frantically as not to be left behind by a rapidly developing society. The disasters brought about a reassertion among Japanese people of their traditional understanding that human relations – a human tie (or *Kizuna* in Japanese) – are important for society and that, beyond its provision of excitement, sport could also create ties and thus support and comfort people.

### ***15.1.2 Sport as a Culture from Abroad***

In Japan, the history of sport and transitions of its role are important to understand as a variety of sports, and their concepts were originally imported into Japan from abroad. That is, for Japanese people, sport is a culture that came from overseas (Uchiyumi 2011).

Western sports were first introduced into higher educational institutions like Tokyo University by professors from abroad who taught in Japan after the new Meiji government overthrew the Tokugawa Shogunate in 1867. The main outdoor sports that were introduced included boating, baseball, track and field, tennis, and soccer, and since 1886 sports clubs have been organized at each of the schools.

Those movements influenced the Japanese traditional martial arts, such as kendo, jujitsu (judo), and the Japanese art of archery (kyudo). They also established sports clubs in the alumni associations. In the 1900s, these clubs started competing by holding interschool matches. Today's "So-Kei-Sen," a traditional interschool baseball match between Waseda and Keio University, also began this way.

The Japan Amateur Sports Association (the Japanese Olympic Committee and the Japan Sports Association today) with President Jigoro Kano was established in 1911, and the following year, two athletes, Yahiko Mishima and Shizo Kanakuri, were sent to the 5th Olympic Games in Stockholm. Since then Japanese sport aimed at raising itself to the international level, and this goal was achieved as it was consolidated by forming sport-related organizations and mutual influence between the traditional martial arts and the sports from abroad.

Due to the historical background described above, the Japanese sports developed on the principle of a single sport item, where each athlete devoted himself/herself to a particular sport item for a long time. However, as society has changed more rapidly and dramatically, and Japanese sports have further matured, the Japanese have had different perspectives and desires towards sports recently. The preexisting sports systems, concepts, and perceptions could no longer satisfy the needs of the people. People have gradually come to consider that sports should aim to promote leisure rather than the mere pursuit of a single sport and that people should enjoy different kinds of sports depending on their life stages and lifestyles. That is, Japanese sports have entered into a new stage, and people seem to have already found new sports styles that the preexisting sports organizations had never imagined before (Ikeda et al. 2002).

## 15.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

The Japanese system for sports promotion is divided into four levels (see Fig. 15.1). The first level is the administrative organizations of the national and local governments. In general, the Sports Youth Bureau of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) at the national government level and the Boards of Education at the local government level are responsible for administering sports in Japan. However, at the regional government level, tasks for sports have been sometimes transferred from the communal Boards of Education to the related department of the prefectural government, according to the amendment of the “Act for Organization and Operation of the Communal Educational Administration” enacted in 2007.

The second level is the Japan Sport Council (JSC), one of the independent Japanese administrative agencies. The JSC is an organization that subsidizes projects related to lifelong sports as well as competitive sports through the “Sports Promotion Fund” and the “Sports Promotion Lottery.” The JSC operates the Japan Institute of Sports Sciences and the National Training Centers and plays an essential role in Japanese sports promotions.

The third level is the Japan Sports Association (JASA) and the Japan Olympic Committee (JOC) and their affiliated sports federations. JASA has responsibility for promoting national sports activities and the JOC for boosting our international competitive edge. They have shouldered significant responsibilities for promoting Japanese sports and they have made great contributions to this.

The last level is the Nippon Junior High School Physical Culture Association and the All-Japan High School Athletic Federation. They are in charge of promoting



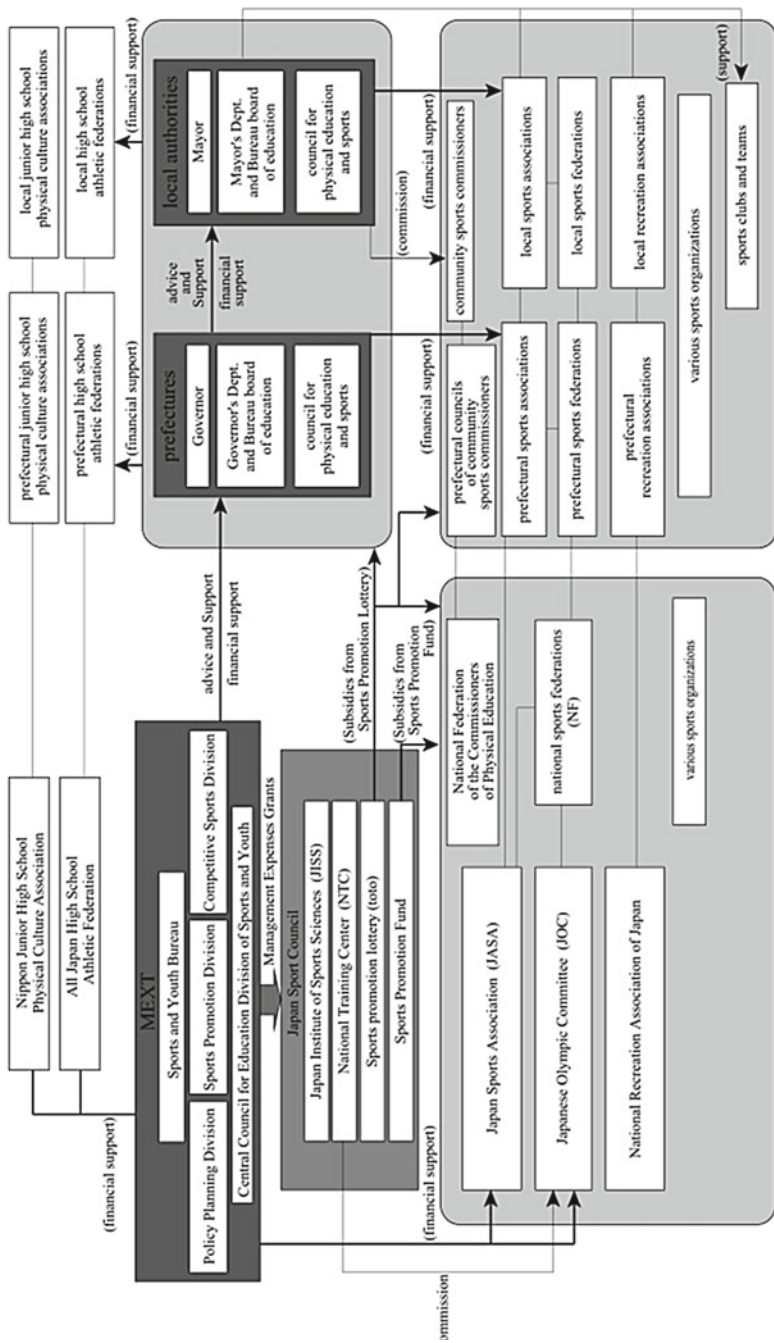
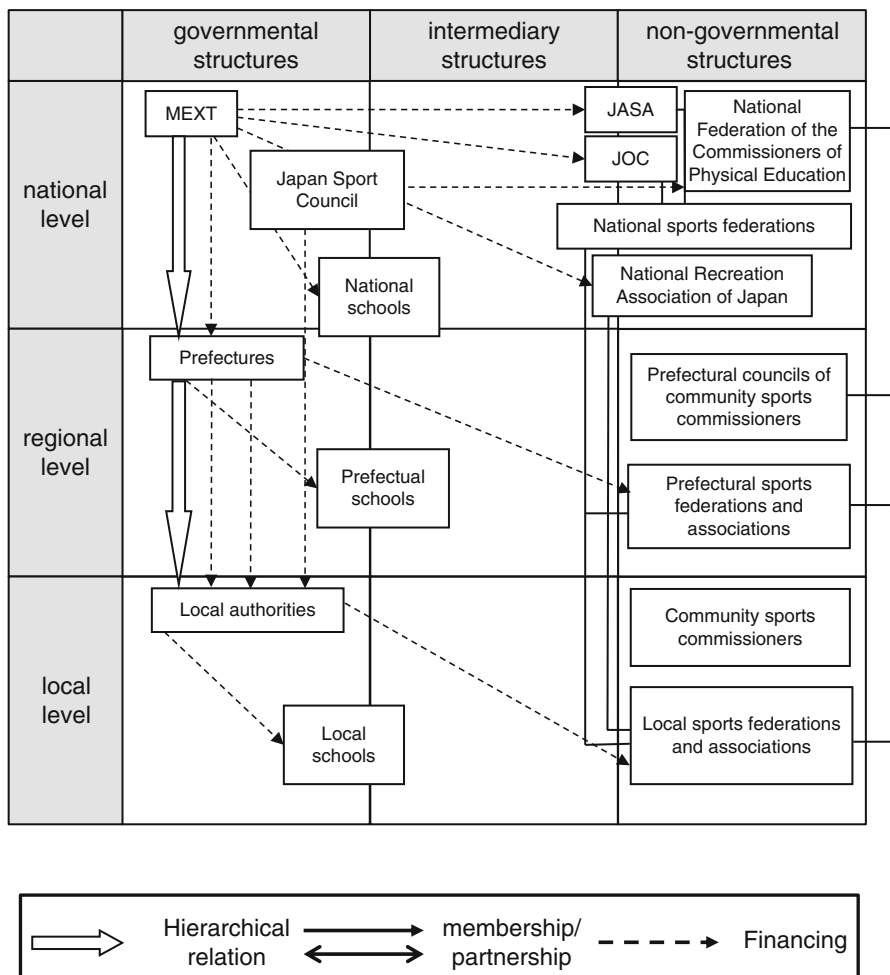


Fig. 15.1 Sports administration system in Japan



**Fig. 15.2** The Japanese sports system (simplified). Note: *JASA* Japan Sports Association, *JOC* Japanese Olympic Committee, *MEXT* Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology

physical education and extracurricular sport activity at Japanese junior high schools and high schools (Fig. 15.2).

Additionally, nonprofit organizations (NPOs) can be counted as those organizations supporting and promoting sports at the local level. According to a research conducted by Clubnets in December 2012, there were 4,422 so-called Sports NPOs that have been engaged in promoting sports, health, and recreation in communities. This number corresponds to about 10 % of total NPOs (45,311) in Japan.

In the following subsections, sports clubs in Japan are discussed with the existing challenges that they have faced. The characteristics of the Japanese community sports clubs are first summarized, followed by the comprehensive community sports clubs and private sports clubs.

### ***15.2.1 Characteristics of Community Sports Clubs***

Japan has many community sports clubs, although the development of such clubs is insufficient in comparison with those in European countries (Breuer and Kurosu 2010). A survey by the Japan Sport Club Association (2002) showed that there were approximately 350,000 community sports clubs in Japan and about 90 % of them were single-activity sports clubs and nearly 60 % were limited to a specific age group, and it was estimated that each of the clubs had 28 members on average. In the case of those small, single-activity sports clubs with a limited age-structure, the following three challenges can be pointed out.

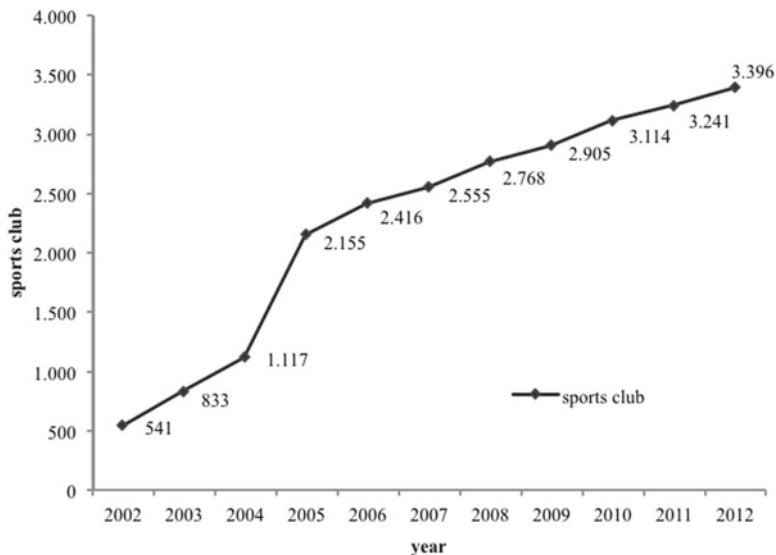
The first challenge is their management and administrative abilities. It has been stated that nearly one-fourth of the sports clubs would be closed down in the next 5–10 years. This would negatively affect those who want to continue playing sports in their communities and the efforts of sports clubs to build good relationships with local communities.

The second challenge relates to inefficiency in utilizing the sports facility. Unfortunately, sports clubs in Japan do not necessarily work in cooperation with each other. For instance, about 60 % of the sports clubs have appropriated a particular sports facility to themselves, which excludes non-club members from the facility in a definite time zone. This would prevent the facility from being used effectively. If every sports club is as demanding as they are today, unlimited numbers of facilities will be needed.

The third challenge concerns the generational bias of the sports club members. Due to this, prospective members need to find a sports club that fits their age. This is not an easy task in today's Japan, where there are numerous small-sized sports clubs and little information on them has been provided. Under those circumstances, it will be difficult for those who want to join a sport club and do sports to find a suitable club, which would lead them to give up looking for other clubs or even doing sports.

### ***15.2.2 Comprehensive Community Sports Clubs***

“Comprehensive community sports clubs” were founded on the initiative of the national government as a solution to the previously mentioned challenges and as a way of improving the sports environment in Japan (Kurosu 2003). Unlike traditional Japanese sports clubs, such as junior baseball clubs or housewives' volleyball clubs, which have specialized in a single sporting activity, the comprehensive community sports clubs were originally established in order to provide their members



**Fig. 15.3** A trend in the number of comprehensive community sports clubs

**Table 15.1** The membership and total number of use of private fitness clubs (2009)

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Number of facilities	2,049	2,541	3,040	3,269	3,388
Membership of clubs	3,970,519	4,178,690	4,103,462	4,009,082	3,952,970
Membership penetration rate (%)	3.10	3.27	3.21	3.14	3.10

with various options of sports programs so that the members can select the best program for them based on individual physical fitness levels and interests. The comprehensive community sports clubs are nonprofit organizations that are generally operated independently by residents of the local communities, aiming to facilitate an environment in which every generation of the residents can enjoy playing sports throughout their whole life, using adjacent sports facilities belonging to local schools and cities. According to the survey conducted by the MEXT in July 2012, 3,396 comprehensive sports clubs have been founded in 1,318 cities of Japan (see Fig. 15.3).

### 15.2.3 Private Fitness Clubs

Although the number of private fitness clubs had steadily increased from 2,049 in 2005 to 3,040 in 2007, and the data of 2009 in Table 15.1 counts 3,388 private fitness clubs, Table 15.1 shows that the number of private fitness club members reached its peak in 2006 and then continuously decreased. The number of members in 2009 fell below four million members for the first time since 2005 (see Table 15.1).

## 15.3 Financing of Sport

### 15.3.1 *The National Budget for Sports*

Figure 15.4 shows the development of the sports-related budget of the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. In spite of the nationwide Japanese financial difficulties, the sports-related budget steadily increased from JPY 12.2 billion (USD 136 million) in 2002 to JPY 18.7 billion (USD 208 million) in 2007 and to JPY 22.8 billion (USD 253 million) in 2011. Further, the budget in 2012 recorded the highest amount with JPY 23.8 billion (USD 264 million). Despite this fact, however, the amount occupied only 0.02 % of the total national fiscal budget in 2012 (JPY 90 trillion and JPY 333.9 billion). From this, it is therefore reasonable to say that sufficient funds for sports are not being budgeted. Within the budget for sports in the fiscal year 2012, JPY 16.3 billion (USD 181 million) were allocated for enhancing the performance of top-level athletes such as the Olympians, JPY 2.2 billion (USD 24 million) for improving local sports environments, and JPY 4.2 billion (USD 47 million) for improving physical education at schools. As seen in the previous distribution of the budget, more than 70 % of the sports-related budget was used for sports promotion policies aiming particularly at improving international competitiveness.

### 15.3.2 *The Budget of Local Government for Sports*

The survey conducted by MEXT has shown that the sum of the local sports-related budget of the fiscal year 2009 was JPY 501.5 billion (USD 5.57 billion), which was reduced by half, compared with JPY 1,008.4 billion (USD 11.2 billion) budgeted in 1995. The sum of 2009 was constituted as follows:

- JPY 92.6 billion (USD 1.03 billion) for all of the 47 prefectures in Japan
- JPY 53.3 billion (USD 592 million) for 12 ordinance-designated cities
- JPY 355 billion (USD 3.9 billion) for municipalities

The budget for sports comprised only 0.52 % of the total expenditures of local governments in 2009 (see Fig. 15.5). Local governments faced extremely severe financial conditions due to the decline of their tax revenue resulting from the Japanese economic downturn. Consequently, the local governments have been required to utilize the limited management resources wisely, such as personnel and administrative reforms, the PFI-system, and the collaboration between the governments and their citizens.

### 15.3.3 *Sports Funding from Sports Promotion Lottery*

The JSC has subsidized sports organizations and local governments for the purpose of promoting lifelong sports and enhancing the international competitiveness of

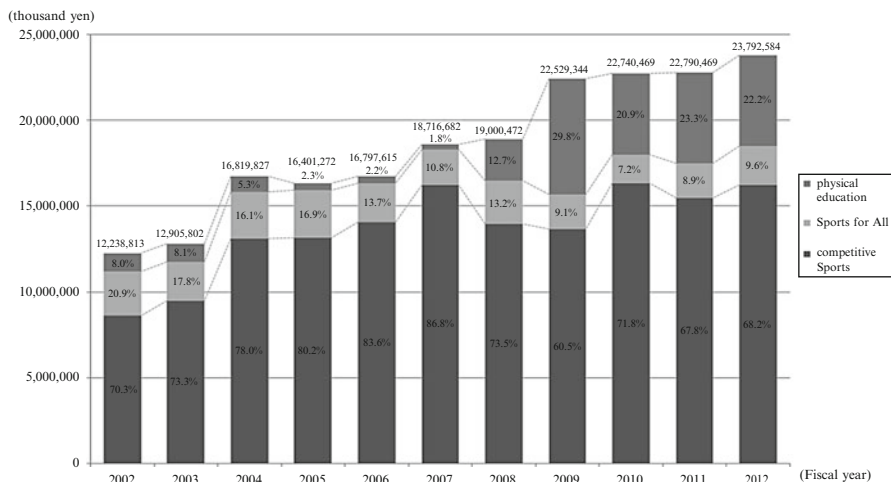


Fig. 15.4 National budget for sports

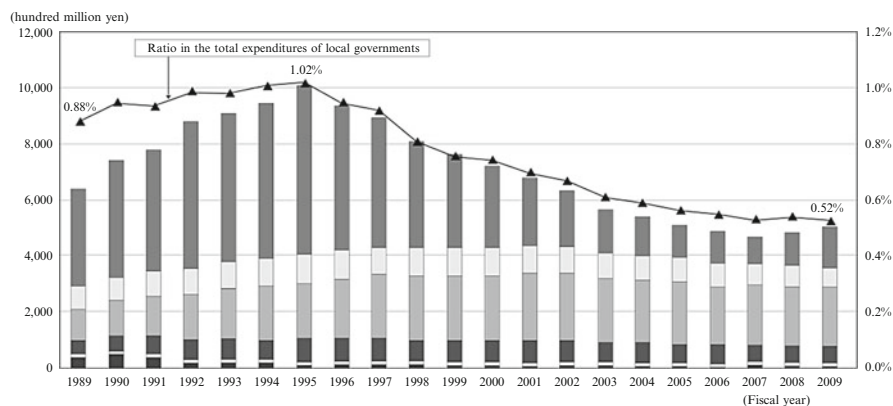
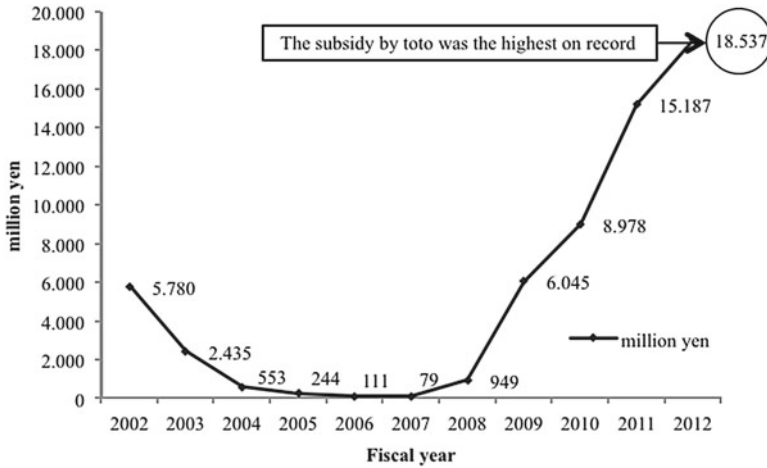


Fig. 15.5 Local government sports budget

Japanese athletes using resources from the “Sports Promotion Lottery” and the “Sports Promotion Fund.”

The Sports Promotion Lottery (known as “toto”) began with nationwide sales in 2001 and started to financially support projects in 2002. The total amount of lottery sales was JPY 62.4 billion (USD 693 million) in the first year; however, the amount declined tremendously by JPY 19.8 billion (USD 220 million) in 2003, and the institution itself was brought to a critical situation. Fortunately, however, sales recovered through business improvements and the new product “BIG” that achieved a sales amount of JPY 63.7 billion (USD 707 million) in 2007. BIG succeeded in producing more than JPY 80 billion (USD 888 million) in 2011. As a result, in the fiscal year 2012, the greatest profit of JPY 18,537,941,000 (USD 205 million) was distributed to 3,070 sports-related organizations (see Fig. 15.6; Japan Sport Council 2012).



**Fig. 15.6** Trend in subsidy for sports promotion from Sports Promotion Lottery



**Fig. 15.7** Total sales of toto

As 50 % of total sales of the toto lottery were used for prize payments and facilitation expenses, the rest of the 50 % became profits. Two-third of the profits was used for sports promotion activities: 50 % was distributed to sports-related organizations and the other 50 % was distributed to local governments. The rest of one-third was paid to the National Treasury (see Fig. 15.7).

There are two other important foundations for sports promotion: the “Sports Promotion Fund,” thanks to the national governmental investment of JPY 25 billion (USD 278 million) and private investments, and the Sasakawa Sports Foundation.

### 15.4 Sports Policy

At the national level the government has developed and implemented the following policies as of December 2012: (1) Strategy for Founding a Sport-Oriented Nation in 2010, (2) Basic Act on Sport in 2011, (3) Basic Sports Plan in 2012: “Activating Japan Through Sport!” and (4) Sports Administrative Agency Plan.

Based on those policies, this section discusses how the Japanese sports have been promoted below.

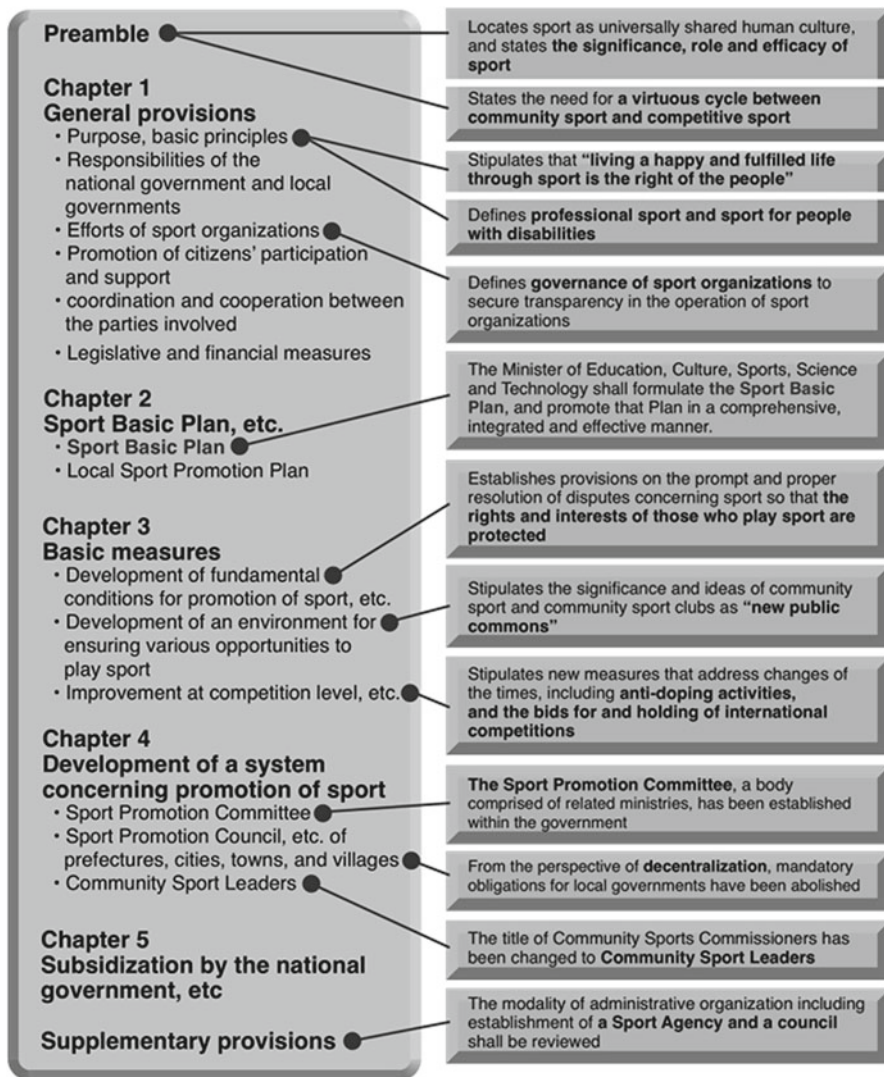


Fig. 15.8 The Basic Act on Sport

### 15.4.1 Basic Act on Sport

In June 2011, the “Sport Promotion Act” (1961) was revised for the first time in 50 years and the new “Basic Act on Sport” was established. The new law prescribes the direction in which Japanese sports should aim to proceed and clarifies the responsibilities of the national and the local public authorities and the roles of the existing sports organizations. It is made up of a preamble and 35 articles in five chapters (see Fig. 15.8).



### ***15.4.2 The Sport Basic Plan: “Activating Japan through Sport!”***

In March 2012, a basic plan for promoting sports came into effect, based on Article 9 of the “Basic Act on Sport.” This plan provided systematic and comprehensive measures of sports promotion for the following 5 years (2012–2016), taking into account the midterm outlook for the following 10 years.

The plan aims to achieve the following seven goals by 2022: (1) increasing sport opportunities for children at school and in local communities, (2) promotion of sport activities in line with the stages of life, (3) improvement of community sport environments where residents can actively participate, (4) training human resources and developing sport environments to enhance international competitiveness, (5) promotion of international exchanges and contributions through bids for and the holding of international competitions such as the Olympic and Paralympic Games, (6) improvement of transparency and fairness/equity in the sport world via the promotion of anti-doping and sport arbitration, and (7) promotion of coordination and cooperation between top sport and sport in local areas with the aim of creating a virtuous cycle in the sport world.

Each of the above goals has more detailed objectives, and the objectives, recommended measures to achieve them, the current situations of Japanese sports and their issues, and a blueprint for the policy in the future are all made in writing. Due to limited space, however, this section focuses on goals 1–3 and 7, the policy for promoting sports activities in the local areas.

The first objective above aims to elevate the physical ability of children beyond the 1975 level within the following 10 years. For this purpose the government has proposed to make efforts towards “forming the habit of regular physical activity from grade 1,” “employing at least one physical-education teacher at elementary school,” and “sending special coordinators to organize sports activities in elementary school.”

The second goal is intended to achieve three objectives: that (1) two-thirds of the people (approximately 65 % of the population) engage in sports activities once a week or more, (2) one-third of the people (approximately 30 % of the population) engage in sports activities three or more times weekly, and (3) the number of adults who do not engage in any sport in a year falls as close to zero as possible. For those objectives, the government has submitted the following proposals: “holding sports classes and events in which all family members can participate together,” “providing those who never or seldom play sports with opportunities to participate in any sports,” and “setting up a youth day, a ladies’ day and a no-overtime workday for sports.”

The third goal sets out to facilitate the provision of comprehensive community sports clubs, sports leaders, and sports facilities by local residents independently in order to improve the local sports environment. The following specific measures are proposed for this purpose: “building a local sports environment on the initiative of non-profitable organizational community sports clubs,” “training “club advisors” who are capable of giving comprehensive advice on finance, establishment, and management of a community sports club,” and “promoting good collaboration between local sports and companies or/and universities.”

The seventh aim is to “create a virtuous cycle in the sport world.” This has recommended stronger links between top level and local sports. For this purpose, the following measures are proposed: “finding out and training top athletes in the region from the next generation” and “allocating skilled coaches in the main sports clubs, and sending those coaches to the adjacent clubs” (MEXT 2012).

### ***15.4.3 A Structural Change in the Japanese Sports System***

As mentioned previously, important sports policies have been revised or enacted in recent years, and the sporting world is now entering into a transitional phase in Japan. One possible reason for this may be that the environments surrounding Japanese sport have significantly and dramatically changed recently. For example, the birth rate has plunged, while the number of aged has rocketed. The expenses related to medical and nursing care are increasing year after year. Those problems could not be solved only by an ad hoc therapy like reducing the medical costs. It is now necessary to take preventive measures against the problems; establishing the custom of doing sports from childhood could enable people to enjoy a better, healthier future, for instance. It should also be noted that community-based professional sports and big sports events could stimulate the regional economy and invigorate the community. By focusing on sports as mentioned above, the existing businesses and community policies could come to have another option for reactivating the region. Due to the progress of urbanization and the changes in Japanese lifestyles, the Japanese came to have less sense of community solidarity. In this situation, sports are expected to produce opportunities for interchange between children and other residents and so to reestablish ties in the community. It has been also scientifically confirmed that community sports clubs can play a role of building and accumulating social capital as the residents communicate with one another at the clubs, and this can contribute to forming good mutual relationships among the people (Okayasu et al. 2010). From these points, it could be said that today’s sports can no longer work merely for promoting the interests of sport, as defined more narrowly; however, they can go a long way, and can play a partial role at least, in solving social issues as well.

## **15.5 Sport Participation**

### ***15.5.1 Sports Activities***

A survey conducted by the Japanese Cabinet Office in September 2009 on physical strength and sports activities showed that 45.3 % (male: 46.3 %; female: 44.5 %) of the adult participants did some sports and physical activities at least once a week (see Figs. 15.9 and 15.10). The comparisons with previous results, namely, 37.2 %

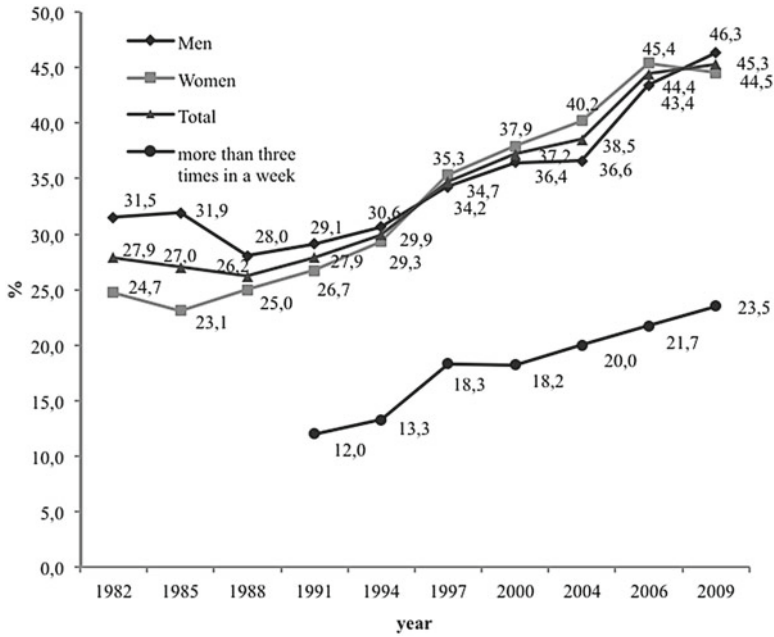


Fig. 15.9 Trends in participation in sport at least once a week (20 years and older), 1982–2009 (%)

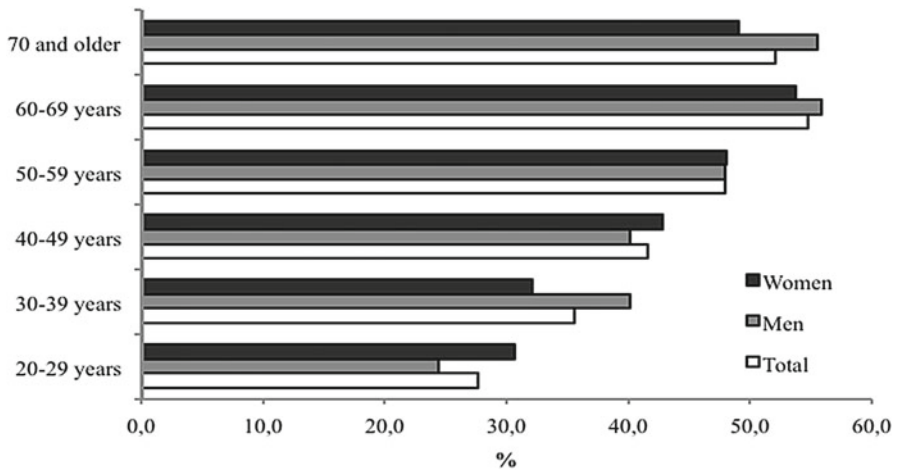


Fig. 15.10 Sport participation rates by age group, men and women

in 2000, 38.5 % in 2004, and 44.4 % in 2006, showed a mild but definite increase in the sports participation ratio. However, it was also notable that the young generation aged between 20 and 30 years showed the lowest ratio of sports participation through all generations (see Figs. 15.9 and 15.10) (Cabinet Office 2011).

**Table 15.2** The ranking of participation in sports and physical activities by adults (Top 10)

	2000		2004		2008		2010	
1	Walking/strolling	33.6	Strolling	34.0	Strolling	30.8	Strolling	34.8
2	Calisthenics and light exercises	19.7	Walking	21.6	Walking	22.4	Walking	24.5
3	Bowling		Calisthenics and light exercises	18.6	Calisthenics and light exercises	17.5	Calisthenics and light exercises	18.5
4	Swimming	12.0	Bowling	16.4	Bowling	15.1	Bowling	13.3
5	Fishing	11.9	Weight training	9.6	Weight training	11.1	Weight training	11.5
6	Sea bathing	11.2	Fishing		Swimming	9.0	Golf (on the course)	9.0
7	Golf (on the course)	11.0	Sea bathing	9.5	Sea bathing	8.9	Jogging and running	8.5
8	Golf (golf range)	10.4	Swimming	9.3	Golf (on the course)	8.7	Fishing	
9	Hiking	8.8	Golf (on the course)	9.2	Playing catch	8.0	Golf (golf range)	8.2
10	Skiing	8.5	Golf (golf range)	8.1	Cycling	7.9	Playing catch	8.1

### 15.5.2 *The Sports Participation Measured by Sports and Physical Activities*

The “National Sport-Life Survey” carried out by the Sasakawa Sports Foundation (SSF) in February 2011 investigated the top 10 sports and physical activities that the research participants took part in at least once in the previous 12 months. According to the results of the survey, the top five sports and physical activities were as follows: (1) strolling (34.8 %), (2) walking (24.5 %), (3) calisthenics and light exercises (18.5 %), (4) ten-pin bowling (13.3 %), and (5) weight training (11.5 %).

In addition, golf (9.0 %), jogging and running (8.5 %), and fishing (8.5 %) were also popular sports and physical activities (see Table 15.2). Those results revealed that simple exercises were popular among the participants as they could be done individually and easily in order to stay healthy or improve health conditions (SSF, 2011).

## 15.6 Conclusion

### 1. Paradigm Shift

Sports in Japan have traditionally developed mainly at schools which have fulfilled a variety of roles, disseminating and promoting sports, while also developing top athletes. Since schools play a central role in sports activities in Japan, the

opportunities to continue a regular participation in sports decrease sharply once people have graduated. Some companies have their own sports club, but these clubs are often only for top athletes, and so even if there are sports clubs, they may be inadequate in meeting all the employees' needs for sport. If it became possible to stimulate sport activities in the community, it would be easier for people to continue enjoying sports even after leaving school and entering the workforce.

## **2. Promoting Sport Among Citizens Who Do Not Engage in It**

Sports policy hitherto has not really tried hard to address citizens who do no sport, on grounds of individual free will. Yet, it is important to build on this group participation and cooperation to make the necessary structural changes to the system of sport. This makes it important in future to set up a program that is attractive to them and to offer facilities such as day care for children so that they can do sport in a carefree environment.

## **3. Promoting Sport Among Young People**

It is important for young people to become familiar with a variety of sports. This is essential for most young people to acquire the knack for sport in later years, whereas it is also important for those who aim to compete in sports at a higher level to develop a solid foundation by playing various sports at a younger age. It is well known that most elite athletes are multitalented and the earlier they try out several types of sport, the higher their achievements will be at top levels. One valuable outcome of changing and varying the types of sport we do is that a greater variety of sports will be played by several generations.

## **4. Promoting Sport Among the Older Generation**

In an aging society, it is important for older adults to have a worthwhile purpose in life and to be able to lead enjoyable lives. Because the large aging population is likely to encounter unnecessary health problems and higher medical insurance costs because of a sedentary lifestyle, it is urgent to develop effective and efficient promotion strategies appropriate for this vast target population in Japan. In this context, an episode from a waiting room in a hospital in Japan will be presented: At about the same time, the same elderly people get together and chat in the waiting room of the hospitals. One person might say, "I haven't seen such and such a person recently, maybe she's fallen sick." Everybody becomes concerned about her possible state of health. But, this is a hospital! It's a waiting room in the hospital, and it's just become a place for people to socialize. So, maybe it's actually a statement that, in Japan, there are very energetic elderly people and they should not be in hospitals. They should be in sports clubs.

## **5. Training of Sport Instructors**

Without the support and commitment of sport instructors, sport in Japan could not have reached the levels it has attained today. Their selfless contribution alone has given us the type of sporting environment Japanese now enjoy. On the other hand, the sport system is facing a big challenge. With structural changes happening throughout Japan, structural reform in sport is also needed. Above all, the training of sports instructors has to correspond also to the growing and increasingly complex needs of our citizenry. It is urgent to develop a training system

that can produce professionally trained personnel (instructors and managers) attuned to the greater variety of needs in modern society.

#### 6. **Comprehensive Community Sports Clubs**

A club is just a base on which whole buildings can be erected, enjoying engaging in sport as one moves through life maintaining contact between individuals and generations. The environment must be attuned to these goals so that everyone can obtain the greatest satisfaction from the performed sports. To achieve these ends, regional support for and enterprise in new sport facilities must be promoted. It will be helpful if money from the sports lottery could be spent to get such new undertakings up and running, along with effective management of these public sports facilities.

#### 7. **Policy Mix**

Reform of the sport system through the setting up of comprehensive community sports clubs can be a model for cooperation between citizens and national and local authorities in enabling living communities to develop. But at the same time, it can also be an effective solution to problems caused by social changes in recent years. It is imperative, however, to see sport and sports policy not only as conventionally framed by the Education Ministry and provincial education authorities but also in a more systematic way that is, from a variety of viewpoints, working in conjunction with health policy, economic policy, and community policy. It is of growing importance to promote sport systematically and in the context of this “policy mix.”

#### 8. **Creating a Sustainable Society**

Nowadays it is essential to build a sustainable society for future generations. For this purpose it is necessary to build a fair-minded way of living in which the human rights of every person are respected, to make an environmentally friendly society in which a harmonious coexistence with all living things is assured, and to realize a friendly and peaceful world based on mutual reliability. Sport will be a culture which has the same tasks. Sport has the wherewithal to gain recognition and to function as a capital culture. As a factor in the attainment and maintenance of a fulfilling and truly prosperous way of living, sport needs to be acknowledged as an indispensable part of the universal culture of the human being.

#### *Notes*

1. All USD amounts are based on the current exchange rate of USD 1 = JPY 90.
2. A book with a title of “The World in 2050,” which was edited by the editor team of Great Britain’s economic magazine “The Economist,” is one of the best sellers in Japan. The author tells his prediction that “the number of nonworking dependents and that of working adults will be equivalent in Japan in 2050. The average age of the people will rise to 52.3 years old. Japan will be the most aging society in the world.” If our society develops as predicted in this book, it will be inevitable that the national labor productivity will decline and, as a result, the national power will shrink ([The Economist 2012](#)). However, any other country in the world has never experienced such an aging society. The whole world will take notice of how Japan as a first nation will construct a suitable social system for such an aging society.

**Acknowledgment** The Author would like to thank Mr. Yusaku Morioka of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology and Ms. Yasuko Kudo of Sasakawa Sports Foundation for their research contributions.

## References

- Breuer, C., & Kurosu, M. (2010). *Analysis of the situation of sport clubs in Germany* (Japaneseth ed.). Tokyo: Soubun-Kikaku.
- Cabinet Office. (2011). *National survey on physical fitness and sport*. Tokyo: Cabinet Office.
- Ikeda, M., Yamaguchi, Y., & Chogahara, M. (2002). *Sport for all in Japan* (2nd ed.). Tokyo: Sasakawa Sports Foundation.
- Japan Sport Council. (2012). *The amount of distribution of profit in 2012*.
- Japan Sport Club Association. (2002). *Sports journal for sports instructors* (Vol. 245).
- Kurosu, M. (2003). Can we change? The new sports movement in Japan. *Journal of Asiana Sport For All*, 4(1), 15–26.
- Megachange – The World in 2050 (Japanese edition). (2012). *The Economist Newspaper Ltd.*
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). (2012). *The sport basic plan – activating Japan through sport! MEXT*. Japan: Office for Sport Policy Planning.
- Okayasu, I., Kawahara, Y., & Nogawa, H. (2010). The relationship between community sport clubs and social capital in Japan. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 45(2), 163–186.
- Sasakawa Sports Foundation (SSF). (2011). *Sport white paper in Japan digest*.
- Shito, M., Kurosu, M., & Sato, S. (2012). The relief activities for Tohoku earthquake victims and community rebuilding by the NPO folder. *Journal of Japan Society of Sports Industry*, 22(1), 237–244.
- Uchiumi, K. (2011). 13 Japan. In M. Nicholson, R. Hoye, & B. Houlihan (Eds.), *Participation in sport – international policy perspectives* (pp. 209–222). London: Routledge.

# Chapter 16

## India

Packianathan Chelladurai, Usha Nair, and Sheila Stephen

### 16.1 Introduction

India is the second most populous country in the world after China with more than 1.2 billion people which is equivalent to 17.14 % of the world population. Apart from the sheer size, the Indian population is characterized by extensive diversity in terms of religion (e.g., Hinduism, Sikhism, Buddhism, Jainism, and Christianity), languages (22 official languages), culture, and ethnicity. The Indian population is composed largely of two ethnic groups: Indo-Aryans (72 %) and Dravidians (25 %) who are found in the southern states of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu.

In economic terms, India is the tenth largest economy in the world with the gross domestic product of 1.872 trillion dollars. However, when this figure is converted to purchasing power parity (PPP; i.e., the sum value of all goods and services produced in the country valued at prices prevailing in the United States), it becomes USD 4.531 trillion (The World Bank 2013). That would rank India third after United States and China. But the prosperity indicated by this high ranking is in fact a mirage because this wealth has to be shared by more than 1.2 billion and the resultant per capita income is only USD 3,652.00 placing India 125th in the world. The rate of the growth of the economy is more than 7 %, a very respectable figure indeed, and much higher than in the case of several Western nations.

India is the largest functioning democracy in the world and is a federal system consisting of 28 states run by elected governments and seven Union territories

---

P. Chelladurai (✉)

College of Health and Human Performance, Troy University, Troy, AL, USA

e-mail: chella@troy.edu

U. Nair

Lakshmbai College of Physical Education, Trivandrum, India

S. Stephen

Y.M.C.A. College of Physical Education, Chennai, India



administered by the President of India through an appointed Administrator (Know India 2013). Interestingly, when the British ruled India, they created provinces in a way that most provinces covered people speaking two or more different languages in almost equal proportions. This decision was a reflection of their divide and rule policy. When India got its independence, one of the first acts of the new Government of India was to redraw the provincial borders in line with the dominant language spoken in the region.

Even though conflicts occur among groups defined by religion, ethnicity, language, and caste, India thrives as a democracy where all segments of society are respected. For instance, the 2013 prime minister of India is a Sikh representing a minority of less than 2 % of the population, and the most powerful political figure is Sonya Gandhi, an Italian-born Catholic. This simply shows that India is quite a democratic state characterized by tolerance and acceptance of diversity so rare elsewhere in the political world.

### ***16.1.1 Sports Culture in India***

Like many other ancient civilizations, India had held a tradition of sports and physical fitness from its Vedic times. Hinduism, almost the only religion in the country at that time, promoted the virtues of physical perfection based on a clear understanding of the body and its functions. One manifestation of this tradition is the practice of *yoga*, “an ancient discipline designed to bring balance and health to the physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual dimensions of the individual” (Ross and Thomas 2010). Of all the physical activities, *yoga* is truly of Indian origin and is now practiced all over the world.

Moreover, the epics of *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana* extolled the competitive successes of their heroes in physical activities. The five Pandava brothers of *Mahabharata* specialized and excelled in specific physical activities. Dronacharya was the mentor and coach of these five heroes. These figures are held as models even today. For instance, the highest award granted by the Government of India for a sports person is the *Arjuna Award* named after the famous archer and one of the Pandava brothers. The highest award for a coach is named the *Dronacharya Award*. *Maruthi*, one of the heroes of *Ramayana*, is idolized for his physical prowess. In fact, a leading school of physical education in South India is named Maruthi College of Physical Education after the hero of *Ramayana*.

### ***16.1.2 Sports in Modern India***

The modern games of field hockey, soccer, and cricket were introduced by the British. The extent to which the Indians took to these games seriously is evidenced

by the facts that (a) India had won six consecutive Olympic gold medals in field hockey from the years 1928 to 1956, and again in 1964 and 1980; (b) has the second largest soccer specific stadium in the world at a capacity of 120,000 in Kolkata (Football Stadia 2010); and (c) has become a dominant nation in international cricket. As of March 26, 2013, the International Cricket Council (ICC) ranked India 3rd in the world in 5-day Test Matches, 1st in One Day International (ODI) matches, and 3rd in Twenty20 matches (ESPN 2013).

Cricket is the most popular sport in India despite the fact that it is an expensive sport in terms of playing fields and equipment. The national fervor and frenzy over cricket grew dramatically after independence. The media, the politicians, and the masses were keen that the Indian cricket team should beat the team from Britain, the former masters. Currently, India can boast of having the world's showcase tournament for Twenty20 cricket, a shorter format of cricket consisting of only 20 overs. It is the Indian Premier League, the world's richest cricket tournament, valued at nearly USD 3 billion (Bhat 2012).

Apart from its excellence in cricket, India's sporting performance on the world stage has been dismal. In the London Olympics India secured two silver and four bronze medals, the best ever performance by India at the Olympics. India fared better in the last Commonwealth Games held in New Delhi in 2010. India took the second place behind Australia securing 38 gold, 27 silver, and 36 bronze medals. Once again, this was India's best ever performance in that event. In fact, Ramchandani and Wilson (2012) noted that India overachieved in securing gold medals, total medals, total points (three for gold, two for silver, and one for bronze), and market share (points won as a percentage of total points awarded).

In the latest 2010 Asian Games in Guangzhou, China, India was ranked 7th with 14 gold medals, 17 silver medals, and 33 bronze medals for a total of 64 medals. This is also the best ever Indian performance at the Asian Games. While the number of medals won in the Olympic, Asian, and Commonwealth Games is not impressive, it must be born in mind that these are the best ever performance of the Indian team in these games. This is an indication that India may be at the verge of breaking into the league of high-performing nations.

## **16.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport**

### ***16.2.1 The Sport System***

The Sports Authority of India, a unit of the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports (MYAS), recognizes 62 national sports federations (NSF); some of these are umbrella organizations such as the Indian Olympic Association and Association of Indian Universities. Figure 16.1 illustrates the relationships among governmental and nongovernmental agencies involved in sport.

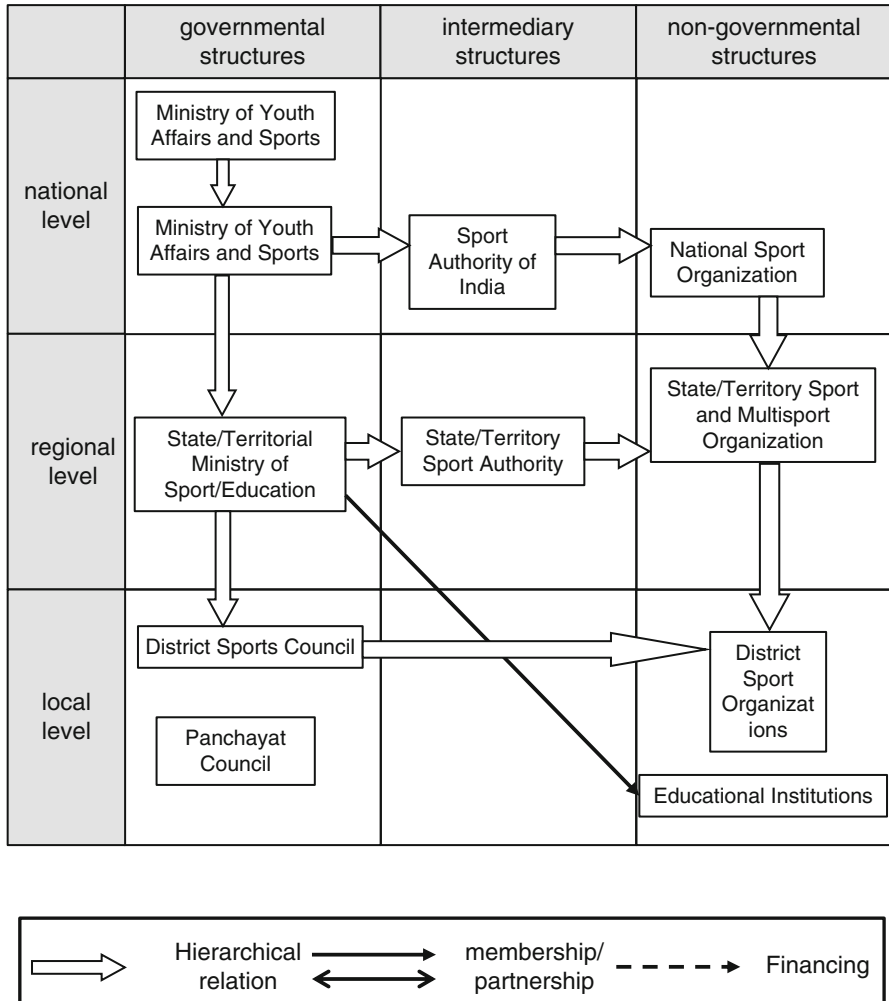


Fig. 16.1 The structure of sport in India

### 16.2.2 Government Agencies Involved in Sport

The primary agency of the Indian federal government that is concerned with sports is the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports. In 1982, the government set up a Department of Sports in conjunction with the IX Asian Games in Delhi. It was renamed as Department of Youth Affairs and Sport to coincide with the celebration of the International Youth Year in 1985. The department became a full-fledged ministry in 2000 with the same name. Finally, a specialized Department of Sports was created in 2008 to be sufficiently independent of the Department of Youth Affairs.

As of 2012, there were two bureaus within the Department of Sports. The Sports Bureau is in charge of all programs and activities of the department, while the International Sports Division handles the upgrades to its stadia, training venues, several areas related to the organizing committee of the 2010 Commonwealth Games (CWG), and the preparation of teams for the 2010 CWG.

The Department of Sports has several schemes to achieve its mission of promoting sport and sporting excellence. The more notable schemes include the Assistance for the creation of Urban Sports Infrastructure, Assistance to National Sports Federations, Talent Search and Training, National Welfare Fund Sportspersons, National Sports Championship for Women, *Panchayat Yuva Krida aur Khel Abhiyan* (PYKKA) providing for basic sport infrastructure at the grassroots level in the villages and blocks of villages, National Playing Fields Association of India, and Awards for Outstanding Sports Persons (Department of Sports 2013b).

### ***16.2.3 Sports Authority of India (SAI)***

As indicated earlier, an integral unit of the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports is the Sports Authority of India (SAI) as its field arm to carry out several of the sport-related policies of the government. Its promotional schemes are designed to support and nurture sports talent and provide necessary infrastructure, equipment, coaching, and competition exposure. It is in charge of three academic units. The National Institute of Sports offers masters and diploma courses in coaching and sports medicine. The Lakshmbai National College of Physical Education in Thiruvananthapuram and the Lakshmbai National University of Physical Education in Gwalior are devoted to training physical education professionals and researchers. In addition, it is also responsible for maintaining the Jawaharlal Nehru Stadium, Indira Gandhi Stadium, Major Dhyan Chand National Stadium, Dr. Shyama Prasad Mukherjee Swimming Pool Complex, and Dr. Karni Singh Shooting Ranges. With a view to promote sport and nurture talent, the SAI has also instituted schemes known as (a) Centers of Excellence Scheme, (b) SAI Training Centers (STC) scheme, (c) Special Area Games (SAG) scheme, (d) National Sports Talent Contest (NSTC) scheme, and Army Boys Sports Companies (ABSC) scheme.

### ***16.2.4 Nongovernmental Sport Organizations***

For the most part, the nongovernmental sport organizations in India are composed of the national sport governing bodies including the Indian Olympic Association and their counterparts at the state, district, and panchayat (village) levels. While the constituent members of a national sport governing body are the representatives of the state and territory level sport governing bodies of a given sport, two large central government units are also members of most of the national sport governing bodies.

They are the Railway Sports Promotion Board of the Indian Railways (a Government of India undertaking) and Services Sports Control Board of the armed forces of India. These organizations are given due recognition in the governance of a given sport because they do recruit and hire to their ranks outstanding athletes in various sports, and they field very competitive teams in various competitions recognized by a sport governing body including the national championships. Further, the regional units of Indian Railways (e.g., Southern Railways) field their own teams in various tournaments. Similarly, the army, the navy, and the air force (and their internal commands) may also field their own teams in various tournaments. Both the Railway Sports Promotion Board and the Services Sports Control Board also stage their own national championships for their constituent units.

Another interesting feature of sport in India is the involvement of business and industrial enterprises (both governmental and nongovernmental) recruiting and hiring top-level athletes in various sports and field highly competitive teams in local competitions. However, they do not participate in the national championships organized by the national sport governing body of a given sport. Some examples of those enterprises that are heavily involved in sport are Punjab Police, Indian Army, Integral Coach Factory, Northwestern Railway (governmental enterprises), and Tata Steel, Vijaya Bank (nongovernmental enterprises). For many an athlete, these enterprises are havens for pursuing excellence in their respective sport while at the same providing a base for their career after athletics.

## 16.3 Financing of Sport

In the 2013–2014 budget of the Government of India, INR 792.72 crore has been allocated to sports and games (Times of India 2013b). Bearing in mind that a crore is equivalent to 10 million and an approximate exchange rate of USD 1 equals INR 50, the budget allocation amounts to just over USD 158.544 million. If the ppp (purchasing power parity) conversion factor of 18.77 is applied, the worth of the budget allotment increases to USD 2975.87 million or USD 2.976 billion. Table 16.1 lists the 2010–2011 budget estimates for various schemes of the Department of Sports of the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports.

## 16.4 Sport Policies

### 16.4.1 Government Involvement in Sport

There are two reasons why the federal government of India should not be involved. First, the Government of India itself recognizes that the overall development of sports and governance thereof are the responsibility of the Indian Olympic Association (IOA) and the national sports federations (NSFs). Second, the Indian

**Table 16.1** 2010–2011 budget estimates for various schemes of the Department of Sports of the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports

Schemes of the department of sports	Budget estimate in INR crores	In USD millions
Sports authority of India	287.00	57.40
Lakshmbai national university of physical education	27.00	5.40
Incentive for promotion of sports activities		
1. Awards	9.00	1.80
2. Pension for meritorious athletes	6.50	1.30
Assistance to promotion of sports excellence		
1. Assistance to national sports federations	150.00	30.00
2. Talent search and training	8.00	1.60
Promotion of sports among disabled	8.52	1.70
Commonwealth games, 2012	1,454.98	291.00
Anti-doping activities	15.00	3.00
National sports development funds	15.00	3.00
Panchayat yuva krida aur khel abhiyan (PYKKA)	379.00	75.80
Urban sports infrastructure	93.00	18.60
Total for sports and physical education schemes	2,453.00	490.60

Source: Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports (2010)

constitution states that sport comes under the purview of state governments in their respective states (Seventh Schedule). Given these two conditions, one could argue that there is no need for a ministry of sport at the center. But yet the Government of India has been quite involved in the regulation of sport and the sport governing bodies. In its most recent policy statement (Government of India 2011), the Indian government argues with citations from the Supreme Court of India and other high courts that sport is a public good and sport development is a public function. Further, the sport governing bodies perform “state-like functions such as the selection of national teams and representing the country in international sports events and forums.” Therefore, it is legitimate for the government to try to regulate national sports federations.

It is important to note that the Indian government invokes the edicts of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in formulating its own guidelines for the national sport federations. More specifically, it is said to be consistent with the “Basic Universal Principles of Good Governance” proposed by the IOC and endorsed by the Olympic Congress in 2009. It is also said to follow the IOC Code of Ethics which states that “the basic universal principles of good governance of the Olympic and sports movement, in particular transparency, responsibility and accountability, must be respected by all Olympic Movement constituents.”

The major reform initiatives suggested by the government include the following:

- Limits on duration of tenure of office bearers of the IOA and the NSFs
- Guidelines for good governance
- Annual recognition of national sports federations

- Measures to combat fraud in age of players
- Prevention of sexual harassment of women in sports
- Notifying IOA and NSFs as public authority under Right to Information Act
- Drawing up of an advance calendar of sporting events
- National anti-doping rules
- Guidelines for efficient management of coaching camps, selection of coaches, selection of athletes, etc.
- Representation of Indian nationals only in national teams

The Code also notes that failure to comply with these guidelines would result in the concerned organization:

- Not being able to select its national team and represent India abroad
- Not being allowed to use the word India in its name
- Losing its ability to regulate and control the concerned sports discipline in the country
- Losing custom duty exemption for import of sports goods and sports equipment
- Losing income tax exemptions
- Not being able to remit funds abroad

In addition, those who participate in the competitions organized by the unrecognized NSFs will not be considered for appointment to government jobs under sports quota, may not be able to get admissions under sports quota in schools and colleges, and shall not be entitled for railway concession or other concessions granted to sports persons. It must be noted that penalties relating to custom duty, income tax, appointment to government jobs, admission to colleges, and railway concessions are in fact withdrawal of government incentives offered to sportspersons.

As for the tenure of office bearers, the Code citing the policies and practices of the IOC itself, specifies that (a) the president of any NSF cannot hold office for more than 12 years with or without breaks, and (b) the secretary and treasurer of a NSF can serve for only two terms of 4 years each and has to wait for another 4 years before running for election again. In addition, the Code also sets the age limit to 70 years of age as is the case with the IOC.

While the foregoing guidelines are straight forward, it is appalling that a national government has to step in to say how the coaching camps should be conducted and how the coaches and team players are to be selected. This is just an indication of the sorry state of affairs in the management of sport governing bodies in the country.

The Code also delineates roles and responsibilities of the two significant actors on the national sport scene outlined earlier. The SAI would determine (a) the eligibility of NSFs for recognition, (b) the quantum assistance to NSFs, (c) lay down the conditions for government support, and (d) provide assistance to NSFs for long-term development. SAI would also facilitate the identification, training, and coaching of athletes by providing support including infrastructure, equipment, and such other assistance as envisaged in the long-term development plans. Further, the SAI will be responsible for the release of funds to NSFs as approved by the government.

The NSFs are expected to be fully responsible and accountable for “the overall management, direction, control, regulation, promotion, development and sponsorship of the discipline for which they are recognized by the concerned International Federation.” Further, these managerial practices should be consistent with “the principles laid down in the Olympic Charter or in the charter of the Indian Olympic Association or the relevant International Federation, as the case may be while being compliant with Government guidelines applicable to NSFs.”

The Indian Olympic Association and other NSFs resisted the implementation of these guidelines. In fact, they took the government to court on this issue in late 2012. But the court ruled in favor of the government and told the IOA and NSFs to abide by the newly issued Code. The IOA went ahead with its elections following the guidelines of the Code but without changing its constitution to be consistent with the Code. In the process, an individual who was charged with corruption and jailed was elected as the General Secretary of the IOA. This has irked the International Olympic Committee which banned the IOA in late December 2012 on the grounds that there was too much interference by the government in the affairs of the IOA. But this stance is somewhat inconsistent with the resolution of the XIII Olympic Congress held at Copenhagen in 2009 to the effect each National Olympic Committee is required to be fully compliant with the laws of the land. A meeting between the IOC and Indian officials including the IOC member from India and the Minister of sport is scheduled to take place in early May 2013. It is hoped that the issue will be amicably resolved.

### ***16.4.2 Government Initiatives in Advancing Excellence in Sports***

While acknowledging that the autonomous national sports federations are responsible for sports promotion, the government has taken on the role of advancing the achievement of excellence in various competitive events at the national and international levels (Department of Sports 2013a). Accordingly, the ministry had embarked on schemes such as the Scheme for Preparation of Indian Athletes for Commonwealth Games 2010 and “Operation Excellence for London Olympics-2012” (OPEX-London-2012). These schemes facilitated comprehensive and intensive training within India and abroad as well and participation in international sports competitions. The sports included in the OPEX-2012 Scheme were archery, athletics, badminton, boxing, gymnastics (artistic-men), hockey, judo, rowing, sailing, shooting, swimming, table tennis, taekwondo, tennis, weightlifting, and wrestling (OPEX-London2012 2012).

As for the future, the sport authority of India has launched “Vision 2020,” an ambitious plan to win 25–30 medals in the 2020 Olympics (NDTV sports 2013). The financial outlay is said to be INR 984 crores (or approximately USD 178 M). It is planned to identify the talent at the ages of 13–15 years and groom them in the next 6–7 years to be champions by engaging them in national coaching camps and



exposing them to international competitions. It is envisaged that approximately 2,500 talented individuals would be trained in this scheme. While each of them will be provided a stipend of INR 3,000 per month, there is also an incentive of INR three lakhs (or INR 300,000) for individuals who qualify for the 2020 Olympics and INR 1½ lakhs (or INR 150,000) for team members who qualify for the same event.

Readers will recognize that the above schemes resemble those of other high-performing countries. It is interesting that the new and vigorous efforts by the Indian Government to achieve more medals in international competitions follow the best ever performances of Indian athletes in the Asian, Commonwealth Games, and the Olympics. It is reflective of the saying that *success breeds success*. One could argue that the scheme's budget of USD 178 million is rather low. When compared to annual budgets of nearly USD 150 million of some of the American university athletic departments, the proposed budget for Vision 2020 would seem paltry. But we should recognize that the amount increases nearly twentyfold when converted to purchasing power parity. We should also take into account that the per capita income in India is only INR 5,729 per month (Times of India 2013a). From this perspective, the allocated budget is not paltry at all. Irrespective of the actual amount allotted, it is the idea that the national government has set its sight on medals in international competitions and that it has the confidence that India will do well in the future that will spark the enthusiasm among sportspersons and foster the pursuit of excellence in their respective activities. As Chelladurai and Robinson (2012) have argued, it is not the financial outlay but the soft and moral support from the government and the media that will create a national psyche over sport, which, in turn, will spur talented individuals to persist in the pursuit of excellence.

## 16.5 Sport Participation

It is unfortunate that there are no reliable databases on the extent of participation in physical activity. But there are other reports that indicate the low level of physical activity among the population. For instance, in its comprehensive sport policy of 2007 being revised in 2013, the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports estimates “that approximately 72 crore out of an estimated 77 crore of our population below the age of 35 has little or no access to organized sports and games, thus indicating the extent to which previous sports policies have not succeeded in promoting “Sports for All” (Press Information Bureau 2007).

The level of physical activity among the masses in any country is influenced by two critical factors: facilities and programs. With this in mind, the Ministry of Sports of the Government of India supports building of sports facilities at the grass-roots level through the state governments. The plan calls for the Government of India to provide 25 % of the cost of such infrastructure, the state government to cover 50 % of the cost, and the remaining 25 % of the cost was expected to be generated at the district level where the facility will be built. While sports enthusiasts and

physical education professionals may claim more funds for this grand scheme, what is disheartening is that the meager amounts available are not well spent.

### ***16.5.1 Sport in Tamil Nadu***

The following comments relate to the state of Tamil Nadu, one of the 28 states of India. Tamil Nadu, situated in the southernmost part of India, is one of the largest and most populous states in India (Government of Tamilnadu 2013). It consists of 30 districts each of which are subdivided into *taluks*. The Sports Development Authority of Tamil Nadu (SDAT) is the government agency that carries out the policies of the state government. Its proposed budget for the year 2013–2014 is INR 112.5 crores or approximately USD 22.5 million (BudgetSpeech 2013).

The following information on the operation of the SDAT is drawn from the Audit Report of the Comptroller and Auditor General of India for Tamil Nadu (CAG 2008). While acknowledging the great need for more sport infrastructure in the state, the CAG (2008) also noted the ineffective use of grants for new infrastructure and the meager provision for the maintenance of the infrastructure. It also highlighted the long delays in identifying suitable land for the infrastructure, designing the infrastructure, and contracting the construction of the facility.

### ***16.5.2 Physical Education in Schools***

The CAG (2008) report also was critical of the way physical education and sports were handled in the nearly 17,957 public and private schools under the jurisdiction of the Tamil Nadu State government. The report noted that many of the school administrators (35 % of those who were polled) could not implement state policies regarding sports and physical education because of a lack of physical education teachers as well as the dearth of play fields in schools. Moreover, the report found that even when physical education was emphasized it was mainly for the purpose of identifying talented individuals and grooming them to be champions. In the process, the notion that physical activity can contribute to health and fitness is overlooked. Some of the reasons for low participation in sport include (a) the belief among the populace that sport is a distraction from education, (b) nonavailability of infrastructure, and (c) inability to pay for facilities and buy sports products (Mukherjee et al. 2010).

### ***16.5.3 Sport in Tertiary Educational Institutions***

University sports in India come under the auspices of the Association of Indian Universities (AIU) with nearly 500 universities and 22,000 colleges affiliated with

it. The AIU has a specialized unit to manage interuniversity sports—Inter University Sports Board of India. The sports board of each university forms a university team after the completion of competitions among the colleges affiliated with it. This team represents the focal university in competitions against other universities. Despite these arrangements, the Indian universities like universities in many other countries are not attuned to high-caliber sport and high-level competitions as in the United States. Sathiyaseelan (2013a, b), a former administrator of collegiate sports, identifies the lack of professionalism among the collegiate sports administrators as a root cause of mismanagement of the collegiate sports. In addition, the apex bodies governing university sports are composed of academic personnel who do not have much experience with sports and its administration. Thus, such governing boards do not have an understanding of what happens at the grassroots level where the action takes place. At individual university levels, the administrators of university sports often don the caps of the head of an academic department, a professor of physical education, a coach, and an administrator of university sports. This would make them “jacks of all trades and master of none.” Sathiyaseelan advocates the differentiation of these roles to ensure efficiency of each of the domains. Finally, he advocates the adoption of the American model of university sports with tiers of universities based on their size as well as their athletic performances.

## 16.6 Conclusion

Sport consumption is expected to grow at a rate of 8.9 % per annum from USD 1 billion in 2005 to USD 6 billion in 2025 (Mukherjee et al. 2010). This would be a function of increasing disposable income among households. These authors also suggest that “With the increase in levels of education, international travel and exposure through cable television, the internet, etc., Indian consumers are becoming more health-conscious as is evident from the growing number of health clubs, gymnasiums and fitness centers” (Mukherjee et al. 2010). They also note that the culture of the workplace is changing wherein employee fitness is promoted and facilitated. Another encouraging signpost is that the Ministry of Human Resource Development through the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) has included participation in sport and physical activity as a significant component along with academic performance in its scheme of Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation (CCE) system in secondary school education. This initiative is most likely to encourage students to engage more and more in sport and reduce the reticence of parents in permitting their children to play. Another lightning rod for further pursuit of excellence and attainment of excellence is the growth of the middle class in India. Currently, 250 million people are said to be in the middle class, and this figure is expected to rise up to 600 million people by 2030 (Kharas 2010). With the abundant discretionary income in the hands of the middle class, it will demand and pay for

excellence in sports. Taken together, all of these factors are likely to set the stage for sport and physical activity to flourish at the grassroots level, for serious and genuine pursuit of excellence to be practiced, and for the emergence of world-class athletes.

## References

- Bhat, V. (2012). *Brand IPL comes under a cloud*. [http://www.business-standard.com/article/management/brand-ipl-comes-under-a-cloud-112060102003\\_1.html](http://www.business-standard.com/article/management/brand-ipl-comes-under-a-cloud-112060102003_1.html)
- BudgetSpeech. (2013). *Speech of Thiru O. Panneerselvam, hon'ble minister for finance, government of Tamil Nadu*. [http://www.tn.gov.in/budget/budgetspeech\\_e\\_2013\\_2014.pdf](http://www.tn.gov.in/budget/budgetspeech_e_2013_2014.pdf). Accessed 30 Mar 2013.
- CAG. (2008). *Comptroller and auditor general of India: Audit report (Civil), Tamil Nadu for the year 2007–2008*. [http://www.cag.gov.in/html/cag\\_reports/tn/rep\\_2008/civil\\_chap\\_3.pdf](http://www.cag.gov.in/html/cag_reports/tn/rep_2008/civil_chap_3.pdf). Accessed 06 Feb 2010.
- Chelladurai, P., & Robinson L. (2012). *Factors behind excellence in sports*. Paper presented at the 20th Congress of the European Association of Sport Management, Denmark, 18–21 Sept 2012.
- Department of Sports. (2013a). *Introduction*. <http://yas.nic.in/index.asp?layid=2>. Accessed 17 Mar 2013.
- Department of Sports. (2013b). *Schemes*. <http://yas.nic.in/index1.asp?langid=1&linkid=13>. Accessed 16 Mar 2013.
- ESPN. (2013). *ICC rankings*. <http://www.espnricinfo.com/rankings/content/current/page/211271.html>. Accessed 15 Mar 2013.
- Football Stadia. (2010). *List of association football stadia by capacity*. [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\\_of\\_association\\_football\\_stadia\\_by\\_capacity](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_association_football_stadia_by_capacity). Accessed 06 Feb 2010.
- Government of India. (2011). *National sports development code of India*. <http://yas.nic.in/writereaddata/mainlinkFile/File918.pdf> Accessed 02 Feb 2013.
- Government of Tamil Nadu. (2013). *About Tamil Nadu*. [http://www.tn.gov.in/govt\\_aboutTN.html](http://www.tn.gov.in/govt_aboutTN.html) Accessed 05 Jan 2013.
- Kharas, H. (2010). *The emerging middle class in developing countries* (Vol. 285). OECD Development Centre, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.
- Know India. (2013). *States and union territories*. [http://knowindia.gov.in/knowindia/state\\_uts.php](http://knowindia.gov.in/knowindia/state_uts.php) Accessed 11 Apr 2013.
- Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports. (2010). *Outcome budget 2010–2011*. <http://yas.nic.in/writereaddata/linkimages/6831719428.pdf>. Accessed 05 May 2013.
- Mukherjee, A., Goswami, R., Goyal, T. M., & Satija, D. (2010). *Sports retailing in India: Opportunities, constraints and way forward* (Vol. 250). New Delhi: Indian Council for Research on International Economic Relations.
- NDTV sports. (2013). *Sports authority of India wants to spend USD 178 million for 'Vision 2020'*. <http://sports.ndtv.com/othersports/othersports/item/193573-sports-authority-of-india-wants-to-spend-usd-178-million-for-vision-2020>. Accessed 10 Dec 2012.
- OPEX-London2012. (2012). *About OPEX*. <http://www.opex.nic.in/index1.asp?linkid=6&lid=18>. Accessed 15 Dec 2012.
- Press Information Bureau. (2007). *New sports policy*. <http://pib.nic.in/newsite/erelease.aspx?relid=30294>. Accessed 23 Jan 2013.
- Ramchandani, G., & Wilson, D. (2012). India's performance in the Delhi 2010 Commonwealth Games—expected or otherwise? *Managing Leisure*, 17(2–3), 257–273.
- Ross, A., & Thomas, S. (2010). The health benefits of yoga and exercise: A review of comparison studies. *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 16(1), 3–12.
- Sathiyaseelan, M. (2013a). *Assets and liabilities of interuniversity sports*. Chennai: Vijay Nicole Imprints.

- Sathiyaseelan, M. (2013b). *Sports management in Indian universities: Exploring new vistas*. Chennai: Vijay Nicole Imprints.
- The World Bank. (2013). *GDP ranking*. <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/GDP-ranking-table>. Accessed 10 Mar 2013.
- Times of India. (2013a). *India's per capita income rises to Rs 5,729 per month*. <http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/business/india-business/Indias-per-capita-income-rises-to-Rs-5729-per-month/articleshow/18387279.cms>. Accessed 01 Apr 2013.
- Times of India. (2013b). *Sports ministry satisfied with budget*. [http://articles.timesofindia.india-times.com/2013-02-28/others/37351686\\_1\\_sports-ministry-finance-ministry-sports-budget](http://articles.timesofindia.india-times.com/2013-02-28/others/37351686_1_sports-ministry-finance-ministry-sports-budget). Accessed 30 Mar 2013.

# Chapter 17

## Australia

Graham Cuskelly, Pamela Wicker, and Wendy O'Brien

### 17.1 Introduction

In Australia the provision of public sport and recreation has stemmed from a perception that sport and recreation is beneficial to the community and government involvement contributes to the welfare of the population. However, prior to 1972, Australian governments had little involvement in the provision of sport and recreation. Despite this lack of involvement, Australia's athletes boasted success in the international sporting arena. The turning point for Commonwealth involvement was the creation of the Ministry of Tourism and Recreation under the Whitlam government. This was in response to the realisation that the intensive urbanisation experienced in Australia during the 1950s and 1960s contributed to deterioration in the health of the Australian population. Social justice and greater government involvement marked the first stages of sport development. However, a change in government from the mid-1970s to the early 1980s signalled reduced government involvement in sport. Poor international performances sparked the establishment of an elite sport development facility, the Australian Institute of Sport in 1981. During this period the 'Life be in it' programme, the first lifestyle-related programme that identified the links between sedentary behaviours and preventable diseases, was initiated. Sustained government funding and concentration on elite sports, coupled with international success, saw an expansion of support for elite sport for the 1980s and 1990s. The government saw the Sydney Olympics in 2000 as an opportunity to leverage the resulting euphoria and national pride to further develop elite sport but

---

G. Cuskelly (✉) • P. Wicker  
Griffith University, Gold Coast Campus, Southport, Australia  
e-mail: g.cuskelly@griffith.edu.au; p.wicker@griffith.edu.au

W. O'Brien  
Griffith University, Nathan Campus, Nathan, Australia  
e-mail: w.obrien@griffith.edu.au

also increase the participation rate of Australians. However, in 2009, the Crawford Report initiated a shift from the strong focus on the Olympics as a benchmark for policy success to an increase in attention to participation and active recreation.

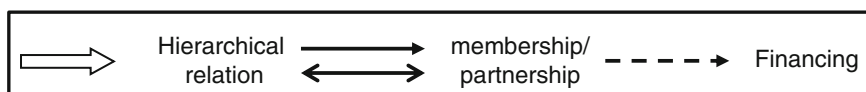
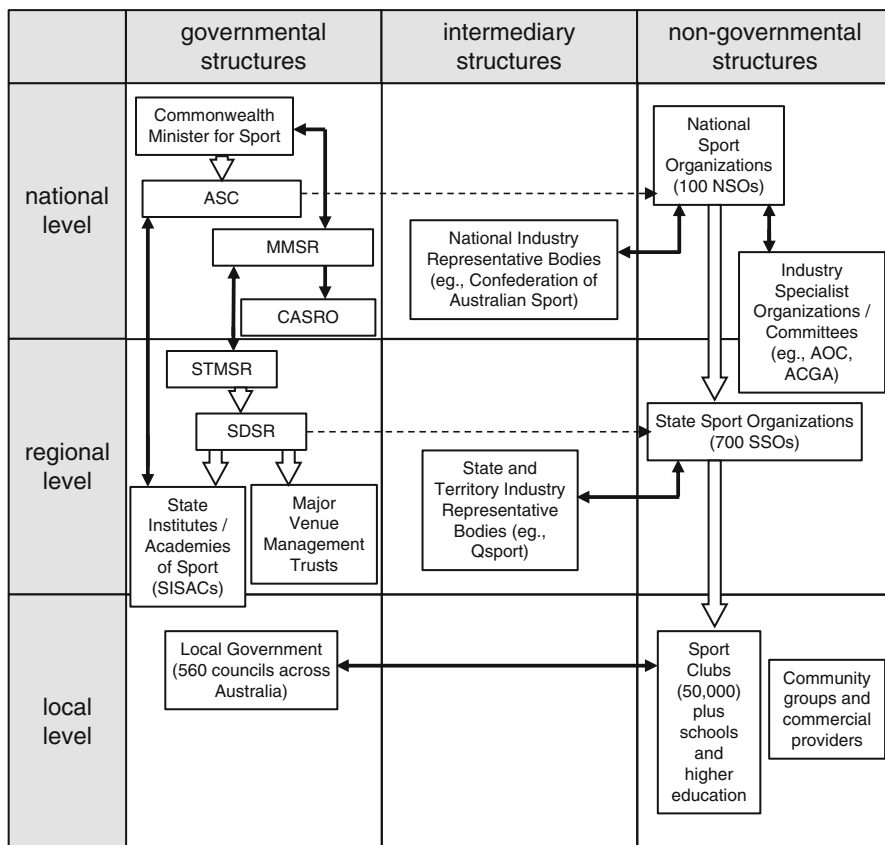
## 17.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organised Sport

Currently the Australian Government has adopted a whole-of-sport approach to the development and delivery of sport which focuses on increasing participation, success in international competition and strong national sporting competition (Commonwealth of Australia 2011). The government is also leveraging the power of sport to enhance social inclusion, address disadvantage as well as improve health outcomes (Commonwealth of Australia 2011). The overall structure of the sport system in Australia is displayed in Fig. 17.1.

The levels of government responsibility in the delivery of sport reflect the federated system of government with Commonwealth, State and Local governments. Through the Department of Regional Australia, Local Government, Arts and Sport, the Commonwealth Minister for Sport provides leadership to the sport and recreation system through formulating and coordinating the development of policy. The Commonwealth Government also invests in infrastructure and programmes to support whole-of-sport pathways.

The Australian Sports Commission (ASC) is the statutory arm of the Commonwealth Government and the focal point for the delivery of the government's sports policies. The ASC is itself governed by a board of commissioners appointed by the Australian Government Minister for Sport. The roles and responsibilities of the ASC are laid out in the Australian Sports Commission Act 1989. The ASC's goals are aligned with the Australian Government's national sports policy and the National Sport and Active Recreation Policy Framework (see Sports Policy). The ASC provides both resources and leadership, coordinating the funding of sport at a Commonwealth Government level. The ASC works with various other Commonwealth government departments, national sport organisations (NSOs) peak sporting bodies, State and Territory departments of sport and recreation, schools, communities and local clubs to deliver programmes directed at increasing participation.

The Meeting of Sport and Recreation Ministers (MSRM) provides a forum for cooperation and coordination between the Commonwealth and State and Territory governments on matters relating to the development of sport and recreation in Australia and, more recently, in New Zealand and Papua New Guinea. The MSRM is comprised of Commonwealth, State and Territory Ministers with responsibility for sport and recreation. The MSRM convenes once per year, however more frequently if required. The Chair rotates annually with the Secretariat rotating biennially. The MSRM is supported by the Committee of Australian Sport and Recreation Officials (CASRO) which coordinates Commonwealth and State government sports policies and sport development programmes. The MSRM is also the primary consultative mechanism through which the Commonwealth liaises with the States and



**Fig. 17.1** Overview of the Australian Sport System (Adapted from Commonwealth of Australia (2011) *National Sport and Active Recreation Framework* and Crawford (2009) *The Future of Sport*). Note: The framework presented is a simplified version of the Australian sport system since it is difficult to portray the entire system due to its complexity. Some obvious relationships were added but the nature of the relationships was not always specified. ASC Australian Sports Commission, MMSR Meeting of Sport and Recreation Ministers, CASRO Committee of Australian Sport and Recreation Officials, SDSR State & Territory Departments/Offices, STMSR State & Territory Ministers for Sport & Recreation

Territories. Agreements that cover a broad range of sport issues, such as indigenous sport, coaching and officiating, junior sport and women in sport, are developed between the Commonwealth and State and Territory departments of sport and recreation for the development and delivery of programmes and services and the development of national networks.



A division of the ASC, the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS), has a primary responsibility for the strategic direction of high-performance sport in Australia, providing world-class training and preparation for elite-level athletes and facilitating a national approach to performance research. The AIS also works with State and Territory Institutes and Academies of sport and the National Elite Sports Council (NESC) and the National Institute Network to deliver high-performance sport. The Australian Sports Anti-Doping Authority (ASADA) (not shown in Fig. 17.1) is independent of the ASC and AIS and implements the World Anti-Doping Code. ASADA partners with the AOC, The ACGA and NSOs through programmes of deterrence, detection and enforcement to ensure 'pure performance' in sport (Australian Government 2013).

The six State and two Territory governments have their own sport and recreation departments under various names, but most include sport and recreation in their department title. Led by a State or Territory Minister, each department formulates and coordinates policy, invests in sport participation and development programmes and infrastructure and works with the Commonwealth on national policy approaches. State and Territory departments of sport also work in partnership with the Commonwealth Government to coordinate a national approach to the staging of international events. Housed within the State and Territory department of sport are the State and Territory Institutes and Academies of Sport (SIS/SAS). State and Territory departments of sport provide leadership for other stakeholders such as regional and local government, sport and active recreation organisations and regional associations and community groups. Major venue management trusts, also operating under the umbrella of the sports departments, such as the Western Australian Sports Centre Trust, manage and promote the use of state facilities. State and Territory departments of sport partner with service providers to improve opportunities participation in targeted populations (Commonwealth of Australia 2011).

Local government (regional councils) is directly involved in the delivery of sport and recreation services. They administer the leasing of crown land to local clubs for the provision of sport and recreation activities. They also administer swimming pool leases and construct and operate or lease other community facilities. Local government may also have recreation officers or community service officers who provide advice and support for local sport clubs. Local government may have access to funding to assist in developing sport projects and facilities.

NSOs are the national representative body for each sporting code and deliver sports through their State Sport Organisations (SSOs). The National Sport and Active Recreation Framework outlines the responsibilities of NSOs which range from organising and conducting national championships, fund-raising for national teams, selecting and developing talent as well as the selection of national teams for international events (Commonwealth of Australia 2011). NSOs are responsible for the national leadership, management, coordination and development of their sport, including building international affiliations and linkages (Commonwealth of Australia 2011). NSOs deliver elite and development objectives, including national training pathways and talent identification, develop participation programmes and contribute to government initiatives on healthy communities (Commonwealth of

Australia 2011). The governing body of each NSO consists of representatives from State and Territory sports associations (Crawford 2009). Ninety-two NSOs have met the minimum ASC requirements to be recognised as the national body (ASC 2012b). Recognition by the ASC does not guarantee that the NSO will receive funding from that body. The ASC also monitors NSOs to ensure alignment and cooperation across all stakeholders through its participation planning and performance monitoring framework (ASC 2012a).

The Confederation of Australian Sport (CAS) is the national peak body for sport and its members comprise the majority of Australia's NSOs as well as other sport services, industry associations and corporate memberships. CAS represents the interests of the sport industry and lobbies government particularly at the Commonwealth level on issues affecting the development of sport. CAS is mirrored at the State level by sport industry representative bodies (e.g. Q-Sport, the Sports Federation of Queensland). Independent of CAS is the Coalition of Major Professional and Participation Sports (COMPPS; not shown in Fig. 17.1) which comprises seven NSOs with the primary purpose of influencing government policy such as ticketing and media rights. The AOC, the Australian Paralympic Committee and the ACGA are key stakeholders in elite sport and with support from the ASC work with NSOs in the development and promotion of Olympic, Paralympic and Commonwealth games sports.

SSOs manage and administer individual sports at the State level. NSOs work closely with SSOs to provide substantial support and identify and develop talent as well as programmes directed at increasing participation. The responsibilities of SSOs mirror those of their governing bodies to deliver State-based initiatives of national programmes. SSOs work in conjunction with State and Territory governments in relation to policy formulation and infrastructure provision (Commonwealth of Australia 2011). SSOs also partner with service providers to improve the participation of targeted groups and assist community groups and clubs at the local level to deliver their sport.

Sport clubs are also aligned with and work collaboratively with their NSO and SSO and deliver localised competitions and membership services along with creating participation opportunities for all ages, abilities, backgrounds and genders (ASC 2008). They also contribute to the implementation of talent identification and programmes. Other community groups (YMCA, Police Citizens Youth Clubs and commercial providers such as gyms and fitness centres) supply a range of sports-related services which promote opportunities to participate in organised sport and physical activity.

### 17.3 Financing Sport

The ASC is the Australian Government agency responsible for the funding of sport at a national level. The ASC Annual Report (2012a) indicated that AUD 114.6 million was directed towards improved participation and AUD 209.4 million on high-performance programmes. The ASC distributes the majority of its funding through

NSOs and NSOs for People with Disability (NSODs). In 2012–2013 through grants and allocations, this funding totalled AUD 134 million including allocations to organisations for the disabled (Australian Government 2012). From this funding pool, the ASC funds NSOs to deliver both participation and high-performance outcomes. To receive funding from the ASC, an NSO must have in place a strategic plan as well as fulfil a range of eligibility criteria. Funding is also dependent on an annual performance review. Continued, withdrawal or increased funding is based on how NSOs can achieve outcomes that are aligned with the National Sport and Active Recreation Framework. At an individual level, the ASC administers the Australian Government direct athlete support scheme through AIS scholarships which provided support of AUD 8.57 million to 700 athletes in 2011–2012 (ASC 2012a).

The ASC also generates funding from sources such as corporate sponsorship, hire of facilities, other government departments and NSOs. Through the active-after-school communities programme, the ASC provides funding to around 2,000 primary schools and 1,300 out-of-school-hours care services to deliver quality sport and other structured physical activity programmes (Australian Government 2012). The Australian Sports Foundation (ASF) is a wholly owned Commonwealth company that operates independently of the government and is based at the AIS and administered by the ASC. The ASF receives funding from the Commonwealth Government and donations from individuals and businesses. From these funds the ASF makes discretionary grants through the Sports Incentive Programme to non-profit, incorporated, sporting, community, educational and government organisations.

While the ASC also allocates funds to State and Territory departments of sport and recreation, the amount is small (AUD 1.2 million; Australian Government 2012), and each sport and recreation department has their own sport budgets as well as state sporting association grants. For example, through the VicHealth state sporting association participation programme, AUD 10.2 million will be allocated to 30 SSOs over 3 years. Queensland's get-in-the-game initiative comprises three new funding programmes worth AUD 18 million over 3 years to support sport participation. In addition several states provide funding through lotteries, such as the sports lotteries account of the Western Australian Department of Sport and Recreation and the community benefits fund in Queensland. Sponsorship is also a major source of funding, with partnerships negotiated between commercial interests and sport across all levels. Legislation bans partnerships with tobacco companies with debates also centring on whether or not to ban partnerships with alcohol and fast food companies.

The most recent and comprehensive data from the ABS (2006) reports that in 2004–2005 the 600 government organisations involved in the provision of sport and recreation services received a total of AUD 1,477.9 million in income. At the Commonwealth, State and Territory level AUD 763.5 million was received for the provision of sport and physical recreation services, with the majority of AUD 695.1 million from government funding (as outlined above). Other sources of income were derived from rent, lease and hiring of sports grounds (AUD 7.4 million) and sponsorship of sport events (AUD 4.5 million; ABS 2006). Major expenditure items for Commonwealth, State and Territory governments were sporting subsidies and

grants provided to clubs and sports organisations (AUD 482.1 million) and wages and salaries (AUD 200 million; ABS 2006).

Local government received AUD 714.7 million from providing sport and recreation services with government funding (AUD 480.8 million) being the main source of income. Rent, lease and hire of sports grounds and facilities provided another significant source of income (AUD 43.3 million; ABS 2006). Major expenditure items for local government were wages and salaries (AUD 200 million) and maintenance of sports grounds and facilities (AUD 162 million; ABS 2006).

In 2004–2005 businesses and organisations in the for-profit, non-profit sectors involved in sport and physical recreation generated AUD 5,786.3 million in revenue. Sports membership and competition fees generated AUD 1,305 million, with sponsorship and fund-raising generating a further AUD 806 million (ABS 2006). Casual playing fees accounted for AUD 445.5 million and admission to sporting events generated AUD 374 million in income. Government funding provided AUD 230.4 million (ABS 2006).

Total expenditure by businesses/organisations in the for-profit and non-profit sectors was AUD 5,443.2 million during 2004–2005. The highest category was labour costs which accounted for AUD 1,830.4 million. Grants, affiliation fees (AUD 369 million) along with rent, leasing and hiring sports venues, facilities and equipment were the next highest expenditure categories (ABS 2006). Repairs and maintenance accounted for AUD 237.7 million (ABS 2006).

Sports policy financing is driven by the Commonwealth Government's commitment to increase funding at both a high performance level and community level. With the current sports policy, the government made an inaugural commitment to a significant investment in the development pathway, creating stronger links between participation and high-performance sport (Commonwealth of Australia 2011).

The Commonwealth Government currently does not specifically fund a sports facility programme, although the *Future of Sport in Australia* (Crawford 2009) highlighted that Australia's sport infrastructure required a substantial boost in investment at the Commonwealth level. The only funding available is through a general Regional Development Australia Fund. Facility provision is seen primarily as State and Local government or private sector responsibility (ASC 2008). Each State and Territory department of sport and recreation has a range of funds to assist the development of facilities and infrastructure for SSOs, non-profit sport and recreation organisations, councils, university sports clubs, State and independent schools. State government funding for venues and sports ground was AUD 185.8 million (ABS 2002). Local government contributed the majority of funds with AUD 997.5 million funding venues, grounds and facilities (ABS 2002).

Sport and recreation volunteers are the largest group of volunteers in Australia with 1.6 million people or 9 % of the adult population over 15 years volunteering for this sector (ABS 2010a). A third of sport and recreation volunteers contributed 140 h or more of their time in the previous 12 months (ABS 2010b). Based on ABS data for 2006, Frontier Economics estimated that the value of volunteer input into the sports sector was AUD 3.9 billion (Frontier Economics 2010).

There are limited opportunities for the sport sector to attract tax deductible donations as the Australian Taxation Office has ruled that donations for sporting purposes are not charitable. However, donations to the ASF are tax deductible, and a central pool of donations is distributed through discretionary grants to eligible organisations (ASC 2008).

## 17.4 Sports Policy

Sports policy is guided by The National Sport and Active Recreation Policy Framework (Commonwealth of Australia 2011) and The National Institute System intergovernmental agreement endorsed by the Commonwealth and State and Territory Ministers for Sport and Recreation in February 2011. These key documents provide guides for the development of sports policy in Australia (ASC 2011). The National Sport and Active Recreation Policy Framework allows for the alignment of strategies and programmes across all levels of government, delineating priority areas, such as increased participation, and outlines the objectives and measures for evaluating success (Commonwealth of Australia 2011). CASRO comprised of CEOs from State and Territory departments of sport and recreation, along with the ASC and the Office for Sport, are primarily responsible for the implementation and monitoring of the framework. The framework will be reviewed after 2 years and then every 4 years. The National Institute System intergovernmental agreement was established to deliver on national objectives and measures for international and national success. The agreement includes the criteria for assessing priority NSOs and processes for collaboration and planning approaches. It also outlines the roles and responsibilities of SIS/SAS, the AIS and the NSOs.

The National Sport and Active Recreation Policy Framework highlights three key areas for development: increasing participation, increased international success and system viability and sustainability (Commonwealth of Australia 2011). Increasing sport participation focuses on ensuring that more Australians participate regularly in sport including membership of paid, events-based, school-based and programme-based activities. A particular focus is social inclusion to increase the number of underrepresented subgroups such as women, indigenous Australians, people with disabilities and people from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds (Commonwealth of Australia 2011). Policy is also focused on increasing Australia's success in international sporting competition. This includes increasing the number of medals and maintaining Australia's high ranking in medal tallies at events such as the Olympic Games, Paralympic Games and Commonwealth Games (Commonwealth of Australia 2011). In order to deliver on the above development areas, policy is directed at ensuring local clubs, state and national organisations have the capacity (e.g. paid and unpaid labour), capability (e.g. facilities) and financial viability to meet both policy objectives and community needs (Commonwealth of Australia 2011).

The ASC is the agent that delivers key programmes, both elite and participation, which are aligned to the National Sport and Active Recreation Framework (ASC

2012a). Included in the 36 elite programmes of the ASC delivered through the AIS are scholarship programmes (involving 26 sports), the athlete career and education programme, the high-performance innovation, management and systems programme and the high-performance success programme (ASC 2012a). At the participation level the ASC drives programmes such as the active-after-school communities programme, the junior sport framework, the club development network, sports connect, the national coaching accreditation scheme and national officiating accreditation scheme (ASC 2012a). The ASC also provides guidance to NSOs to develop both high-performance and community participation programmes.

Through the National Institute intergovernmental agreement between the Commonwealth and the States and Territories, the two levels of government work in partnership with NSOs to provide support for athletes through nationally agreed high-performance programmes. These programmes include national pathway planning and pathways to podium programme (Sport and Recreation Ministers 2011).

Each State and Territory sport and recreation department implements their own programmes that are also aligned with the National Sport and Active Recreation Framework. The departments develop programmes that provide whole of sport pathways as well as programmes for the delivery of high-performance sport. Examples of such programmes are Get Active Queensland Accreditation Program, locker room forums and Challenge, Achievement and Pathways in Sport (CAPS) programme in Queensland. The Australian Capital Territory also has a range of programmes under the banner of active 2020 which focus on both participation and pathways to high performance.

## 17.5 Sport Participation

In Australia, sport participation is considered to be one part of physical activity. Per definition, any physical activity is defined as ‘physical activity for exercise, recreation or sport. It includes those activities that were organized by a club, association or other type of organization, and those activities that were non-organized. It excludes those activities that were part of household or garden duties, or were part of work’ (CASRO 2010).

This relatively broad definition does not contain any information about the frequency, duration or intensity of the activity. Only the frequency of the activity is considered in four more detailed participation measures (CASRO 2010):

1. Total participation which is participation at least once annually in any physical activity
2. Weekly participation which is participation at least once per week, on average, in any physical activity
3. Regular participation which is participation at least three times per week, on average, in any physical activity
4. Frequent participation which is participation five times per week or more, on average, in any physical activity

**Table 17.1** Overview of participation rates in Australia (in %; CASRO 2001, 2006, 2010)

Year	2001	2006	2010
Sampling	n = 13,640 (response rate = <sup>a</sup> )	n = 13,708 (response rate = 42.0 %)	n = 21,603 (response rate = 23.1 %)
Total participation (at least once annually)	77.8	80.7	82.3
Weekly participation (at least once per week)	<sup>a</sup>	<sup>a</sup>	69.4
Regular participation (at least three times per week)	<sup>a</sup>	42.8	47.7
Frequent participation (at least five times per week)	<sup>a</sup>	24.2	28.0
Top 10 sports (total participation)	1. Walking (28.8) 2. Swimming (16.0) 3. Aerobics/fitness (13.0) 4. Cycling (9.5) 5. Tennis (9.2) 6. Golf (8.2) 7. Running (7.2) 8. Netball (4.1) 9. Outdoor football (3.7) 10. Basketball (3.5)	1. Walking (36.2) 2. Aerobics/fitness (19.2) 3. Swimming (13.7) 4. Cycling (10.2) 5. Running (7.4) 6. Tennis (6.9) 7. Golf (6.8) 8. Bushwalking (4.7) 9. Outdoor football (4.2) 10. Netball (3.6)	1. Walking (35.9) 2. Aerobics/fitness (23.5) 3. Swimming (13.0) 4. Cycling (11.9) 5. Running (10.6) 6. Golf (6.7) 7. Tennis (6.0) 8. Bushwalking (4.8) 9. Outdoor football (4.8) 10. Netball (3.7)
Organisational forms (total participation)	Non-organised (63.4) Organised (39.9) Club-based <sup>a</sup> Fitness centre <sup>a</sup>	Non-organised (67.3) Organised (39.1) Club-based (27.1) Fitness centre (13.7)	Non-organised (70.8) Organised (40.0) Club-based (25.7) Fitness centre (16.5)

<sup>a</sup>Information not available

Since 2001, the sport participation of the Australian population is assessed by the Exercise, Recreation and Sport Survey (ERASS) which is authorised by the ASC (CASRO 2010). Every year persons aged 15 years and older in occupied private dwellings are surveyed using computer-assisted telephone interviews. People in special dwellings such as hospitals, hotels and nursing homes, are excluded from the survey. One person is selected per private dwelling using the last birthday method. A random sample stratified by state and territory is drawn (CASRO 2010). It is a multi-point cross-sectional survey and no panel study.

Table 17.1 gives an overview over the participation rates in Australia. The total participation rate has increased between 2001 and 2010 from 77.8 % to 82.3 %. Within a shorter period from 2006 to 2010, the regular participation rate has increased from 42.8 % to 47.7 %. The top 10 sports and the respective participation rates have only slightly changed between 2001 and 2010. With regard to organisational form, the participation rate for non-organised sport has slightly increased from 63.4 % to 70.8 % between 2001 and 2010, whereas the rate for organised participation remained relatively constant (between 39 and 40 %). Making assumptions for possible reasons for the slight changes is difficult since the measurement

**Table 17.2** Participation rates by socio-demographic characteristics in 2010 (regular participation; CASRO 2010)

Characteristic	Participation rate (in %)
Gender	Males (44.9), females (50.4)
Age and gender	
15–24 years	Males (52.8), females (47.7)
25–34 years	Males (42.4), females (48.9)
35–44 years	Males (39.5), females (52.5)
45–54 years	Males (43.1), females (53.3)
55–64 years	Males (45.1), females (53.0)
65 years and older	Males (46.7), females (47.1)
Labour force status	Part-time employment (52.6)
	Full-time employment (46.0)
	Unemployed (43.3)
	Not in labour force (47.3)
Education	University degree (54.7)
	Still at secondary school (51.8)
	Diploma (50.6)
	Did not complete highest level of school (39.2)
	Never went to school (34.4)
Language spoken at home by gender	
English only	Males (44.7), females (51.5)
European	Males (49.3), females (48.0)
Non-European	Males (45.0), females (39.0)

has not been completely identical in all years. Thus, it is not clear whether changes in participation rates are a result of changes in the instrument or of changes in society or external circumstances.

Table 17.2 summarises the participation rates by socio-demographic characteristics. It shows that the participation rate of females is slightly higher than that of the males. With regard to age, males are more active in the youngest age group (15–24 years), whereas the participation rates in the other age groups are higher for females. Looking at the participation rates by labour force status indicates that part-time employees have the highest rate, followed by people in full-time employment and unemployed people. With regard to education, people with a university degree have the highest participation rate, followed by people who are still at secondary school and people with a diploma degree. Participation rates also differ by the language that is spoken at home; however, the differences are greater for females than for males.

## 17.6 Conclusion

While the National Sport and Active Recreation Policy Framework has focused on increasing participation, and statistics prior to the formulation of policy indicate a slight upward movement in participation, it is still too early to judge whether policy



has been effective. With the government failing to provide funding for national sport facilities, questions arise in relation to how participation can increase without adequate facilities to support any growth in numbers. Low volunteering rates, when compared with other developed countries, also raise questions in relation to the delivery of sport and recreation opportunities. Australia's poorer-than-expected performance at the recent Olympics has reopened the debate over where funding should be directed, at the participation levels to fuel the development pathway or specifically at the elite level to foster a 'trickle-down effect'.

## References

- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). (2002). *Sport and recreation funding by Government*. <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/productsbytopic/C1E4C4D3478C2D2DCA256C7500765137?OpenDocument>. Accessed 05 Sept 2012.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). (2006). *Sports and recreation services, 2004–2005*. <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/8686.0>. Accessed 10 Sept 2012.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). (2010a). *Involvement in organized sport and physical activity, 2010*. <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/6285.0>. Accessed 08 Oct 2012.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). (2010b). *Volunteers in sport, Australia, 2010*. <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/4440.0.55.001>. Accessed 04 Oct 2012.
- Australian Government. (2012). *Australian Sports Commission*. <http://www.ausport.gov.au/>. Accessed 15 Nov 2011.
- Australian Government. (2013). *Australian sports anti-doping authority*. <http://www.asada.gov.au/>. Accessed 03 Jan 2013.
- Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (2008). *Submission to the Commonwealth Government's independent review of sport in Australia*. Canberra: ASC.
- Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (2011). *Australian Sports Commission annual report, 2010–2011*. Canberra: ASC.
- Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (2012a). *Annual report 2011–2012*. Canberra: ASC.
- Australian Sports Commission (ASC). (2012b). *Overview for national sporting organizations funding and performance review*. Canberra: Australian Government.
- Committee of Australian Sport and Recreation Officials (CASRO). (2001). *Participation in exercise, recreation and sport annual report 2001*. Canberra: CASRO.
- Committee of Australian Sport and Recreation Officials (CASRO). (2006). *Participation in exercise, recreation and sport annual report 2006*. Canberra: CASRO.
- Committee of Australian Sport and Recreation Officials (CASRO). (2010). *Participation in exercise, recreation and sport annual report 2010*. Canberra: CASRO.
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2011). *National sport and active recreation framework*. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia.
- Crawford, D. (2009). *The future of sport in Australia*. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia.
- Frontier Economics. (2010). *The economic contribution of sport to Australia*. Sydney: Frontier Economics.
- Sport and Recreation Ministers. (2011). *National institute system intergovernmental agreement*. Canberra: Sport and Recreation Ministers.

# Chapter 18

## New Zealand

Geoff Dickson and Michael Naylor

### 18.1 Introduction

New Zealand's participant sport sector is built upon the political and demographic make-up of the country. New Zealand is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary democracy. In addition to the 'central government', there are 67 territorial authorities and 11 regional councils. New Zealand ranks highly in terms of the strength of its democratic institutions and government transparency and lack of corruption.

New Zealand has a modern, prosperous and developed market economy. The population of New Zealand is approximately 4.4 million. In the 2006 census, 67.6 % identified ethnically as European and 14.6 % as Māori. Other major ethnic groups include Asian (9.2 %) and Pacific peoples (6.9 %). 11 % identified themselves as a 'New Zealander' (or similar) and 1 % identified with other ethnicities. New Zealand is a predominantly urban country. The 16 main urban areas account for 72 % of the population. Approximately one-third of New Zealanders live in Auckland. New Zealand cities rank highly on international liveability measures.

### 18.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

Despite its small size, small population and isolated position, New Zealand considers itself a 'great little sporting nation' (Jackson and Andrews 1999). New Zealand features prominently in assessments of Olympic performance that consider either

---

G. Dickson (✉) • M. Naylor  
School of Sport and Recreation, AUT University, Auckland, New Zealand  
e-mail: geoff.dickson@aut.ac.nz; michael.naylor@aut.ac.nz

population or gross domestic product. Sport and recreation contributes an estimated NZD 4.516 billion to the New Zealand economy (or 2.4 % of GDP; (SPARC 2011). References to sport being central to the New Zealand lifestyle and culture are not uncommon.

### ***18.2.1 Overall Structure of Sport in New Zealand***

The structure of New Zealand sport can be classified into local, regional and national levels (Fig. 18.1).

#### **18.2.1.1 Local**

There are an estimated 15,000 sport clubs in New Zealand, most of which serve local communities. They vary considerably according to membership size, number of staff employed, financial turnover and asset base. These organizations are almost exclusively non-profit organizations governed by volunteers. Clubs are normally affiliated to a regional sport organization and/or a national sport organization. These clubs, alongside of schools, are the primary providers of sport participation opportunities in New Zealand, particularly amongst the adult population.

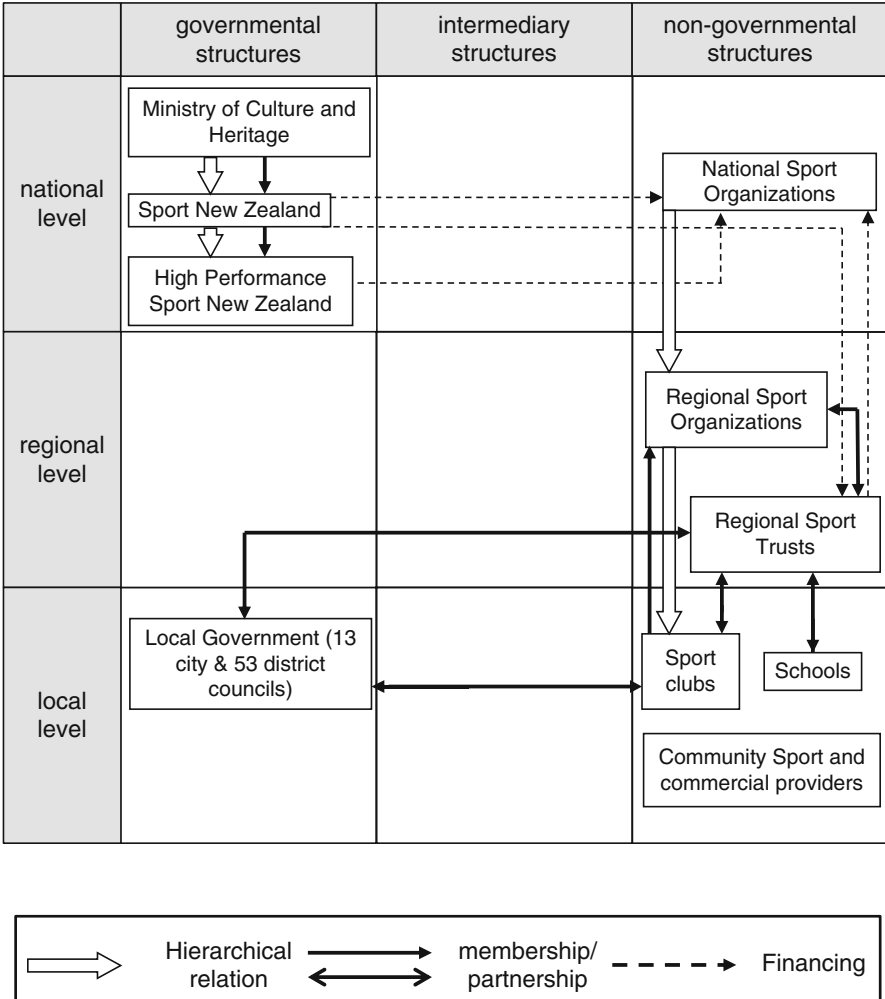
#### **18.2.1.2 Regional**

##### Regional Sport Organizations

Most New Zealand sports clubs are affiliated to a regional sports organization (RSO). These RSOs vary in geographic size and the number of organizations that they represent. In the past decade, a number of sports have reduced the number of regional organizations down to between five and eight RSOs. For example, Tennis New Zealand reduced its 25 regional tennis organizations down to only six. The goals of restructuring these sport organizations are improved financial sustainability, improved high-performance outcomes and creating stronger participation pathways.

##### Regional Sport Trusts

Regional Sports Trusts (RSTs) are a key feature of New Zealand's regional sports structure. Critics of RSTs refer to them as a historical legacy because RSTs existed before the creation of a crown entity. Sport New Zealand (Sport NZ), the government organization responsible for sport and recreation, formally recognized RSTs as key partners in 2004. The 17 RSTs are independent, not-for-profit organizations



**Fig. 18.1** The structure of sport in New Zealand

governed by a Board of Trustees drawn from the local community. Sport NZ contracts each RST to increase regional levels of physical activity and strengthen regional sport and physical recreation infrastructures. Positioned as network hubs, RSTs work with clubs, regional and national sport organizations, local councils, health agencies, education institutions, local businesses and the media. By mobilizing local financial and ‘in kind’ resources, RSTs add value to Sport NZ’s own regional investment (refer leveraging in Finance section). The RSTs provide Sport NZ with a localized distribution network for messages, programs and promotions. RSTs report against agreed business plans to Sport NZ twice annually.

### 18.2.1.3 National

#### National Sport Organizations

In 2010 Sport NZ discontinued the process of formally ‘recognizing’ national sport and recreation organizations. Sport NZ partners with nearly 100 NSOs, most of which are focused on delivering a single sport. Notable exceptions include Blind Sport, Deaf Sport, Paralympics, Snow Sports and Special Olympics. Sport NZ also recognizes partnerships with National Recreation Organizations that operate in the fitness, youth development and outdoor recreation domains. The governance of these NSOs varies considerably. Some NSOs recognize individual people as members (i.e. Triathlon), whereas others provide voting rights to their RSOs or their clubs or a combination of both. It is a common practice for NSO boards to be comprised of a mixture of independent (i.e. people without office elsewhere in the sport) and non-independent (people who hold office at regional or club level). Sport NZ continues to invest significantly in enhancing the governance capability of the NSOs.

## 18.2.2 *Organizational Types*

### 18.2.2.1 Government Organizations

There is no single document that is the New Zealand constitution, as there is in similar countries. New Zealand government’s role in sport is however, articulated in a number of statutes or Government Acts over the years. As of 2013, the government entities responsible for sport are Sport New Zealand and High Performance Sport New Zealand (HPSPORT NZ).

#### Sport New Zealand

Sport and Recreation New Zealand (SPARC) was the predecessor to Sport NZ and was established as a Crown entity in 2003 to ‘promote, encourage and support physical recreation and sport in New Zealand’. SPARC was the trading name of Sport and Recreation New Zealand until 2012 when it changed its trading name to Sport New Zealand. Sport NZ provides financial resources to NSOs, RSOs, RSTs and territorial local authorities. In the 2011–2012 financial year, 78 % of Sport NZ expenditure was funding organizations in two of those categories – NSOs (55 %) and RSTs (23 %). Sport New Zealand’s expenditure is relatively evenly distributed across high-performance sport (51.2 %, NZD 54.6M) and sport and recreation programs (45.2 %, NZD 48.2M). The remaining 3.5 % (3.8M) was invested in the Prime Minister’s scholarship scheme to encourage elite athletes to acquire tertiary qualifications.

The high-performance funding was invested across a number of initiatives: NSO high-performance programs NZD 31M [2010/11: NZD 23.8M], high-performance facilities NZD 13.2 million to develop [2010/11: NZD 6.1M], Performance

Enhancement Grants (PEGs) for elite athletes NZD 7.4 million [2010/11: NZD 6.5M], technology and innovation NZD 1.5M, [2010/11: NZD 1.2M] and high-performance events NZD 0.8 million [2010/11: NZD 0.8M] (Sport New Zealand 2012). PEG provides direct financial support to athletes so they can train fulltime. The money is taxable and is used by athletes for general living expenses. PEG range in value from NZD 25,000 for non-Olympic athletes through to NZD 60,000 for Olympic Gold medallists.

The bulk of SPORT NZ's 2011–2012 funding for sport and recreation programs was invested as follows: NZD 12.1 million in RSTs for community sport and recreation outcomes [2010/11: NZD 12M]; NZD 8.5 million in RSTs for KiwiSport Regional Partnership Fund and NZD 1.7 million in KiwiSport special projects [2010/11: NZD 8.5M, NZD 0.8M]; NZD 13.5 million in NSOs for community sport and recreation outcomes [2010/11: NZD 8.5M]; NZD 1.7 million in *He Oranga Poutama* (an initiative promoting participation by Māori sport and traditional physical recreation [2010/11: NZD 1.8M]; NZD 1.7 million in national recreation organizations to deliver recreation outcomes [2010/11: NZD 1.3M]; NZD 1.6 million in Active Communities projects run by territorial authorities and RSTs [2010/11: NZD 1.6M]; NZD 1.5 million to encourage participation in sport and recreation by people with disabilities [2010/11: NZD 1.6M]; and NZD 2 million invested for other community sport and recreation outcomes [2010/11: NZD 2.2M]. Outside of these programs, NZD 1.8 million were invested into partners to build capability [2010/11: NZD 2.2M] and NZD 1.7 million invested into partner organizations for event and facility outcomes [2010/11: NZD 0M].

### High Performance Sport New Zealand

Sport NZ formed a wholly owned subsidiary, High Performance Sport New Zealand (HPSPORT NZ), in 2011 by merging its own high-performance unit with the two New Zealand Academies of Sport (North and South Island). The Board of Sport NZ retains full ownership and accountability for the performance of HPSPORT NZ. HPSPORT NZ has its own dedicated board that recommends decisions to the Board of Sport NZ. HPSPORT NZ invests in developing elite athletes and coaches on behalf of the Government. The aim is to 'produce more winners on the world stage'. HPSPORT NZ's investment and support priorities are as follows: (1) sports and athletes that have medal potential at the Olympic Games (Summer and Winter), (2) non-Olympic targeted sports that can win at World Championships and (3) sports and athletes that have gold medal potential at the Paralympic Games (Summer and Winter) (HPSPORT NZ 2012). HPSPORT NZ funding is premised upon concept of performance and accountability.

### Territorial Authorities

New Zealand's district and city councils – collectively known as territorial authorities – play a critical role in the sport and recreation sector. TLAs invest significantly

in sport and recreation partnerships, facilities, programs and events. Local authorities spent on average approximately 8 % of their budget on sport and recreation (Local Government New Zealand 2012). However, the proportion of funds being spent by TAs on the wider category of sport and culture is decreasing. Territorial authorities are key to the construction and maintenance of sport and recreation facilities. In 2008/2009, TAs spent an estimated NZD 345M on new sport and recreation facilities (Sport NZ 2012).

### 18.2.2.2 Non-Governmental Organizations

#### Schools

The Education Act requires each school to implement a school curriculum in accordance with the priorities set out in the National Education Goals (NEGs) and the National Administration Guidelines (NAGs). Whilst the NEGs and NAGs only refer to physical activity, sport and recreation is a key dimension of physical activity. Sport and recreation is clearly identified in key areas of learning within the Health and Physical Education curricula.

#### New Zealand Secondary Schools Sports Council

The New Zealand Secondary Schools Sports Council coordinates, promotes and protects secondary school sport for all students. The NZSSC organizes championship sporting events in partnership with NSOs on a national and island level. The NZSSC reports that 49 % of girls and 55 % of boys participate in interschool sport. This has decreased from 55 % to 59 %, respectively, in 2000. A key trend affecting secondary school sport participation is the decline in the number of teachers who either are involved (2000, 46 %; 2011, 34 %) or coach (2000, 27 %; 2011, 21 %; (NZSSSC 2011). Seven sports – cycling, rowing, athletics, soccer, rugby, squash and netball – have their own secondary school sports associations. These associations work with their respective NSO and the NZSSC to facilitate interschool competitions.

#### University Sport New Zealand

University Sport New Zealand (UNZ) has eight member organizations. Only six of New Zealand's nine universities are represented. One university has membership for all three of its campuses. The quality and quantity of 'university sport' in New Zealand is low. Each university provides recreation and sports opportunities, but there is little in the way of structured interuniversity competition, except for the annual University Games. For most participants, the university games are an

opportunity for social interaction. University sport is not a key component of the sport participation pathway for any sport.

In summary, the New Zealand education systems, with the exception of universities, are key providers of sport participation opportunities.

### New Zealand Olympic Committee

The New Zealand Olympic Committee (NZOC) is a separate organization from Sport NZ. The NZOC is funded principally through corporate sponsorship, trusts, SPORT NZ and the International Olympic Committee. The NZOC is also a member of the Commonwealth Games Federation.

### Sports Tribunal of New Zealand

The Sports Tribunal is an independent body that determines certain types of disputes for the sports sector. The Sports Tribunal was established in 2003 by Sport NZ. The Tribunal aims to ensure that national sport organizations and athletes can access an affordable, just and speedy means of resolving a sports dispute.

### Drug Free Sport New Zealand

Drug Free Sport New Zealand (DFSPORT NZ) is an independent Crown Entity originally established by the New Zealand Sports Drug Agency Act 1994 and is continued by the Sports Anti-Doping Act 2006. New Zealand was the fourth country to ratify UNESCO's International Convention Against Doping in Sport. DFSPORT NZ is responsible for implementing the World Anti-Doping Code in NZ. DFSPORT NZ received NZD 2.24M from the government in the 2012/13 financial year.

For all the similarities between the Australian and New Zealand sport systems, the absence of an organization equivalent to the Confederation of Australian Sport is noteworthy. In New Zealand, there is no organization that represents New Zealand NSOs in discussions and negotiations with governments and key stakeholders.

## **18.3 Financing Sport**

### ***18.3.1 How Is Sport Financed?***

The financing of New Zealand sport varies according to the organizations involved. Most of the funds raised by New Zealand sport organizations are traditional



– membership fees, participation fees, sponsorship, donations/bequests, government funding and income from trading activities such as on-site, club-managed cafes, bars and restaurants. All figures in this section are in NZD.

Gaming Machine Trusts (GMT) are a noteworthy anomaly in the New Zealand sport funding equation. New Zealand is one of the only three countries operating a Community Gaming Model. Gaming machines, commonly known as ‘pokies’, are owned and operated by charitable foundations and are mostly placed in hotels and bars. The law requires that approximately 37 % of funds raised by GMT must be returned to the community. The distribution formula varies between trusts. The following example is not atypical. For every NZD 1 waged, 92 cents (c) is returned to the player. The remaining 8c is distributed as follows: government (2.5c), venue (1.3c), machine costs (0.9c), overheads (0.5c) and grants (2.8c). The GMT allocates grant in a manner consistent with their stated purposes. This usually involves a competitive process from sport and other community organizations. Department of Internal Affairs figures show that gaming machine expenditure decreased NZD 866.8 million to NZD 839.7 million between 2011 and 2012. However, GMT still distributed grants in excess of NZD 300 million to sporting, educational, health and arts groups and other charities. There is widespread recognition that the New Zealand sport sector is dependent upon GMT distributions. At the same time, there is growing awareness of problem and pathological gambling. A small but increasing number of sports organizations choose not to seek funding from GMT for this reason.

Using money provided by the Lotteries Commission, the New Zealand Lottery Grants Board allocates annually at least 42 % of its income to three statutory bodies: Sport NZ, Creative New Zealand and the New Zealand Film Commission. Sport NZ received NZD 34.6 million in 2012/2013. This represents approximately 35 % of Sport NZ’s income. The New Zealand government provides the balance of Sport NZs funding.

### ***18.3.2 Main Expenditure Categories***

Expenditure and income categories for New Zealand sports organizations vary depending on the type of sport and type of organization (i.e. club, RSO, NSO). Cordery and Baskerville (2009) investigated expenditure and income sources in a study of clubs across six different sports in New Zealand. The expenditure sources are summarized in Table 18.1.

Data from Table 18.1 indicates that team sports’ expenditure varies from those of the individual sports chosen. Generally maintenance costs are low and playing fees are high in these team sports. The percentage of expenditure allocated to ‘playing’ is low for individual sports. In individual sports, individuals supply their own equipment and pay for their own coaching. Property maintenance costs are generally higher in individual sports than the team sports.

**Table 18.1** Expenditure sources by sport (percentage of total income)

Expenditure sources	Rugby	Netball	Hockey	Cricket	Squash	Golf
Property	29.1	26.7	25.4	20.1	43.8	48.4
1. <i>Depreciation</i>	9.5	15.2	9.7	8.4	13.4	13.0
2. <i>Insurance, utilities, rates</i>	7.7	3.4	3.3	3.9	13.4	6.3
3. <i>Maintenance and cleaning</i>	8.3	7.0	6.7	3.7	15.7	28.8
4. <i>Rent</i>	3.5	1.1	5.7	4.1	1.3	0.3
Administration	21.1	33.9	26.1	27.5	31.9	36.1
1. <i>Accounting</i>	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.6	1.1	0.4
2. <i>Salaries</i>	14.2	25.4	17.9	17.7	22.4	30.3
3. <i>Administration</i>	6.1	7.5	7.5	9.2	8.4	5.4
Playing	39.7	37.2	46.5	49.0	18.0	3.6
Interest	0.8	0.0	1.1	1.2	5.4	3.7
Other	9.3	2.2	0.9	2.2	0.9	8.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

**Table 18.2** Income sources by sport (percentage of total income)

Income sources	Rugby	Netball	Hockey	Cricket	Squash	Golf
Member fees	10.1	18.5	42.8	28.1	48.8	73.5
Structural income	23.0	15.0	19.8	13.9	21.8	8.1
1. <i>Competitions</i>	2.5	8.2	15.6	0.4	1.6	2.1
2. <i>Rent</i>	3.8	2.0	0.0	6.0	3.5	1.2
3. <i>Trading activities</i>	14.8	1.3	1.5	4.0	15.4	3.8
4. <i>Interest</i>	1.9	3.5	2.7	3.5	1.3	1.0
Game external income	20.2	4.3	2.8	7.2	7.8	2.5
1. <i>Donations</i>	5.8	0.5	0.4	3.1	2.8	0.9
2. <i>Sponsorships</i>	14.4	3.8	2.4	4.1	5.0	1.6
Grants	26.3	47.6	22.1	33.8	11.4	4.3
Regional support	11.0	0.0	0.0	5.1	0.0	0.0
Other	9.4	14.6	12.5	11.9	10.2	11.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

### 18.3.3 Main Revenue Categories

The club revenue sources from the Cordery and Baskerville (2009) study are summarized in Table 18.2.

Income data indicates that clubs receive little or no income from territorial local authorities. However, this does not recognize that territorial local authorities lease land and/or premises to clubs at nominal values. Income sources vary significantly between team and individual sports. With the exception of hockey, team sports clubs' member fees account for a relatively low percentage of clubs' incomes. The proportion of income from grant income is higher for team sports. For rugby, netball and cricket, grants are the major income source, followed by structural, member and/or external income. Using income derived from their professional competitions, the regional and national sports associations provide financial support to rugby and cricket clubs.

### ***18.3.4 Underlying Policy of Financing Sport***

Eligibility for Sport NZ investment does not guarantee investment. Investment decisions depend on priority areas as well as available resources. In order to receive investment, NSOs and NROs will have to meet eligibility criteria. The three mandatory criteria are (1) participation and performance focus, (2) lawfulness and (3) accountability/partner capability. The seven evaluative criteria are (1) promoting, supporting or delivering sport and/or recreation is a core function; (2) organizational structure; (3) international linkages; (4) participation and/or performance; (5) supporting sport and recreation; (6) partnering; and (7) sustainability.

The Sport NZ High performance funding policy is highly results focused. The 2013–2016 High Performance Programme Investment to National Sport Organizations categorize sports as either Targeted Sports or Campaign Investment Sports. The Tier 1 Targeted Sports (i.e. those with Olympic gold medal prospects) are rowing (NZD 18.4M), biking (NZD 15.6M) and yachting (NZD 11.2M). Athletics (NZD 7.6M), equestrian (NZD 7.2M), rugby sevens (NZD 4.8M) and netball (NZD 4.8M) were the Tier 2 Targeted Sports (i.e. those with Olympic medal prospects). The Tier 3 Targeted Sports are triathlon (NZD 5.6M), canoe (NZD 4.8M) and hockey (Women) (NZD 4.8M). Campaign investments – 1- or 2-year funding for considerably smaller amounts – were also provided to swimming, rugby sevens (Women), soccer (Women), hockey (Men), cricket, rugby league, bowls, squash, softball (Men), surf life saving, golf, canoe slalom, boxing, surfing, taekwondo and the university games. The following sports unsuccessfully applied for campaign investment: surfing, stand-up paddle boarding, canoe extreme, basketball, inline speed skating, Olympic weightlifting, croquet, shooting, beach volleyball, trampoline and waka ama.<sup>1</sup> The Paralympic (NZD 5.9M) and Winter Olympics (NZD 6.85M) received separate HPSPORT NZ funding. The New Zealand Olympic Committee received core funding (NZD 1.5M).

The targeted approach created two problems (Sam 2012). The first is that Sport NZ is criticized for having too much control over sport and for not being sufficiently accountable for results (or lack of results as they case can be). The second is that NSOs are less innovative because of increased accountability and reporting requirements.

### ***18.3.5 Volunteers***

Volunteers contributed over 50 million (51.3 million) hours to sport and recreation in 2007/2008. The market value of these services in 2009 was NZD 728 million. Adding in the value of volunteer services increases the total market value of sport and recreation to NZD 5.2 billion or 2.8 % of GDP (SPARC 2011). The New Zealand sport system is clearly dependent upon volunteers.

---

<sup>1</sup>Waka ama are outrigger canoes and are often raced at large festivals in New Zealand.

## 18.4 Sports Policy

### 18.4.1 Overall National Sports Policy

New Zealand does not have an overall national sports policy. However, Sport NZ does produce a 3-year Statement of Intent on an annual basis. The current priority areas listed in the 2012–2105 Statement of Intent are as follows: (1) young New Zealanders (we want young New Zealanders (aged 5–18 years) to develop a love of sport and recreation that leads to lifelong participation); (2) community sport (we want sustainable and coordinated delivery of quality sport by capable organizations to their communities); (3) active recreation (we want a capable and coordinated recreation sector delivering quality opportunities that get more New Zealanders participating in recreation); (4) high-performance sport (we want New Zealand’s most talented athletes to be identified and developed and to win on the world sporting stage.); and (5) partner capability (we want our partner organizations to be sustainable and capable of delivering results).

The Statement of Intent also provides insight into five ‘operating intentions’ or how Sport NZ will act to ensure attainment of these outcomes. The five operating intentions are (1) an investment approach that targets organizations with the greatest capacity of helping Sport NZ achieve its outcomes; (2) build capacity (i.e. leadership, governance structures, linkages between NSOs and RSOs and commercial acumen) within partner organizations; (3) implement performance measurement systems to monitor progress against strategic outcomes; (4) investment in high performance by targeting ‘podium potential sports and athletes’ through a transparent process based on critical analysis; (5) effectiveness and efficiency.

Analyses of New Zealand sports policy identify many complimentary themes. These include ideas about efficiency, competitiveness and leadership (Sam 2003), goal setting, transparency and the ‘logic of investment’ (Piggin et al. 2009) and rationalization and integration (Sam and Jackson 2004).

The sports policy is also intertwined with statements about improved health (through increased physical activity and sport participation) and economic development. The economic development theme is manifest in the way in which government funding for sport events is justified.

### 18.4.2 Major Events/NZME

In 2009, the New Zealand government sought a strategic approach to its investment in major events. This approach changed the government’s role from being primarily a source of operational funding for events to becoming an integral partner with the events sector. In 2011, the Major Events Development Fund (MEDF) was increased to NZD 10 million per year to better resource New Zealand Major Events (NZME) to deliver on this strategy shift.

Since 2009, the MEDF has supported 120 events to the value of NZD 57.97 million. The median level of MEDF investment has been NZD 200,000 with an average of NZD 483,083 (NZME 2012). MEDF-funded events include the 2017 World Masters Games, 2015 ICC Cricket World Cup and FIFA U20 Men's World Cup, 2014 Fast5 Netball World Series 2014, 2013 UCI BMX World Championships and the ISF Men's Softball World Championships 2013.

In addition to this national approach, New Zealand major cities – Auckland, Hamilton, Wellington and Christchurch – all have sophisticated approaches to attracting and developing major sport events. The events strategies are justified in both social and economic terms.

## **18.5 Sport Participation**

### ***18.5.1 Measuring Participation***

There are three primary sources of data available to understand the levels at which New Zealanders participate in sport: (1) the Active New Zealand Survey, (2) New Zealand Secondary School Sports Council Census Data and (3) the Young People's Survey. All three sources of data come from multisport organizations.

Participation in sport amongst Kiwis 16 years and older has most recently been measured alongside recreation activities through the Active New Zealand survey (2007/2008). In that survey 4,443 participants were asked to report any activity participated in at least once over the 12 months preceding the data collection. The New Zealand Secondary Schools Sport Council (NZSSSC) census data, on the other hand, is specific to sport. The NZSSSC collects data from all NZ secondary schools annually in an effort to track student's representing their school in various sports. The 2011 Young People's Survey was a nationwide Sport NZ initiative and was school-based and involved 17,000 school children from 500 schools. This is the best source of data in regard to children's involvement in sport. The Young People's Survey also focused on informal participation and characterized it as 'mucking around'.

Measuring sport participation changes in New Zealand is not straightforward due to data collection nuances. The Active New Zealand Survey was implemented in quite a different format than its predecessor for measuring Kiwi adults' involvement in sport – the 1997–2001 New Zealand Sport and Physical Activity Survey. The Young People's Survey was a new initiative in 2011. Therefore, exploring recent changes in sport participation rates in New Zealand is most reliably done through the NZSSSC census data, which has had a consistent format for several years.

### ***18.5.2 Participation Rates***

In general, sport participation rates in New Zealand are high. For example, 96 % of those 16+ reported that they had participated in at least one sport and recreation

**Table 18.3** Kiwi participation in sport over previous 12 months

Rank	Activity	Population number	Percentage of NZ population (%)
1	Golf	416,221	12.8
2	Tennis	304,676	9.3
3	Cricket	237,965	7.3
4	Soccer	227,266	6.8
5	Touch rugby	219,953	6.7
6	Netball	209,771	6.5
7	Basketball	209,427	6.3
8	Table tennis	194,198	5.9
9	Rugby	189,661	5.7
10	Volleyball	148,496	4.4

activity over the past 12 months in the 2007/2008 Active New Zealand survey. When asked the same question about the previous week, 79 % reported involvement. According to the Young People's Survey, the annual sport participation rate rises to 99 % amongst those age 5–18 years old.

### 18.5.2.1 Kiwis Age 16 and Older: Active NZ Survey

The Active NZ survey of 2007/2008 provided data on Kiwis involvement in sport and recreation. Not surprisingly it was found that activities such as walking, gardening and equipment-based exercise were much more popular amongst Kiwis than sports. These types of activities often require less investment and are more spontaneous.

In 2007/2008, the most popular sport in New Zealand amongst adults was golf. More than one in 10 Kiwis who were interviewed reported playing golf at least once in the preceding 12-month period. Table 18.3 represents the top 10 sports in terms of Kiwi participation, extracted from a larger list of physical activities more generally. Population numbers were calculated based on the sample proportions.

### 18.5.2.2 Kiwi Secondary School Students: NZSSSC

The NZSSSC census data indicates that in 2012 53 % of secondary school students represented their school in a school sports programme – beyond inter form/house sport. This can be further broken down by gender – 49 % of girls and 56 % boys.

The NZSSSC census also revealed that team sports remain most popular in secondary schools. The total number of secondary school students involved in each sport was rugby union (29,528), netball (28,364), soccer (23,528), basketball (18,780) and volleyball (14, 656). These are the five most popular sports in NZ secondary schools.

**Table 18.4** Growth sports in NZ secondary schools (2007–2012)

Sport	2007	2012	Change
Adventure racing	254	1,406	454%
Gym sports	423	1,418	235%
Rugby league	1,572	3,602	129%
Orienteering	939	1,938	106%
Table tennis	1,931	3,507	82%

**Table 18.5** Declining sports in NZ secondary schools (2007–2012)

Sport	2007	2012	Change
Dragon boating	2,074	1,724	-17%
Water polo	3,370	2,949	-12%
Golf	2,046	1,799	-12%
Tennis	8,116	7,334	-10%
Cricket	13,255	12,043	-9%

### 18.5.2.3 Kiwis Age 5 to 18: Young People's Survey

Sport NZ's Young People's Survey reported that sport participation is higher for boys than girls. This is consistent with the 2012 data provided by the NZSSSC. The Young People's Survey also reports that sport participation drops off appreciably in teenage years, particularly for girls. In fact, over 10 % of 15–18-year-old girls taking part reported that they 'don't like playing sport'. This is almost twice as high as for boys in the same age bracket.

The Young People's Survey categorizes ethnicity in NZ in terms as New Zealand European, Maori, Pacific and Asian. Several key trends are evident – particularly amongst boys. Skateboarding and rugby league are more popular with Maori boys, rugby league is disproportionately popular with Pacific boys and badminton is very popular amongst Asian boys.

### 18.5.3 Participation Trends Over the Past Five Years

As noted, exploring NZ sport participation trends over time is difficult due to a lack of rigorous and independent annual reporting processes, but data is available from the NZSSSC to explore what trends are occurring in terms of sport participation in secondary schools over the period of 2007–2012. Table 18.4 depicts the top five sports – of those sports with more than 1,000 participants across the country in 2012 – in terms of growth for the previous 5-year period. Likewise, Table 18.5 depicts the five higher participation sports (i.e. over 1,000 participants in 2012) that have declined the most since 2007.

Although insufficient data exists to place in the context of the 5-year trends outlined above, there are four other sports that are showing increasing popularity in New Zealand high schools over the past year or two. These sports are rugby sevens, futsal, triathlon and ki-o-rahi.<sup>2</sup>

## 18.6 Conclusion

The New Zealand sports system is effective. The structure of the system reflects wider social, cultural and economic realities of the nation. Sport NZ is the dominant organizational structure in the sporting landscape.

## References

- Cordery, C., & Baskerville, R. (2009). *Financing sports organisations in New Zealand: The impact of governors' choice*. Wellington: SPARC.
- HPSPORT NZ. (2012). *Strategic plan 2013–2020*. Wellington: High Performance Sport New Zealand.
- Jackson, S. J., & Andrews, D. L. (1999). Between and beyond the global and the local: American popular sporting culture in New Zealand. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 34(1), 31–42.
- Local Government New Zealand. (2012). *Mythbusters: Examining common assumptions about local government in New Zealand*. Wellington: Local Government New Zealand.
- New Zealand Major Events (NZME). (2012). *Major events development fund recipients*. <http://www.med.govt.nz/majorevents>. Accessed 05 Mar 2013.
- New Zealand Secondary School Sports Council (2011). NZSSSC Representation Census. Available at <http://www.nzsssc.org.nz>.
- Piggin, J., Jackson, S., & Lewis, M. (2009). Telling the truth in public policy: An analysis of New Zealand sport policy discourse. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 26(3), 462–482.
- Sam, M. P. (2003). What's the big idea? Reading the rhetoric of a national sport policy process. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 20(3), 189–213.
- Sam, M. P. (2012). Targeted investments in elite sport funding: Wiser, more innovative and strategic? *Managing Leisure*, 17(2–3), 207–220.
- Sam, M. P., & Jackson, S. J. (2004). Sport policy development in New Zealand paradoxes of an integrative paradigm. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 39(2), 205–222.
- SPARC. (2011). *The economic and social value of sport and recreation to New Zealand: An overview*. Wellington: SPARC.
- Sport New Zealand. (2012). *Sport NZ annual report for the year ended 30 June 2012*. Wellington: Sport New Zealand.

---

<sup>2</sup>Ki-o-rahi is a fast-paced ball sport played particularly amongst the New Zealand Maori population.



# Chapter 19

## South Africa

David Maralack, Marion Keim, and Christo de Coning

### 19.1 Introduction

#### 19.1.1 *Sports Policy in African Context*

This chapter highlights the transformation in policy, participation, and systems in South African sports. This perspective is provided against the backdrop of exciting developments in Africa where sports and development initiatives have been growing in popularity. Recent studies (Keim and De Coning 2013) have shown that exciting developments are emerging in sports and development initiatives in some African countries and that substantive policy developments and meaningful transformation are evident. The Interdisciplinary Centre for Sport Science and Development (ICESSD) analyzing sports policy in 10 African countries found that the existence and quality of public policy and legislation concerning sports and development varied greatly among the countries. In some instances, sports policy contains contemporary approaches and cutting-edge approaches to sports and development, and in other instances, both policy and legislation on sports were found to be virtually absent.

Opportunities exist to share policy experiences and collaborative action, stimulating improvement of sports policies and their support systems. It was found that in some countries where policies and legislation were virtually absent or of poor

---

D. Maralack (✉)

School of Management Studies, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa  
e-mail: david.maralack@uct.ac.za

M. Keim • C. de Coning

Interdisciplinary Centre for Sport Science and Development, University of the Western Cape,  
Western Cape, South Africa  
e-mail: mkeim@uwc.ac.za; cdeconing@uwc.ac.za

quality, the countries somehow still reported high levels of compliance with international protocols. While some macro-economic, public finance, and other government performance areas were being reported on, that Results-Based Monitoring and Evaluation System (RBMES) was not yet established in the vast majority of countries that were studied.

The research conducted for the ICESD African Sports Index study (Keim and De Coning 2013) showed that sports and development policy in Africa had a poor standing but that the growing popularity and rightful role of sports and development was a growing force in terms of socioeconomic development initiatives and in terms of government recognition. The research noted that sports and development initiatives were strongly driven by civil society and that specific lessons of experience have emerged that hold much potential for replication in all African countries. Against this background, the following discussion provides the reader with a brief overview of the major phases of transformation in South Africa.

### ***19.1.2 Institutionalizing South African Sports Transformation***

South Africa's sports system and structure originated in the need to undo the divisiveness of its apartheid past and to establish a foundation for an inclusive and competitive sports performance framework. The transition from an authoritarian apartheid political regime to an inclusive democracy in 1994 required change to national policies and procedures, alleviating apartheid legacies of economic and sports deprivation and extending delivery of services to the poorest and most marginalized communities. The poorest and marginalized, predominantly black, racial groups of society comprised the majority of the population and required systemic intervention at both policy and practical levels.

In 1993 the nongovernment National Sports Council (NSC) hosted a national sport conference titled "Vision for Sport," setting the framework for unifying democratic sports structures and stimulating equitable sports development programs. Debates at this conference shaped the structure and policies of the first unified post-apartheid Department of Sport and Recreation (DSRSA), established in 1994. The NSC conference agreed that the post-apartheid government should "Get the Nation to Play."

Institutionalizing national sports transformation occurred in three phases: first 1994–2000 was characterized by policy initiation and development; 2000–2005 consolidating the high-performance system; and the current period shaped by the National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP) (SRSA 2012a) aims to develop a "coordinated, integrated and aligned national sport system within which all component parts are focused towards a common set of goals and objectives" (SRSA 2012a). The National Transformation Charter shapes the moral and strategic motivations for transformation in the NSRP (SRSA 2012a) and responds to the country's constitution, its foundation values, and the equality clause and the dignity clause of the Bill of Rights. Sports policy and its systems cohere with constitutional imperatives.

## 19.2 Sports System and the Structure of Organized Sports

South African sports was rationalized in 2003, streamlining seven independent sports institutions into two macro-sport institutions. The seven institutions were Sport and Recreation South Africa (national government); South African Sports Commission (tasked with representing the independent interests of sports governing bodies); National Olympic Committee of South Africa (independently answerable to ANOCA and the IOC); Disability Sport South Africa (coordinating all disability sports independent of able-bodied sport governing bodies); South African Commonwealth Games Association (organizing participation only in the Commonwealth Games); South African Students Sports Union (coordinating activities at tertiary academic institutions such as universities and colleges); and United Schools Sport Association (coordinating sports at schools). The cabinet approved the rationalization of the sports landscape into two co-dependent national institutions in 2003. The Department of Sport and Recreation was tasked with developing programs aimed at mass participation and recreation, while a nongovernment sports confederation, later called the South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (SASCOC), assumed responsibility for coordinating high-performance sports and convened all activities of national sport governing bodies.

The National Sports System in South Africa rests on two institutional pillars: (i) government and (ii) civil society. The government consists of three interlocking, although independent, spheres: the national, provincial, and local government. Civil Society sports is structured through the nongovernment South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (SASCOC) at national level, nine regional sports confederations, and a range of district, city, and local area sport councils (Fig. 19.1).

### 19.2.1 Role of Government

The amendment of the National Sport and Recreation Act (NSRA) of 2007 defines the responsibility of each level of government and provides the legislative and executive authority of the different spheres of government ensuring that each operates within a framework of cooperative governance. At the apex, SRSA takes overall responsibility for sports and recreation in South Africa and establishes the appropriate enabling environment to ensure that activities undertaken by other stakeholders in sports are coordinated, uniform, and effective.

The minister of the national Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) is the custodian of sports and recreation in South Africa and has the legislative powers to oversee the development and management of sports and recreation in the country (NSRA 1998, 2007). The minister is therefore empowered to be the principal authority of government with regard to all sports and recreation matters.

SRSA is responsible to develop, coordinate, and monitor a comprehensive system in accordance with a broadly agreed national strategy, ensuring that the sports

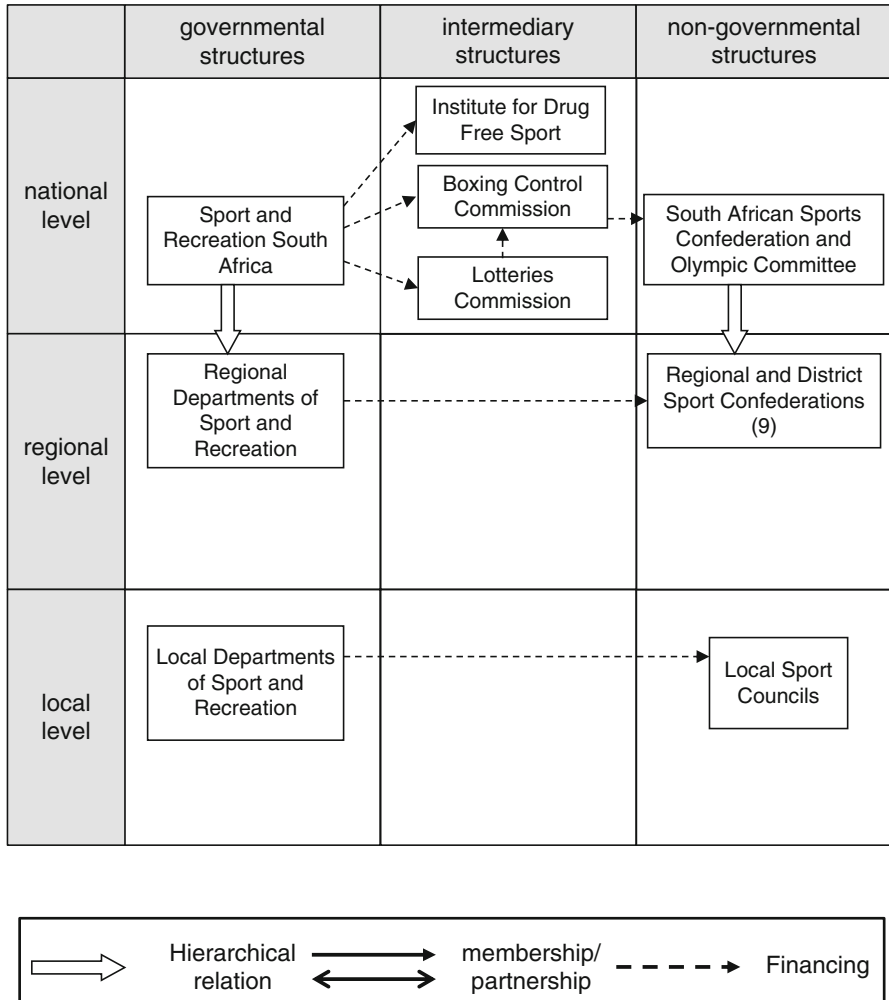


Fig. 19.1 The organization of sports in South Africa

development system is in place and fully operational. SRSA also ensures that effective partnerships are in place with other institutions such as provinces, municipalities, SASCOC, and national federations.

At the regional level, the organization, management, and control of sports and recreation are provincial competencies. Each of the nine provinces, the relevant provincial sports Member of the Executive Council (MEC), and the provincial departments of sports and recreation are charged with various responsibilities including promulgating provincial legislation and developing provincial sports policies, implementing and monitoring sports and recreation policies, and building relations with stakeholders in the province. Furthermore, they assist provincial and regional sports

academies in accordance with national directives, support the provincial sports confederation to deliver on its mandate, and facilitate building, upgrading, maintaining, and managing sports and recreation facilities in conjunction with local authorities. Lastly, they host and support provincial, national, and international events.

The local level authorities are responsible for policy development, implementation, and monitoring of sports and recreation policies and the building, upgrading, maintenance, and management of infrastructure for sports and recreation in municipalities, metros, and districts. Municipalities also fund sports clubs and individuals.

### ***19.2.2 Nongovernmental Sports Organizations***

At the national level, the South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (SASCOC) is the only sport NGO permitted by legislation (NSRA 2007) and is the umbrella body for all National Sports Federations (NFs). The key area of responsibility of SASCOC is the development, implementation, and monitoring of high-performance sports for South African national athletes. This includes the selection and preparation of all South African teams participating in multisports events.

SASCOC is responsible for ensuring compliance with the laws of the country, rules, regulations, government priorities, and policies by itself and its affiliated members. SASCOC is required to manage affiliation of organized sports at international level and determines affiliation criteria of its affiliates. A core function of SASCOC is to ensure that its members develop business plans and good governance in exercising its responsibilities as custodians of sports. Its functions include resolving conflict, facilitate the mobilization of resources for itself and its members, and ensure that resources are accounted for. SASCOC is the custodian for managing the awarding of national colors and manages the Provincial Sports Councils in all nine provinces.

National federations (NFs) are autonomous and are acknowledged as the custodians of their particular sports in South Africa, responding to the governing rules and regulations of their respective International Governing Body. However, this autonomy is required to be executed within the framework of the National White Paper on Sport and Recreation, the NSRP, the various national legislative frameworks, and on the understanding that much of the NF's funding is derived from the government.

SRSA recognizes that NFs are at the center of the sports system and are the custodians for the development of their sport and are required to manage and grow their sport effectively, responding to the needs and requirements of athletes. The NFs are required to be athlete-centered. As custodians, NFs are responsible for the success or failure of their sports.

Each NF must develop a strategic plan outlining its goals and the activities it will pursue to achieve those goals. The performance indicators for the individual NFs should be related to the identification and nurturing of talented participants in their sport, club development, transformation, and the continuous improvement in international rankings. Therefore, each NF is expected to appoint a head coach, to establish a national training program for the sport, and to nurture the development of identified individual athletes.

With reference to provincial and local nongovernment organizations and the role of provincial and local sports controlling bodies, role players in sport agree that there is a need to develop a structured process for sports and recreation development from the grassroots level upwards. The Regional Sports Confederations coordinate sport in each of the nine provinces. In terms of the role of provincial federations, the development of sports at the provincial level is critical, as effective policy implementation at this level will result in growth, development, and greater affectivity of sport development programs. It is also the SRSA's contention that an effective elite sports program at national level and success at international sports events depends on the identification and nurturing of talent at provincial level, by provincial sports federations. However, an acknowledged weakness in the sport system is the lack of sports at schools.

### ***19.2.3 Sport at Schools***

Physical education was taken out of the school curriculum in the mid-1990s. One civil society respondent emphasized, "this is where the country lost all the momentum to provide an excellent platform for sport development. The lack of physical education at schools resulted in fewer learners being active in sport" (Maralack 2012). Consensus among role players in sport has generally been reached that sports at schools need to be revitalized to reap the inherent social and health benefits intrinsic to youth sport.

Physical education currently is implemented formally in the Life Orientation curriculum and all schools are expected to implement this activity with at least one PE session per week per learner. However, it was only in 2012 when physical education was formally reintroduced in the policy agenda.

On the other hand, school sports as an extracurricular activity has become an optional activity at most of the disadvantaged schools in South Africa due to the lack of resources and facilities. Therefore, the differences in activities and opportunities at different schools are a cause for concern for both the government authorities as well as the sporting fraternity.

A Draft School Sport Policy has recently been developed, encouraging sporting activities including physical education as a formal subject at school. The main objectives of the Draft School Sport Policy are to address the challenges that prevent the establishment of a well-coordinated school sports system in the country and to ensure that institutional structures are in place to implement and monitor the delivery of a school sports system. The policy aims at regulating access and delivery of school sports for all learners, irrespective of ability, across all schools and to clarify roles and responsibilities of all role players for both delivery and funding.

Some provinces such as Western Cape Provincial Sports Department have developed a regional school sports policy, a formal Directorate of School Sports to coordinate and promote sports at schools in conjunction with the Provincial Department of Education.

### ***19.2.4 Sports as a Tool for the Achievement of National and Global Priorities***

Five transversal issues supporting an active and winning nation were identified by stakeholders in the NSRP consultative process (SRSA 2012a, Chap. 3): Firstly to ensure the existence of equal opportunities for all South Africans in sports and recreation participation through the adoption of deliberate transformation initiatives; secondly to prioritize sporting codes best suited to broadening the participation base or achieving international success and thereby maximizing the return on investment; thirdly to ensure that ethical behavior is upheld and to contribute to improved governance in sports; and lastly to provide clear guidelines on amateur and professional sports and thus to protect the rights and interests of talented athletes under 18 years of age.

The NSRP adopts a long-term participant development approach for athletes, emphasizing inclusion, empowerment, and promotion of the youth, elderly, women, disabled, and rural communities, which constitute government priority groups. Seeking to utilize sports as a tool for the achievement of national and global priorities, the NSRP focuses on the following four areas outlined in their objectives and implementation plan. Sports is a medium to attract and increase tourism, contributes to Sports for Peace and Development, promotes Sports and the Environment, and is a platform for national government priorities.

For example, programs focusing on sports and peace are recent interventions. In May 2011, the International Working Group (IWG) of the UN office on Sport for Development and Peace elected South Africa Chair for Sport and Peace. A Sport for Development and Peace Action Plan has been developed and ratified in 2013.

## **19.3 Financing Sport**

Public and private sectors interdependently finance South African sports. In the public sector, national government's (SRSA) sports budget is ZAR 820,880 million (USD 8.72 million) well short of the estimated ZAR 10 billion (USD 1.1 billion) requested by the national minister in his 2013 budget speech. The overall budget and annual strategic imperatives influence the main expenditure categories. Due to hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, expenditure for this event accounted for 44 % and 37 % of the budget was spent on mass participation programs in 2011. A small proportion of the budget (1 %) was spent on facilities as this is regarded as a local government function and the national government plays an advocacy role. For example, the City of Cape Town's facilities budget in 2011 is ZAR 110 million (USD 12 million), of which 64 % (ZAR 70 million) is allocated by the national government.

Since the inception of the NSRP, schools and rural development are the strategic imperatives for 2013. Therefore, 15 % of its budget is being spent in rural areas (SRSA 2012a) and SRSA is lobbying the National Department of Education to

provide facilities at schools. These strategies will shape discussions regarding increased budget share.

The private sector sponsorship market has experienced turbulence over the past 5 years influenced by hosting the 2010 World Cup. For example, 2011 experienced a growth of 0.3 % over 2010, while sponsorship reverted to its normal growth trajectory of 6.8 % between 2011 and 2012 (BMI Sport Info 2012). Although sponsorships to sports organizations from the private sector are growing, it is not spread equally among all sports types. For example, of the 80 sports types surveyed in 2012, the top five sports types (soccer, rugby, cricket, motor racing, and golf) received 70 % of all sports sponsorship spend. The remaining sports types, including tennis, athletics, swimming, basketball, and gymnastics, receive 30 % of the total spend.

Therefore, while the government seeks to provide equity in the sports system through its strategies, private sector spend remains focused on high-profile sports, resulting in many mass-based sports types struggling to survive and to share limited resources.

## 19.4 Sports Policy

The first sports policy in South Africa was promulgated in 1996 as the “White Paper on Sport and Recreation.” The White Paper on Sport and Recreation provided policy guidelines for the delivery of sports and recreation in the country and stated unequivocally that the overall responsibility for policy, provision, and delivery of sports and recreation resides with the newly established national government Department of Sport and Recreation. Although provincial departments of sports and recreation were obliged to align their respective provincial White Papers on Sport and Recreation with national policies, the national Department of Sport and Recreation did not have any political and legal jurisdiction over the provinces and local authorities to implement strategies and priorities set out in its national White Paper. Separation of powers and duties of national, provincial, and local spheres of government were enshrined in the first post-apartheid constitution of South Africa (RSA 1996a, 1996c, pp. 146–147).

For the first time, sports and recreation legislation aimed at correcting imbalances in sports and recreation and promote equity and democracy in sports and recreation. From 1998 until 2006, the national government passed legislations regulating the promotion of sports and recreation in South Africa, like the National Sport and Recreation Act 110 of 1998 (and amendments), the establishment and repeal of the South African Sports Commission (SASC) Act 109 of 1998 (and amendments), the South African Sports Commission Act Repeal Bill, and the regulation of Safety at Sports and Recreation Events. This set of legislations aimed to simultaneously balance sports imperatives by increasing levels of participation in sports and simultaneously achieve success at elite-level sports.

Significant policy contests between advocates of local developmental concerns and global elite imperatives stimulated the continual reexamination of sports policy



and reappraisal of sports institutions between 1996 and 2005. One of the most significant phases of sports policy and institutional development was stimulated by purported “failures” of South African international sports teams around 2000. Globally, pressure intensified on national sport institutions to embrace global changes and commit to an elite sports discourse measured in global success. Inescapably, the DSR needed to reconcile the varied impacts of global sports and confront the realities of de-racialization, national sports transformation, and development in a coherent post-apartheid sports policy.

Responding to the need for greater success on the international sports arenas, and in particular poor performances at various international events, the then Minister of Sport Ngconde Balfour assigned a task team (MTT) to investigate “factors that negatively impacted on South Africa’s performance in high performance sport” (MTT 2003). The recommendations of the MTT established that the poor performance at international level was symptomatic of a disjointed and ineffective sports system. In 2001, 5 years after the first White Paper for Sport was developed, a new policy emphasized policy and institutional change focused on high-performance and elite sports simultaneously acknowledging the need to pay attention to the overall sports system in South Africa.

The policy on sports and recreation emphasized both sports and recreation and accentuated sports development initiatives. However, practically programs paid scant attention to contextualizing sports in the realities of residual social and economic inequities. Although apartheid was no longer a state policy, the imbalances in facilities, resources, and technical skills stymied the attainment of equal access to sports opportunities. The sports discourse that emerged in the period of 2000–2005 centered on how best to manage the growing divide between elite sports and community empowerment programs. Scarce resources were increasingly absorbed into talent identification and elite performance programs. Sports policy and resource distribution suggest a shift away from recreation, mass participation, and the role of sports in social and community development. The preamble of the recently approved National Sport and Recreation Plan argues that, “sport as a right, sport in development and peace, sport and the environment, an outcomes-based approach to governance and the proactive role of a developmental government” (SRSA 2012a) was insufficiently emphasized in changes to policy, programs, and governing institutions in post-apartheid South Africa.

The third revised sports policy recalibrated the elements of sports development and elite sports. A National Sport and Recreation Plan was approved in 2011, “nurturing a vibrant sports system that encourages growth and development of the sport sector and the equitable delivery of sport to all to ensure that South Africa is both ‘An Active and a Winning Nation’”(SRSA 2012a). The NSRP details the broad objectives of the White Paper on Sport and Recreation and outlines the three main pillars of implementation: (i) active nation, (ii) winning nation, and (iii) enabling environment. These core pillars are supported by transversal strategies and use sport as a vehicle to achieve national priorities.

The SRSA identified the following strategic objectives to substantiate the National White Paper on Sport and Recreation: transformation of school sports;

strengthening institutional mechanisms, facility development, sports councils, academies, and coaching; and mass mobilization in sports and recreation through youth camps, job creation, recreation, high-performance sports, and effective administrative support. Delivering on these objectives requires a well-governed sports community and effective coordination between various institutions.

Adherence to conjoint, nationally determined objectives and streamlined implementation is intrinsic to the new sport policy. All institutions operating in the sports arena are required to align their strategic and business plans to the NSRP. The value system underpinning the NSRP shaping decision-making and activities encompass nine themes (SRSA 2012a). Firstly, accessibility of sports for all people irrespective of their socioeconomic status, disability, or geographic location; secondly an athlete-centered focus is important as the long-term welfare and development of athletes is significant. The third emphasis is on coach-driven programs to nurture well-trained and experienced sports coaches. Themes four and five encompass equity and fairness where all participants in sports have a right to be treated fairly and not to be discriminated against. A Code of Ethics will reinforce expectations of fair play and adherence to rules and regulations, including the international codes on use of drugs and illegal substances. Excellence and fairness in all aspects of sports; shared leadership in terms of a collaborative partnership between government, sports organizations, and other supporting institutions; and a unified purpose of a centrally driven NSRP which is implemented “seamlessly” at provincial and local levels round up the nine themes.

The NSRP accentuates a coordinated policy and institutional approach, integrating programs, and a sports system that straddle national, provincial, and regional levels. The following are foundational legal frameworks, policies, and acts in sports and recreation from 1996 onwards, governing sports and reinforce the NSRP. These include the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108/1996); the School Sport Act, (Act 84/1996); the Lotteries Act, 1997 (Act 57/1997); the Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (Act 1/1999); the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 2005 (Act 13/2005); the South African Institute for Drug-Free Sport Act of 1997 (Act 14/1997) and Amendment Act 25 of 2006; the National Sport and Recreation Act, 1998 (Act 110/1998) and Amendment Act No 18 of 2007; the South African Boxing Act of 2001 (Act 11/2001); the Safety at Sport and Recreation Events Act of 2010 (Act 2/2010); and the White Paper on Sport and Recreation (2011). Subsequent to the acceptance of the National Sport and Recreation Plan, the National Sport and Recreation Amendment Act 2007 (Act No.18 of 2007) is being revised.

In August 2012, the Transformation Charter for South Africa Sport, a transversal issue discussed earlier, was published. The charter defined “transformation” as “a process of holistically changing the delivery of sports through the actions of individuals and organizations that comprise the sports sector to ensure increased access and opportunities for all South Africans, including women, persons with disabilities, youth, children and the elderly to sports and recreation opportunities.” It also stresses that socioeconomic benefits of sports must be harnessed and that “the constitutional right to sports is recognized” (SRSA 2012b).

Secondary national policies refer to sports-specific regulations such as the National Sport and Recreation Act (Act 110/1998); Bidding and Hosting of International Sport and Recreation Events Regulations (MSR 2010); and the School Sport Mass Participation Policy 2011. In addition, the nine provincial sport and recreation departments have developed various regional sports policies appropriate for their respective region. For example, the Western Cape Department of Sports has developed policies such as the “Rainbow Paper on Sports and Recreation,” “the Guidelines for Funding,” and the “Sports Transformation Charter.”

The key challenge that government and sports organizations grapple with is the constant flux in legislation, policy, institutions, strategies, and plans. The most critical challenge that has emerged recently is the need to align the various policy processes and outcomes with the National Sports Plan and to take account of changes in institutional mechanisms that shape the sports environment in South Africa.

Various leaders in sport civil society institutions highlighted the importance of critical assessment of these policies and the need for consistent evaluation and review of the strategy and the plans. Interview respondents for a study of South African Sport Policy (Maralack 2012) indicate four main concerns.

First, members of the civil society highlight that, even though the government has developed effective policies and legislation that support sports and development in South Africa, the high turnover of senior political and administrative leadership (ministers, directors general, and chief directors) elicits constant changes to policies and strategies.

Second, there is reduced consistency and effectiveness in implementing policies and strategies as you move down the institutional hierarchy. Policies, strategies, and plans of action for implementation are not given sufficient time to cascade to the lowest levels of participation and therefore have an impact.

Third, the flux in leadership and the changes to policies, strategies, and plans do not allow for the maturation of the strategies and plans and the development and implementation of clear monitoring and evaluation processes and mechanisms. Therefore, the success or lack thereof of the policy or specific aspects of the policy and plan is not sufficiently developed and taken into account. One respondent points out that these policies are excellent but the monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of these policies remains a concern.

Fourth, it is argued that the national government and its provincial counterparts have put policy in place to accommodate civil society sports bodies that will administer sports at every level in the country. In South Africa, sports to a large extent is well administered. However, a critical concern raised is the prevalence of politics within sports, both from the government and civil society, which has plagued the development of effective policies, strategies and plans, and has thus stifled growth.

In policy terms, the present period has been characterized by the institutionalization of Results-Based Monitoring and Evaluation Systems as well as an ongoing focus on policy coherence. The new strategy is considered necessary as intergovernmental relations and policy coordination in the field of sports and recreation with especially the education and health policies and plans have been poor. Although Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) tools and systems have existed since 1995, this

has been applied poorly in sports and recreation. Recently, both the national department and provincial departments have emphasized the development of these systems. At national level, SRSA has released two key frameworks, namely, a “Policy Framework for M&E” as well as a “Monitoring Plan.”

Since the publication of the National Policy Framework on Evaluation by the Presidency in November 2012, a major emphasis has also been placed on systematic evaluation of programs. The Presidency included 172 mass participation, opportunity and access, and development and growth centers (MOD Centers) of the Western Cape Province in the Evaluation Pilot Projects of the Presidency for 2012–2013. The MOD Centers provide sports and recreation programs and activities to learners from disadvantaged communities and under-resourced schools. During February 2012, the Presidency also released a “Standards Framework for Evaluation” and a “Competency” framework for officials and service providers. In sports and recreation, the focus is on the development of an M&E system in the provincial government departments. Promoting a governance approach to sports and recreation, structured interaction with civil society has also been prioritized – this is especially apparent through the cooperation between the Department of Performance Management and Evaluation (DPME) in the Presidency and SAMEA, the South African Monitoring and Evaluation Association, an elected nongovernmental body. In this sphere, NGOs in the sports and recreation field have responded with the development of M&E systems especially in the field of youth at-risk programs (e.g., the case of Amandla Edu Soccer in Khayelitsha).

## 19.5 Sport Participation

Understanding participation in sports in South Africa requires an acknowledgement of the historical and contextual realities of race and socioeconomic groups in South Africa. Key themes that have emerged in policy and legislative documents include the continuing need to address historical backlogs of disadvantaged groups in terms of race and socioeconomic status, the need for structured mass participation programs in schools, youth at-risk programs and the effective mobilization of civil society structures in sports to increase participation in sports and recreation in South Africa.

There is an ongoing debate in sports institutions and among policy makers about the extent to which high-performance sports is still dominated by high-income socioeconomic status athletes. It is acknowledged that focusing on transformation strategies to increase accessibility for all socioeconomic groups is a key challenge in the South African sport context (SRSA 2012b).

Eight priority areas were identified (Department of Cultural Affairs and Sports 2011) by sports and recreation role players to address this challenge: to improve coordination and clarify roles of various institutions, to emphasize facility development in disadvantaged areas, to improve management skills, to motivate communities to

promote lifestyle change, to hone expertise in high-performance sports, to ensure that affirmative action objectives are met, to develop a code of ethics for sports, and to align the national government policy with international associations.

Priority area four seeks “to motivate the community to develop active lifestyles and channel those with talent for development into the competitive areas of sports.” It emphasizes participation in recreation activities as a fundamental human right, requiring equitable resource allocation, coordinated effort, and integrated development.

The NSRP with its vision for an “Active and Winning Nation” focuses on strategic objectives to assist with broadening the base of sports and recreation in South Africa. The “Active Nation” component comprises of the following three strategic objectives: recreation, school sports, and participation promotion campaigns (SRSA 2012a). The NSRP focuses on the physical wellbeing of the nation by supporting sport and active recreation, providing mass participation opportunities.

### ***19.5.1 General Participation Rates***

Recent studies (BMI 2009) confirmed and quoted by Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA 2009) in their publication called the “Case for Sport” demonstrate that levels of participation are low and are unevenly spread across both socioeconomic groups and sports types. The Human Sciences Research Council shows that 25 % of the population of 49 million people participates in sports and that 24 % have no interest in sports or recreation.

A significant restraining factor is the weakness in the school sport system. Statistics show that 33 % who participate in sport were exposed to the sport at school and that participation in organized sports in schools is a significant predictor of participation as an adult.

Provincial departments such as the Western Cape Department of Cultural Affairs and Sports are presently conducting research in this field. Results will guide future strategies and interventions for sports participation.

### ***19.5.2 Top Sports***

The following are the most recent published statistics on popular sports among adults in South Africa (BMI 2009; SRSA 2009) based on information gathered between 2007 and 2009 (Table 19.1):

The most popular sports in South Africa is a mixture of formal sports such as soccer, road running, netball, and swimming and less-formalized sports types such as exercise walking, gym exercising, and aerobics. For example, increasing numbers of participants join exercise-walking groups (ranked 2) and sign up for exercise

**Table 19.1** Adult (over the age of 18 years) sports participation (all segments) profile

Ranking	Sport	Participants (x1,000)	Percentage
1	Soccer	2,291	14
2	Exercise walking	1,149	7
3	Road running	1,056	6
4	Netball	991	5.5
5	Gym exercising	798	4.8
6	Aerobics	787	4.8
7	Swimming	716	4.4
8	Tennis	706	4.3
9	Squash	529	3.2
10	Golf	523	3.2

Note: BMI Sport Info (2009), Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (2009) extracted information from national surveys of 16.3 million respondents between 2007 and 2009

classes at private gymnasiums (ranked 5). The findings of the national analysis are supported by studies at local and provincial levels. According to the 2011 City of Cape Town Recreation Research Report (2011), the most popular sports are also soccer, closely followed by informal recreational activities such as walking, aerobics, and fitness (City of Cape Town 2011).

These participation rates are still affected by race and increasingly by socioeconomic status. For example, significantly more upper-income residents participate in sports and recreation than lower-income residents (City of Cape Town 2011, pp. 44–48). In the context of South Africa's challenges, race as an indicator for socioeconomic conditions remains a concern and is reflected in the inequitable number of sports and recreation participants as well as the types of sports that the respective race and socioeconomic groups participate in.

For example, in Cape Town, the biggest differences can be seen in the upper-income households which appear to participate more in aerobics/fitness, martial arts, running, and walking and the lower-income households which appear to participate more in sports such as netball and soccer.

Furthermore, the findings also suggest that there are other barriers besides cost. The fact that lower-income households are not as involved in activities that are free, such as running and walking, suggests that other constraints like safety, accessibility, and working hours may be having an impact (City of Cape Town 2011, p. 44). A more nuanced analysis of membership to sports clubs shows that fewer Cape Town residents, irrespective of race and socioeconomic status, belong to sports clubs or teams than those that belong to gyms, which are traditionally more expensive.

These findings have significant implications for sports policy, the structure and functioning of sports institutions/clubs, and the need to increase accessibility to a broader range of sports and recreation activities. The NSRP, the Transformation Charter, and the Transformation Scorecard aim to address these multifaceted challenges in a structured and systematic way (2012b).

## 19.6 Conclusion

South African sport policy and the associated legislation are comprehensive in its content and strategic focus. The national government in making public sports policy has successfully provided a framework for sports in all its facets that include professional sports, amateur sports, recreation, and indigenous games. It includes in its policies the promotion of institutions and programs that lead to both improved elite performances and to creating opportunity for more mass participation. The White Paper for Sport and Recreation (2011), the National Sport and Recreation Act (1998, amended in 2007), and the National Sport and Recreation Plan (2012a) provide sufficient legislative framework for all activities related to sports and recreation. The vision leaves room for further deliberations, and where insufficient legal instruments were found, the SRSA and national government have been sufficiently responsive to create these. Relevant policies and legislations were created when special needs arose in South African sports. For example, the Disaster Management Act (2002), the Safety at Sport and Recreation Events Act (2010), and the 2010 FIFA World Cup Special Measures Act (2006) ensure that all aspects of any mega-event are managed effectively.

An analysis of the policy and strategy system of sports and recreation in South Africa shows that although an important basis has been laid in terms of the White Paper, the Act, and the SRSA Plan, much still needs to be done to establish a well-synchronized policy, implementation, and performance management system. It is striking that although improved performance in competitive sport (a winning nation) and the massification of sports (a more active nation) are regarded as policy priorities, clear policy statements on sports and recreation for development purposes remain absent in both the National White Paper and the National Sport and Recreation Plan. Sports and development initiatives are, however, very visible at the local level in terms of government support and cooperation with nongovernmental organizations. In comparative terms, it is striking that although many implementation instruments for sports exist, such as the NSRP, the budget processes, and Integrated Development Plans (Cloete and De Coning 2011, p. 173), little use is made of these strategies as public sector instruments to integrate government efforts in sports and development.

Even though South African sports policy and support legislation are comprehensive in its content and strategic focus, a new modality of sport governance may be required, emphasizing collaborative processes within and between government institutions and systems on the one hand and sports institutions and communities on the other. The evidence presented here suggests that a sustainable sports transformation process in South Africa is not likely to depend on a single-policy intervention but may require a multi-scaled set of projects, consisting of a heterogeneous combination of strategies, enacted by multiple actors and situated in a variety of institutions operating at various geographical scales.

## References

- BMI Sport Info. (2009). *A case for sport in the Southern African development community: The social and economic value of sport*. Updated from 2007 version. Pretoria: Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa.
- BMI Sport Info. (2012, December). *BMI annual adult sport track report*. Unpublished document. City of Cape Town.
- City of Cape Town. (2011). *City of Cape town recreation study*. Cape Town.
- Cloete, F., & De Coning, C. (2011). *Improving public policy: Theory, practise and results*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport. (2011). *School sport mass participation policy 2012*. Cape Town.
- Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa. (2009). *A case for sport and recreation. The social and economic value of sport*. Pretoria: Sport and Recreation South Africa.
- Department Sport and Recreation South Africa. (2012a). *National sport and recreation plan*.
- Department Sport and Recreation South Africa. (2012b). *Transformation Charter for South Africa Sport (Final version August 2012)* (Vol. 1, pp. 52). Cape Town.
- Keim, M., & De Coning, C. (2013). *African sport policy index report*. Bellville: UWC, Interdisciplinary Centre of Excellence for Sport Science and Development.
- Maralack, D. (2012). UNESCO Africa Index Report: Country report South Africa. Cape Town: ICESSD. In M., Keim, & De Coning, C (Eds.), 2013 African sport policy index report. Bellville: UWC, Interdisciplinary Centre of Excellence for Sport Science and Development.
- Minister of Sport and Recreation. (2010). *Bidding and hosting of international sport and recreational events regulations*. Regulation 433. Cape Town: Government Gazette 33211.
- Ministerial Task Team. (2003). *Ministerial task team on sport: A high performance Sport System for South Africa*. Cape Town.
- Republic of South Africa. (1996a). *Constitution of South Africa. Act. 108/1996*. Cape Town.
- Republic of South Africa. (1996b). *South Africa Schools Act. Act 84/1996*. Cape Town.
- Republic of South Africa. (1996c). *The White paper on sport and recreation for the Republic of South Africa*. Cape Town: Minister of Sport and Recreation.
- Republic of South Africa. (1997a). *Lotteries Act. Act 57/1997*. Cape Town.
- Republic of South Africa. (1997b). *South African Institute for Drug Free Sport Act. Act 14/1997*.
- Republic of South Africa. (1998). *National Sport and Recreation Act (Act 110 of 1998)*. Cape Town: Government Gazette.
- Republic of South Africa. (1999). *Public Finance Management Act. Act 1/1999 as amended*. Cape Town.
- Republic of South Africa. (2001). *South African Boxing Act. Act 11/2001*. Cape Town.
- Republic of South Africa. (2002). *Disaster Management Act. Act 57/2002*. Cape TOWN: Government Gazette.
- Republic of South Africa. (2005). *Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act. Act 13/2005*. Cape Town.
- Republic of South Africa. (2006). *2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa Special Measures Act. Act 11/2006*. Cape Town: Government Gazette.
- Republic of South Africa. (2007). *National Sport and Recreation Act (Amendment act n.18 of 2007)* (Vol. 30476). Cape Town: Government Gazette.
- Republic of South Africa. (2010). *Safety at Sport and Recreation Events Act. Act 2/2010*. Cape Town.
- Republic of South Africa. (2011). *The White paper on sport and recreation for the Republic of South Africa. Revision*. Minister of Sport and Recreation: Cape Town.



# Chapter 20

## Uganda

Sandra S.B. Kasoma

### 20.1 Sport System and Structure of Organized Sport

This chapter presents the reader with a basic understanding of the development of organized sport and the sport system in Uganda. It provides a general outline of the structure, the support available in terms of policies and sources of funding as well as the challenges facing sport. Uganda is one of the East African countries formerly colonized by Britain. The country obtained its independence in 1962. Before gaining independence, each of the ethnic groups in Uganda had their own organized sport (Nsamba 2003). Thus, sport in Uganda has been developed both through formal and non-formal means. It gained popularity, by and large, through society and the teaching of physical education and sports in schools.

Educational institutions have played a major role in the development of sports in Uganda. Physical education has long been taught as one of the main subjects in school curricula which teach a number of sports and movement skills. The skills learnt during physical education classes were practiced later in the day during sports training. Every student had the opportunity to choose from and participate in any of the sports available. This boosted the development of sport at grass roots level. The educational institutions had well-developed departments of sports and games. The departments had been set up with trained personnel, basic equipment, and established facilities for various sports to facilitate wide exposure to the school community especially students. Thus, a large number of students who went through these schools had a good background in sports and therefore support and participate in sports in various capacities. Some people are sponsors, others fans, promoters, managers of sports organizations, coaches, and/or athletes. However, the system that had been so well established collapsed between 1970 and 1985 when Uganda went

---

S.S.B. Kasoma, Ph.D. (✉)

School of Biosciences, Sports Science Unit, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda  
e-mail: skasoma@sci.mak.ac.ug; sandkasoma@yahoo.com

through a period of political instability (Bitamazire 2005) that led to governance issues such as a decline in skilled manpower and infrastructure which is currently under restoration and rehabilitation. The Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) is in charge of sports (MoES 2004). It discharges its duties through the Department of Physical Education and Sports (PES) and the National Council of Sports (NCS) (MoES 2012, 2004). On the other hand, the Uganda Olympic Committee (UOC), a nongovernmental organization which is a member of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), promotes Olympic sports in Uganda. The NCS is a corporate body enacted by the National Council of Sports Act of 1964. It was established and entrusted with responsibility for developing, promoting, controlling, and regulating all forms of amateur sports nationally in conjunction with the National Sports Associations/Federations (NSFs) (NCS 1964, 2008).

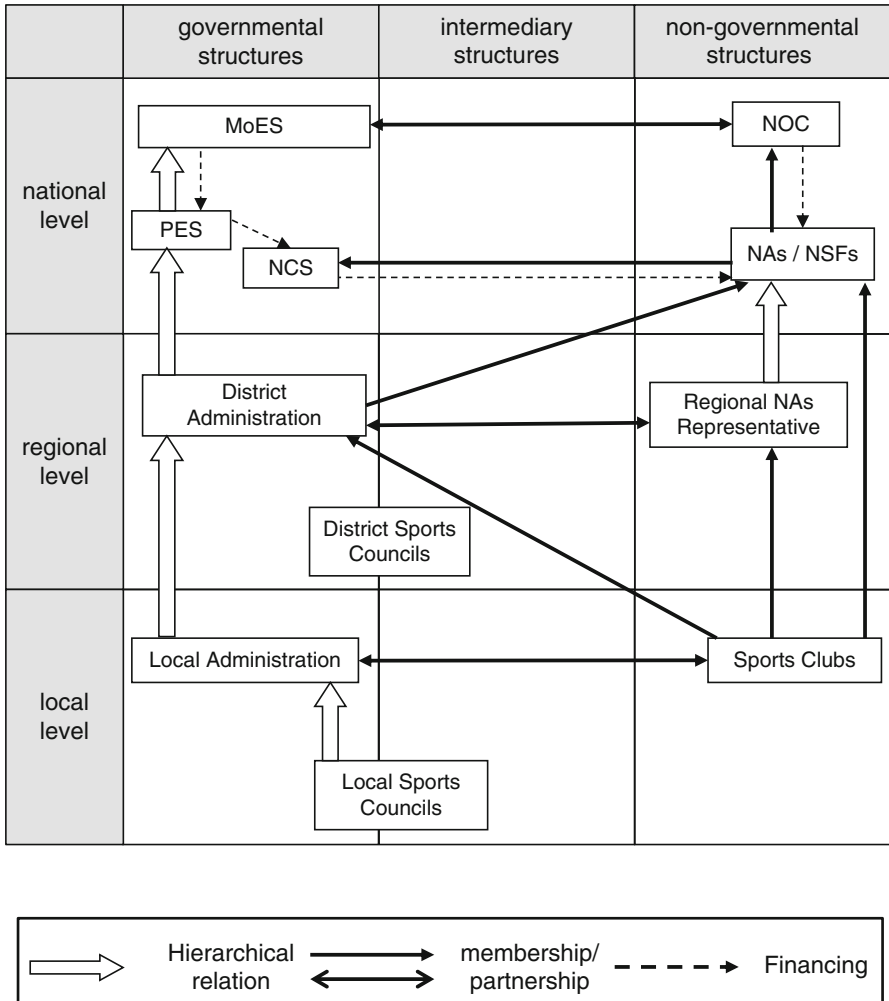
Over the years, Uganda has been participating in various sports at different levels. However, physical education and sport have been underdeveloped in terms of scope and quality (MoES 2004). Following the recommendations made in the National Physical Education and Sports Policy, the Department of Physical Education and Sports (PES) was established at the Ministry of Education and Sports in July 2006. The policy stipulates that the Ministry of Education and Sports is the lead agency in the implementation of the policy, mandating the Ministry of Education and Sports and the Department of Physical Education and Sports to improve, strengthen, and support the development of physical education and sport nationwide (MoES 2004). However, the Department of Physical Education and Sports coordinates and supervises sports development in schools and tertiary institutions while university sports are a mandate of the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE). Nonetheless, some matters are handled directly by the Department of Higher Education (HE) at the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES 2012). The National Council of Sports, on the other hand, is mandated with developing elite sport in conjunction with the National Sports Federations (NCS 1964, 2008).

The National Council of Sports functions include (i) providing training for technical and other staff, grants-in-aid, stadiums, fields of play, and other facilities as well as equipment and other sports items to the National Sports Federations to facilitate the development of sports; (ii) fostering participation in sport and cooperation among the various National Sports Federations; (iii) the approval and organization in consultations with National Sports Federations of national, international, and other competitions and festivals as a means of sharing experience and fostering positive relations with other countries; (iv) planning the general policy of sports promotion; (v) approving expenditures and audit accounts of National Sports Federations in receipt of grants made through the National Council of Sports; and (vi) advising the Minister on external relations in the field of sports and engaging in all activities conducive to the development of sport as approved by the Minister of Sports (NCS 2008, 1964).

There are 47 national associations (NAs) affiliated to the National Council of Sports (NCS 2013). Out of these, 37 are specific sports or National Sports Federations including Uganda Volleyball Federation (UVF), Uganda Badminton Association (UBA), Uganda Cricket Association (UCA), Federation of Motor Sports Association of Uganda (FMU), Federation of Uganda Football Association (FUFA), Uganda Amateur Boxing Federation (UABF), Federation of Uganda Basketball Association

(FUBA), Uganda Weightlifting Association (UWA), Uganda Karate-do Association (UKA), Uganda Rugby Union (URU), Uganda Handball Association (UHA), Uganda Hockey Association (UHA), Uganda Athletics Federation (UAF), Uganda Netball Federation (UNF), Uganda Darts Association (UDA), Uganda Pool Association (UPA), Uganda Kickboxing Association (UKBA), Uganda Lawn Tennis Association (ULTA), Uganda Cycling Association, Uganda Baseball and Softball Association, Uganda Swimming Federation (USF), Uganda Archery Federation, Uganda Table Tennis Association (UTTA), Uganda Taekwondo Association, Uganda Canoeing and Kayak Federation, Uganda Judo Association, Uganda Squash Rackets Association, Uganda Body Building Association, Uganda Wrestling Association, Uganda Muaythai Boxing Association, Uganda Golf Union Association (UGU), Uganda Woodball Association, Uganda Skating Federation, Uganda Sailing Federation, Uganda Rifle Shooting Federation, Uganda Frisbee Association, and Uganda Lacrosse Union. The other national associations are institutional such as Uganda Secondary School Sports Association (USSSA), which is in charge of secondary school sports competitions in Uganda; the National University Sports Federation of Uganda (NUSFU) in charge of universities; and Uganda Primary School Sports and Games Association (UPSSGA) for primary schools. These associations are responsible for organizing national and international sports competitions for these educational institutions. However, technical support is sought from the National Sports Federations. The Uganda National Paralympics Association (UNPC), a national member of the International Paralympic Committee (IPC), is responsible for organizing participants for the Paralympic Games, while the Uganda Sports Press Association (USPA) is a body that brings all sports journalists together including those who cover sports in the print media, the audio (radio), and the audio-visual (television) media. Sports journalists support the development of sport through their media coverage and reports on winning athletes of a given season monthly, quarterly, or yearly (Bukenya 2011; Raissa 2013; Supersport 2013). Furthermore, there are associations the author would not characterize as sports even though they are viewed as sport by the National Council of Sports. These include mweso, chess, ludo, and draughts, all of which are board games.

The Uganda Olympic Committee (UOC) is a nongovernmental organization that governs Olympic sports in Uganda. Thus, the Uganda Olympic Committee coordinates national athletes for the Olympic Games and other international events which include the Commonwealth Games and the All-Africa Games. The Uganda Olympic Committee ensures that all National Federations affiliated to the Olympics prepare athletes and teams to qualify for the Olympic Games. It is also responsible for promoting Olympic values in Uganda. The National Olympic Committee (NOC) supports the development of national athletes through the training programs for high-performance sport. Additionally, technical courses for the training of coaches are made available to the national coaches selected by the federations. The technical training is supported by international experts who come to Uganda every year. This is made possible through the Olympic solidarity programs, the Olympic scholarships for athletes and coaches, and the partnerships and cooperation such as the Russia Cooperation. The Uganda Olympic Committee is a member of the Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa (ANOCA) and the International Olympic Committee.



**Fig. 20.1** Uganda sports structure (MoES 2004). Note: *MoES* Ministry of Education and Sports, *PES* Department of Physical Education and Sports, *NCS* National Council of Sports, *NOC* National Olympic Committee, *NAs* National Associations affiliated to the National Council of Sports, *NSFs* National Sport Federations

The Federations are in charge of developing their sports at national level. They are responsible for ensuring that their sport is developed and played in all the regions of the country through clubs and educational institutions. Secondly, National Sports Federations source funding for their activities such as train the trainer, coaches' and players' welfare, running, and/or participating in international competitions (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012; Bukenya 2011; MTN Press Box 2011b, 2009, 2008, 2010).

The framework below shows the Uganda sports system and structure of organized sport (Fig. 20.1).

## 20.2 Financing Sport

The government, through the Ministry of Education and Sports, funds sports. The budget for the sports sector is shared between the Department of Physical Education and Sports and the National Council of Sports (MoES 2012). The Department of Physical Education and Sports develops, coordinates, and supervises school sport championships in addition to managing physical education, while the National Council of Sports is in charge of national competitions co-run with the National Sports Federations (MoES 2012; ESSAPR 2012). The major expenditure categories comprise (i) management and capacity building; (ii) provision of physical education, sports services, and goods including materials, equipment, and facilities; (iii) development of policies, laws, guidelines, and strategies; (iv) support for national sports bodies; and (v) membership of international sports associations (MoES 2012, 2004). The NCS budget covers the payroll, training, and grants-in-aid to the National Sports Federations (MoES 2012). Before the Department of Physical Education and Sports was set up, the National Council of Sports was responsible for schools and other educational institutions' national sport championships. This position overlapped with the roles of the Ministry of Education and Sports, the Department of Physical Education and Sports, and the National Council of Sports (NCS 2011). Both the Department of Physical Education and Sports and the National Council of Sports acknowledge that support from the government budget is too small to run sport effectively (MoES 2012; ESSAPR 2012).

Since government funding is inadequate, other sources including corporate sponsorship, international bilateral agreements, and other support partners such as UNICEF had to be tapped. Corporate funding has boosted the development of sport in Uganda (Bashaija 2010; Were 2011). Different sports organizations have forged partnerships with media, government agencies, and private organizations to support sports activities such as local and international competitions; training and development of trainers, coaches, and athletes (MTN Press Box 2011a; Bukenya 2011; Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012); and for the construction and refurbishing of facilities (ESSAPR 2012; MTN Press Box 2010). Without corporate funding, sport in Uganda would disintegrate. The international bilateral agreements and cooperation programs, for example, with the German Federal Government which donated equipment and facilitated training for various sports personnel, inter alia, and the Chinese Government that renovated and refurbished the Mandela National Stadium (ESSAPR 2012) have all supported the development of sport in Uganda.

The quality and quantity of sports facilities is still a big challenge for the development of sports at national level (MoES 2004, 2012; ESSAPR 2012; NCS 2011). Although there are basic facilities in Kampala and most of the municipalities and headquarters of the old districts in Uganda, the Nelson Mandela Stadium in Kampala is the only modern stadium that meets international standards. The government plans to refurbish six stadiums in the following districts: Gulu in the northern region, Jinja and Mbale in the eastern, Masaka in the central, and Kabale and Mbarara in the western regions (MoES 2012).

As part of their initiative of supporting sports development, MTN Uganda sponsored the refurbishment of the Lugogo Indoor Stadium (MTN Arena) in 2009 which had become very run down due to lack of maintenance. This facility is perhaps the biggest and oldest indoor stadium in the country. The MTN Arena houses many sports including basketball, netball, volleyball, and badminton, to name but a few. Other facilities found at Lugogo, the home of the National Council of Sports, include the hockey field, the cricket oval, the boxing gym, the volleyball courts, the tennis courts, and the hostel. These are hired out for sports and nonsporting events (Bakama 2010). The public sports facilities at the districts and municipalities are managed and financed by the respective district authorities. The National High Altitude Training Centre proposed in sports policy is yet to be constructed (ESSAPR 2012; MoES 2012). The consultations and networking with various stakeholders, organizations, and line ministries are underway.

The National Sports Federations receive some financial support from the government through the National Council of Sports especially for international competitions (ESSAPR 2012; MoES 2012; Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012). Additionally, the National Sports Federations and the clubs affiliated to them seek sponsorship from corporate and individual partnerships where possible (Bukanya 2011). Otherwise, participation in events is more often than not affected by funding and other resource limitations. This affects both morale and the quality of performance. Sponsorships enable the National Sports Federations and clubs to meet their goals such as carrying out various training programs; acquiring adequate, state-of-the-art equipment and sometimes facilities; participating in various championships; and marketing their games. Some of the major sponsors include telecommunications companies such as MTN (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012), beverage companies such as Coca Cola, and television corporations such as Gateway Television (GTV) and Super Sport. For example, MTN Uganda has sponsored sport including soccer, golf, rugby, basketball, cricket, and athletics and associations such as the National University Sports Federation of Uganda (NUSFU) and the National Council of Sports, all of which have received significant funding from MTN before. MTN has relentlessly supported sports initiatives since 1998 including the MTN Kampala Marathon that was started in 2003 and whose profile has been growing every successive year to the point of being certified by the IAAF. In the same vein, Nile Special is known as Uganda's number one fan of rugby (Bukanya 2011).

The National Sports Federations also receive funding from the international federations to which they are affiliated. For example, the International Rugby Board funds some activities of the Uganda Rugby Union such as coaching clinics. Additionally, the clubs affiliated to the National Sports Federations pay subscriptions and participation fees for particular tournaments such as for Uganda Athletics Federation (UFA) (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012). The Department of Physical Education and Sports facilitates the National School Championships for both primary and secondary schools (ESSAPR 2012; MoES 2012). Furthermore, corporate companies especially Coca Cola in addition to individual participating schools also make some contribution towards the funding of such competitions.

### 20.3 Sports Policy

For a long time, Uganda did not have a National Sports Policy until 2004 when the current National Physical Education and Sports Policy was developed by the Ministry of Education and Sports of the Republic of Uganda (MoES 2004). The policy seeks to improve the management and administration of sports, raise the level of funding for physical education and sports, improve the quality of training, enhance the quality and quantity of facilities and equipment, strengthen institutional sports, promote the development of sports and a sports culture in the educational system, and develop excellence among athletes to make Uganda famous (MoES 2004). The main obstacles to the development of physical education and sports are poor management and administration, inadequate funding, lack of training facilities and equipment, lack of qualified personnel with modern techniques, failure of educational institutions to implement physical education and sports programs and a lack of professional technical bodies to promote and lobby for the interests of physical education and sports, and a lack of constitutionalism, transparency, and accountability in the majority of physical education and sports institutions (MoES 2004, 2012).

The mission statement in the sports policy focuses on achieving health, unity, democracy, and productivity through physical education and sports. By the same token, the policy objectives seek to improve planning, management, and administration of physical education and sport; improve access to quality physical education and sport; and develop a cadre of high-performing national athletes on a sustainable basis (MoES 2004, 2012). Targets and strategies have been defined that are aimed at achieving the projected objectives.

One of the strategies was to establish a Department of Physical Education and Sports. This Department was created at the Ministry of Education and Sports in 2006 as mentioned in the foregoing. The National Scheme for recognition of national athletes is also in place (MoES 2012; Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012).

There are no examinations for physical education and sports yet in primary and secondary schools. The Department of Physical Education and Sports decided that there should be continuous assessment rather than examinations. However, the guidelines to help with assessment are yet to be developed. Additionally, teaching of physical education is still a challenge in many schools. This is due to the lack of facilities, equipment, and physical education teachers (MoES 2012; ESSAPR 2012).

Graduates heading district offices has not yet been firmly established. Although district offices exist, the sports district officers' existence depends largely on the interest and attitude of the Local District officials and the resource basket at the districts.

Establishment and refurbishment of physical education and sports facilities at all level, national, regional, district, sub-county, and parish levels, are still a big challenge. In some areas where district and institutional grounds exist, they are in dilapidated condition owing to lack of maintenance (MoES 2012; Bitamazire 2005). However, the rehabilitation of the six regional stadiums and construction of the National High Altitude Training Centre (NHATC) have been initiated (ESSAPR 2012).

The professional national competitions in soccer, volleyball, athletics, cricket, boxing, and basketball are organized by the National Sports Federations and are held according to their calendars (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012; MoES 2012; ESSAPR 2012).

Training of coaches and trainers has been widely provided, but training of doctors and physiotherapists has been slow. This is because there are very few of them working with sports federations (ESSAPR 2012; MoES 2012). A lot remains to be done in terms of strengthening institutions, providing management, and administration in physical education and sports (MoES 2012; ESSAPR 2012; NCS 2012). Sports personnel have been equipped with modern training techniques, skills, and knowledge. However, athletes are yet to gain from them (MoES 2012; ESSAPR 2012).

Some programs such as Kids' Athletics have been launched as one of the talent acquisition channels. The Kids' Athletics program has been supported by the German Federal Government (ESSAPR 2012). The National Championships for the competitions in soccer, netball, and volleyball at all educational levels, primary, secondary, and universities, have been held (MoES 2012; ESSAPR 2012).

The level of performance at international competitions is reported to have improved in terms of participation and medals won especially in rugby, netball, athletics, cricket, soccer, badminton, and swimming (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012; ESSAPR 2012).

## 20.4 Sport Participation

Sport participation in Uganda is not clearly defined although it is mainly measured by the number of sports participants in the international arena. The number of sports participants in the international arena has increased compared to the previous edition although it is still low (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012; Bukenya 2011). Participation in sports is affected by limited resources such as funding, personnel, facilities, and equipment (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012; Ministry of Education and Sports 2012; ESSAPR 2012). Without these resources, it is virtually impossible for athletes to prepare to the required standard. The sports rated as the ten most popular by the National Council of Sports are soccer, athletics, and netball rated as highly popular; followed by basketball, rugby, and boxing rated as moderately popular; and lastly cricket, volleyball, cycling, and swimming. Sport participation could also be seen in terms of the numbers of athletes that engage actively in club sports. There are various clubs in different parts of the country affiliated to the National Sports Federations. These participate in particular tournaments as organized by the various National Sports Federations depending on the systems (if any) laid down by the National Sports Federations. For example, the Uganda Athletics Federation (UAF) has a program to run its activities throughout the country such as the MTN Marathon and the cross-country (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012). The MTN Marathon is a massive annual event that is organized by UAF in conjunction with MTN Uganda, a telecommunications company and the biggest sponsor of UAF activities (Ayikoru



and Nuwagaba 2012). The revenue generated from this event is donated to the disadvantaged communities of Uganda. On the other hand, the MTN Marathon increases public awareness and participation in physical activities. The UAF main activities are to organize, sanction, and supervise all the national athletics competitions in Uganda (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012). The national events organized include the national cross-country and marathons, postprimary athletics, national track and field trials, and inter-force championships. The UAF organizes all athletic events including running, jumping, and throwing events in all the regions of Uganda and is responsible for selecting a national team to represent Uganda at international events (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012).

The UAF seeks collaborations with other partners for funding, human resources, equipment, and other material resources towards the achievement of their goals. Furthermore, UAF works in partnership with universities and colleges to acquire competent personnel with teaching or coaching skills to improve standards of performance of national athletes. The clubs and associations affiliated to UAF subscribe annually and pay for participation in the tournaments for which they qualify. However, some clubs and associations have failed to organize any activities to provide competition for the athletes at clubs and district levels. Thus, some clubs and associations existed by name only. They did not implement any developmental projects. According to the administrative officer at UAF, a district may lose its membership if it fails to honor one or all of the following obligations: to pay a membership fee, to pay participation fees, to encourage athletes to participate in a given tournament, and to have active staff. To regain its membership, a district applies through the General Assembly and is required to pay arrears for any years it failed to pay membership fees. The federation should enforce the policies and laws in place. Conversely, this could only be helpful if the impeding factors are not related to funding (Ayikoru and Nuwagaba 2012).

Another National Sports Federation that has a well-defined strategy of meeting its objectives is the Uganda Rugby Union (URU). The URU is mandated by the International Rugby Board (IRB) to develop, run, and regulate all rugby activities in Uganda. It is run by an executive of nine members who work on a voluntary basis (Bukenya 2011). Within the administration there are subcommittees including Uganda Women Rugby Association (UWRA), Uganda Rugby Referees Society (URRS) in charge of referees, Uganda Rugby Medical Society (URMS) overseeing medical-related needs, Uganda School Rugby Association (USRA) responsible for schools' programs, and the Interregional committee, which manages upcountry teams in the northern, western, eastern, and central regions of Uganda (Bukenya 2011).

The URU runs quite a number of local tournaments. In 2011, URU organized the University League, the Nile Special Premier League, the Shield Cup, the Reserve League, and the ladies competitions (UWRA 10s and 7s Circuits). Furthermore, URU organized teams to participate in international competitions, which included Bamburi Rugby Super Series (BRSS), Confederation of Africa Rugby (CAR) Cup, Elgon Cup, Reunions 7s (women), and Safari 7s. According to Bukenya (2011), administrators must ensure that all clubs in the Premier League are financially and technically stable. Thus, all clubs in the Premier League should have the financial

capacity to take care of their players, have a coach trained to Level III, a team doctor or physiotherapist, and a team manager. Additionally, URU is focusing on developing a system with semiautonomous unions set up in the North and East of Uganda. The URU events and activities both local and international are mainly sponsored by the International Rugby Board and corporate organizations such as Nile Special, Super Sport, and MTN. Other activities include coaching courses and programs from Level I to III (Bukenya 2011).

The Uganda Cricket Association (UCA) has also developed systems aimed at increasing participation in cricket. According to renowned National Cricket Coach, Kamanyi William, sport such as cricket that is well developed in educational institutions, where facilities and trained personnel could be found, is still using these institutions to maintain and develop the sport further. However, disseminating the sport further is difficult because the equipment is very expensive, and re-skilling the coaches is not easy because many coaches are not organized enough. This is due to the fact that there are no organized activities such as camps or clinics. The National Council of Sports' support for the National Sports Federations is no longer significant enough and there are not enough facilities or equipment available. Although the International Cricket Council (ICC) provides some assistance, it is mainly for international tournaments.

Uganda Cricket Association has put most effort towards educational institutions in its move to expand to regionalization. Thus, the strategy in place is to have the nation divided into four zones of northern, eastern, central, and western. For each zone, a school and tertiary institution with already existing facilities and equipment has been identified as the center where the UCA plans to carry out all training and development activities. The UCA cannot start with all the zones at once. So at the moment, it is focusing on the northern zone at Sir Samuel Baker Secondary School and Gulu University as the centers for that region. The University league involving Makerere University, Kyambogo University, Makerere University Business school, Nkumba University, Mbarara University, and Uganda Christian University is also another avenue for developing cricket in Uganda.

In other instances, participation may be rated by the level of attraction. From this perspective, soccer takes the lead as the national sport of Uganda because it attracts large crowds of Ugandans from all walks of life. Soccer is played by many young people in communities and schools on any type of ground of any size using balls made from any possible material as long as it does not cause them injury. It is also watched by many Ugandans irrespective of gender, age, race/ethnicity, social status, or level of education. Soccer in Uganda is managed by the Federation of Uganda Football Association (FUFA). The association oversees the national team as well as the Super League. The national team, the Cranes, has had 21 coaches since 1968, seven of whom were non-nationals including the current one. It has made five appearances for the Africa Cup of Nations qualifiers, the first being in 1962 when it finished in fourth position. The best of these was in 1978 when it was the runner-up. The biggest defeat the Uganda Cranes have ever suffered was in 1995 and 1996 when they were beaten by Egypt and Tunisia, respectively, with scores of 6-1 each. Despite this, the Cranes won the East and Central Africa Football (CECAFA)

Competitions 13 times, most recently in 2012. Additionally, the recent results of the 2014 World Cup qualifiers by the Cranes indicate a draw (1-1) in each of the two matches played in June 2012 with Angola and Senegal, respectively. The Super League is the top division of Uganda soccer contested by 16 soccer clubs from across the country. The league was sponsored by DSTV's Super Sport.

## 20.5 Conclusion

Uganda has a reasonable structure within which to support sport development and has talented young athletes. However, the different players in this structure need to be more proactive, creative, and committed to revolutionizing Ugandan sport. Planning, leadership, funding, and provision of other resources, accountability, and professionalism should be emphasized in order to enhance athletes' performance at international level and increase participation in sports for all in the country.

## References

- Ayikoru, B., & Nuwagaba, G. (2012). *Uganda Athletics Federation Annual General Assembly Report 2011*. Lugogo: Uganda Athletics Federation.
- Bakama, J. (2010). *Lugogo indoor Stadium returns to NCS*. <http://www.newvision.co.ug/D/8/30/736291>. Accessed 20 May 2013.
- Bashaija, S. (2010). *Uganda: Corporate sponsorship changing face of sports*. <http://allafrica.com>. Accessed 15 Dec 2012.
- Bitamazire, N. G. (2005). *Status of Education for rural people in Uganda, a country report*. Paper presented at the Ministerial Seminar on Education for rural people in Africa, Addis Ababa.
- Bukenya, F. J. (2011). *Uganda Rugby 2011: Rugby Cranes 15's round up*. Kampala: New Vision Printing and Publishing Company.
- ESSAPR. (2012). *Education and sports sector annual performance report 2011–12*. Kampala: Ministry of Education and Sports. (2004). *National physical education and sports policy*. Kampala: Government of the Republic of Uganda.
- Ministry of Education and Sports. (2012). *Ministerial policy statement financial year, 2012–2013*. Kampala: Government of the Republic of Uganda.
- MTN Press Box. (2008). *MTN supports the Ugandan team at the All Africa Interuniversity Games*. 7/3/2008. <http://www.mtn.co.ug/About-MTN/News-Room>. Accessed 07 Dec 2012.
- MTN Press Box. (2009). *MTN Uganda foundation-NCS kick start work on Lugogo indoor stadium*. 7/17/2009. <http://www.mtn.co.ug/AboutMTN/News-Room>. Accessed 07 Dec 2012.
- MTN Press Box. (2010). *MTN boosts Uganda cranes with UGX 1 billion sponsorship*. 9/1/2010. <http://www.mtn.co.ug/About-MTN/News-Room>. Accessed 07 Dec 2012.
- MTN Press Box. (2011a). *MTN project areas: Supporting sports*. <http://www.mtn.co.ug/MTN-Foundation/Project-Areas.aspx> Accessed 07 Dec 2012.
- MTN Press Box. (2011b). *MTN Uganda announces date for Kampala Marathon 2011*. 10/27/2011. <http://www.mtn.co.ug/About-MTN/News-Room>. Accessed 07 Dec 2012.
- National Council of Sports. (1964). *National Council of Sports Act 1964. (Cap.48)*. Kampala: Government of the Republic of Uganda.
- National Council of Sports. (2008). *Catalogue and contacts of national sports associations*. Kampala.

- National Council of Sports. (2011). *Corporate strategic plan 2011–2015*. Kampala.
- National Council of Sports. (2012). *Towards sports excellence*. Kampala.
- National Council of Sports. (2013). *Member associations of the NCS*. [http://www.ncs.ug/index.php?option=com\\_content&view=article&id=91&Itemid=77](http://www.ncs.ug/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=91&Itemid=77). Accessed 16 July 2013.
- Nsamba, G. B. (2003). *Modern African nationalism: 1935 to present* (1st ed., p. 390), University of Michigan.
- Raissa, A. (2013). Sekagya voted footballer of the year. Retrieved 20th January 2013 from: <http://umupira.com/news/6785/>. Accessed 11 January 2013.
- Super sport. (2013). Sekagya voted footballer of the year. Retrieved 20th January 2013 from: <http://www.supersport.com/football/uganda/news/130108/>. Accessed 8 January 2013.
- Were, J. (2011). *Uganda: Nile Breweries inject Sh390 million into USPA*. <http://allafrica.com>. Accessed 15 Dec 2012.

# Chapter 21

## Mexico

Isra Villalpando Arzamendi

### 21.1 Introduction: The Creation of Organized Sport in Mexico

Institutionalized sport in Mexico can be traced back to 1849 when the Ministry of War and the Marines coordinated gymnastics lessons as part of military training for soldiers (CONADE 2012b). There are records that show the subject *physical culture* being part of high-school curricula as early as 1856, making Mexico one of the first countries in the world to introduce the concept in the education system (Right to Play 2008). Immediately after the Mexican Revolution (in 1910), some politicians and educators saw sport as a tool to build up civil values and a sense of belonging within the citizens (Arbena 1991). As a consequence, just 10 years later, physical education (PE) became obligatory in all educational levels in the country (CONADE 2012b).

The first half of the twentieth century was of great importance for the development of organized sport in Mexico. The Mexican Olympic Committee (COM) was founded in 1923, and by 1926 Mexico hosted the first ever Central American and Caribbean Games. In 1929, just 2 years after its foundation, the Mexican Football Federation was incorporated to FIFA. In December 1932, the first serious attempt from the Mexican government to get involved in the national sports' life occurred with the creation of the Consejo Nacional de Cultura Física (National Council of Physical Culture). This was the first government office solely focused on legislating, coordinating, and promoting sport activities in Mexico.

Following the creation of the Council, in 1933 the Confederación Deportiva Mexicana (CODEME, Mexican Sport Confederation) was founded. Its main goal was to bring together every national governing body or association of sports in order

---

I.V. Arzamendi (✉)  
International Paralympic Committee, Köln, Germany  
e-mail: israel.villalpando@paralympic.org

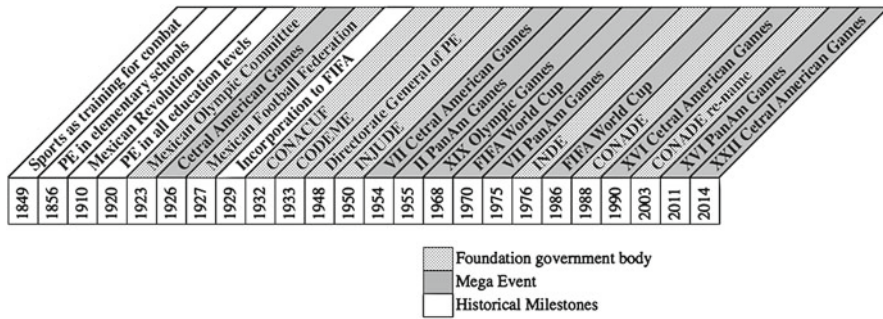


Fig. 21.1 Timeline of organized sport in Mexico

to promote organized sport. In 1948, the Mexican government, searching to regulate these efforts, created the Directorate General of Physical Education as a branch of the Secretary of Public Education (SEP) (CONADE 2012b).

It was not until 1988 that the main governing body of national sports was created. The Comisión Nacional de Deporte (CONADE, National Commission of Sport) evolved from being a sport-consulting group for SEP to be the government branch completely in charge of the promotion and organization of sports in Mexico. At the beginning of 2003, CONADE included physical activity to their agenda and the government renamed the organization Comisión Nacional de Cultura Física y Deporte (CONADE, National Commission of Physical Culture and Sport), as it is known today.

In summary, politicians saw sports as a tool to “make of Mexicans a better, healthier, and stronger people, cable of all those virile acts which solidify our nationality” (Arbena 1991). As interest grew, the government slowly built different commissions, departments, and institutes to guide the complex aspects of the national physical activity and sports. The way these different organisms interact is explained in the next section. The timeline (Fig. 21.1) provides a better overview of the development of institutionalized sport in Mexico via some key milestones.

## 21.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

The Mexican sport system is very complex due to the number of institutes and organizations that have to operate together to make it work correctly. The Sistema Nacional de Cultura Física y Deporte (SINADE, National Sport System), the most important working group in Mexico’s sport, is the core and steering engine of the Mexican sport system.

SINADE is under the jurisdiction of the Federal Executive Power and is headed by CONADE. The members of SINADE are representatives of the state sport

institutes, national sport federations, the Mexican Olympic Committee, the private sector, three scholastic sport councils, and, until 2012, CODEME. A board of advisors runs the operation of SINADE, which is headed by the General Director of CONADE. The working group meets at least once a year to conjointly discuss the direction of sport and physical activity in the country.

Since 1948, SEP (whose main responsibility is the national education) has been responsible for sport education and physical culture. SEP formulates programs to promote sport for all, scholastic sport, and high-performance sport. Sport funding and research in sport science are also part of SEP’s responsibilities.

SEP relies mainly on CONADE to accomplish the goals of the different sport programs. CONADE is constituted as a public structure, decentralized from the Federal Government, and directly reporting to SEP. The Mexican President designates CONADE’s General Director every 6 years.

The main responsibility of CONADE is to develop and implement the National Sport and Physical Culture Program (PND for its initials in Spanish) as part of the National Development Plan established by the Federal Government. This multiannual program establishes clear guidelines for operational structure, budget distribution, goals, and objectives for every aspect of physical activity and sport in Mexico (CONADE 2012b). The contents of the PND include high-performance sport, sport for all, guidance for national and international events, and physical activity programs, among other things. CONADE also develops initiatives for building and maintaining sporting facilities. According to CONADE’s latest Organizational Manual (2012), these areas are managed by six sub-directorates as shown in Fig. 21.2 together with their main responsibilities.

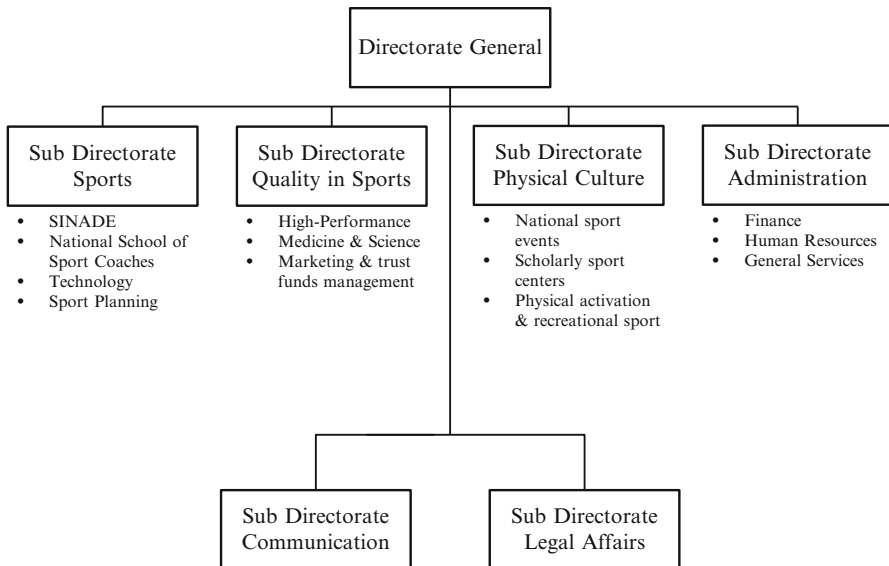


Fig. 21.2 CONADE organizational structure (CONADE 2012b)

CONADE delegates to the Instituto Estatal de Deporte y Cultura Física (INDE, State's Institute of Sport and Physical Culture)<sup>1</sup> the promotion, development, and organization of physical culture and sports in each state. The INDEs are requested by CONADE to develop their own local plan for sport and physical culture and encourages them to stay as close as possible to the PND. The INDEs consign the local sport associations to promote their respective sports within the state.

The local and national sport federations follow a business structure called Asociación Civil (A.C., Civil Associations), mainly used for nonprofit or charitable organizations. The federations are ruled by their own internal statutes and are responsible for coordinating and promoting activities of a particular sport in their region (*Ley General de Cultura Física y Deporte 2012*). The federations create their own strategies and usually follow a general sport strategy proposed by the governing body of the specific sport (even though they are not obliged). The National Federations are the only organizations entitled to set rules, programs, and regulations for sports in Mexico. They commonly follow guidelines set by the International Federations. As an example: Volleyball in Mexico City is organized by Mexico City's volleyball Association, but the local sport system is coordinated by the INDE from Mexico City. The local INDE develops a State Sport Plan that includes the volleyball association as part of it. The State Sport Plan ideally follows CONADE's PND and complies with the rules set by the International Volleyball Federation.

The Mexican Sports Confederation (CODEME) is constituted as an A.C. and is the representative of federated sport in Mexico. Its goal is to guarantee the correct organization and development of national sport by monitoring the proper implementation of the statutes that regulate the internal life of each of the more than 80 sport associations and sport federations (*CODEME 2010*). An important task of CODEME is to maintain and promote the collaboration between the federations, CONADE, Mexican Olympic Committee (COM), and the government. Also it is in charge of redistributing economic funds to the National Federations received from CONADE.

After the last amendment to the *Ley General de Cultura Física y Deporte* (LGCFD, General Law of Physical Culture and Sport) in 2013, CODEME lost the financial support of the government and has been excluded from SINADE. All this will be explained further in Sect. 21.4 of this chapter. At the time of writing, it is still unclear if CODEME will remain operative without the funding of the Federal Government, but it seems that after the new regulations, this association will disappear.

Another member of SINADE is the Mexican Olympic Committee (COM). Also a nongovernmental Civil Association with own rules and statutes based on the Olympic Charter, the COM is the national governing body recognized by the International Olympic Committee (IOC). COM is responsible mainly for promoting and protecting the Olympic values within Mexico. It works closely with CONADE and CODEME to decide Olympic-related matters such as hosting sport events,

---

<sup>1</sup> Some state agencies are called Consejos (councils) instead of Institutos (institutes).



confirmation of the Mexican Olympic delegation, or uniform design for Olympic competitions (Ley General de Cultura Física y Deporte 2012).

The Mexican Olympic Committee is also responsible for guaranteeing that Mexico is in good membership standing and is able to send athletes to competitions regulated by the different organizations recognized by the IOC. Some of the organizations are the Pan American Sports Organization (ODEPA), Centro American and Caribbean Sports Organization (ODECABE), and the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC).

The last members of SINADE are three scholastic sport councils. These Civil Associations were instituted to foster sports at all the different education levels in Mexico. The Consejo Nacional para el Desarrollo de la Educación Física y el Deporte en la Educación Básica (CONDEBA, National Council for the Physical Education and Sport Development in Basic Education) is responsible for the promotion and upbringing of sports in the very beginning of the education level, starting from primary schools. Sport in middle education and high school is organized by the Consejo Nacional para el Desarrollo del Deporte en la Educación Media Superior (CONADEMS, National Council for the Sport Development in Medium and High School Education). These two councils stimulate and foster the participation in physical activity and sports for all in schools from 1st grade through 12th grade.

Each of these councils (CONDEBA and CONADEMS) hosts one multisport national event every year in which youngsters can participate in chess, athletics, soccer, handball, basketball, volleyball, softball, and baseball.<sup>2</sup> These two councils work very closely with SEP and CONADE to formulate strategies and sport curricula for schools. The main goals are to increase participation level in sports and promote a healthier lifestyle through physical activity.

The third council coordinates sport in higher education institutes, and it is called the Consejo Nacional del Deporte en la Educación (CONDDE, National Council for Sport in Education). Sports in colleges, universities, and other institutes have a long tradition in Mexico. Athletic activities offered by the universities and colleges in Mexico started in 1947 (CONDDE 2013), and it has developed to the point that on January 2013 the NCAA<sup>3</sup> voted on the possibility of including some Mexican teams to the Division II American Football league (Diverse Staff 2013) in the United States.

At the beginning of 2013, CONDDE reported a membership enrollment of over 250 different private and public institutions from all over the country (CONDDE 2013). CONDDE's members are allowed to participate in the National University Games, or Universiade, a multisport event celebrated once a year since 1988 (CONDDE 2013). During 2 weeks the Universiade brings together the highest performance level of intercollegiate sports in the country. The long qualification process starts internally in the universities then evolving to state and regional

---

<sup>2</sup>These eight sports are the core events but more could be added depending on agreements. In 2012, badminton and table tennis were exhibition events.

<sup>3</sup>NCAA stands for National Collegiate Athletic Association and is the authority of college sports in the United States.

qualification stage. Only first and second places of the regional elimination round qualify to the nationals. The Universiade is the platform to identify the national teams to represent Mexico at the World University Games. CONDDE is the organism mainly responsible for selecting the Mexican delegation with some assistance from CONADE and COM (Ley General de Cultura Física y Deporte 2012).

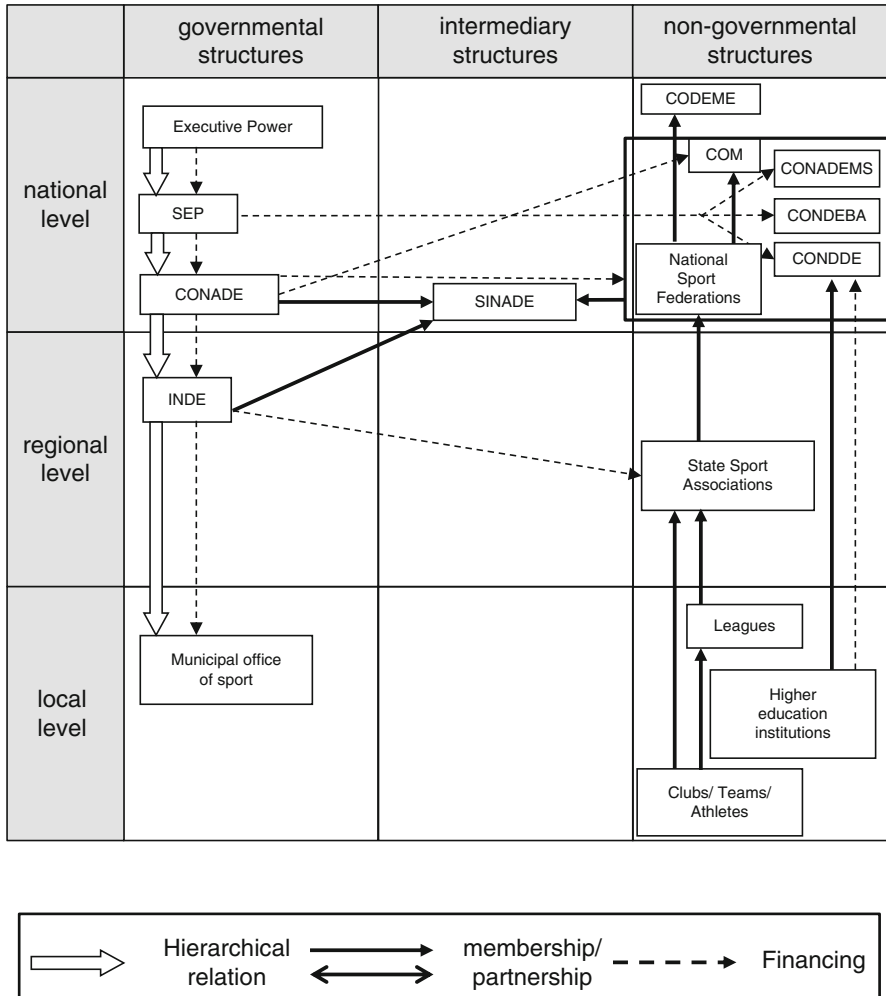
In short, CONADE sits at the top of the hierarchy level in Mexican sport. The national organizations supporting CONADE are COM, CODEME, National Sport Federations, and student councils. The INDEs, State Sport Associations, and Municipal Sport Offices coordinate and organize physical activity and sport in a more local level. The last pieces of the chain are the professional, amateur, and intercollegiate sport leagues and clubs. The SINADE is formed by representatives of all the aforementioned organizations and is the main working group in Mexican sport. Figure 21.3 shows the hierarchic levels and interactions between all the stakeholders. Double-lined arrows refer to an obligated hierarchical level, solid arrows indicate a voluntary or membership partnership, and the dotted arrows refer to funding, which is explained in the next section.

### 21.3 Financing Sport

In Mexico, the Federal Government is the main source of funding for sport. With the exceptions of CONDDE, which also receives strong funding from their members, all the national nongovernmental organizations receive resources mainly from CONADE or SEP. The legislation on financial incentives for private investment in sport is very narrow. It defines investments in sport as a donation mainly due to the business structure legislation behind Civil Associations. Therefore, the tax exemption or benefit cannot be over 7 % of the yearly income of the donor (Ley General de Cultura Física y Deporte 2012). As a result, sport sponsorship and private funding in Mexico concentrates mainly on high-performance athletes and the three big professional leagues: baseball, basketball, and soccer. These leagues, besides the 7 % of tax benefits, provide the donor with good brand exposure that small clubs and teams cannot offer.

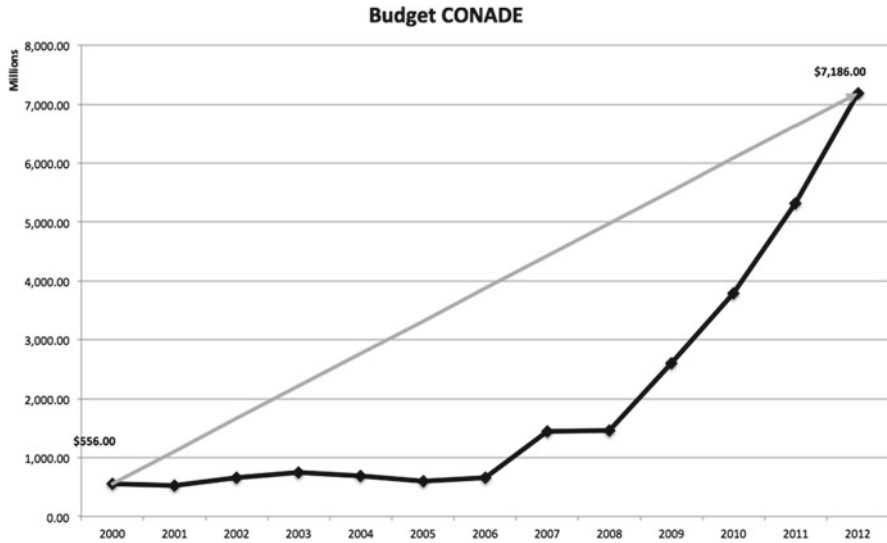
An important source of income for federations is selling national registration and licenses for athletes, leagues, or clubs. The federated sport in Mexico runs a Unique System of Sporting Register (Sistema Único de Registro Deportivo), commonly known as SiRED. CODEME is in charge of organizing the SiRED and receives a small share of each license sold by the federations. All the solid arrows on the nongovernmental structure column of Fig. 21.3 imply the payment of a membership fee. Together with the funding provided by INDEs, licensing an average of 700,000 athletes a year through SiRED has proved to be an important source of income for the sport associations (CODEME 2003).

Figure 21.3 presents the flow of funds for sport and physical activity. The funding starts at the executive government branch that assigns part of the yearly national budget to CONADE through SEP. These two governmental organizations redistribute the money according to their goals and guidelines. Civil Associations are



**Fig. 21.3** Mexico's national sport structure. Note: *COM* Mexican Olympic Committee, *CONADE* Comisión Nacional de Deporte (National Commission of Sport), *CONADEMS* Consejo Nacional para el Desarrollo del Deporte en la Educación Media Superior (National Council for the Sport Development in Medium and High School Education), *CONDDE* Consejo Nacional del Deporte en la Educación (National Council for Sport in Education), *CONDEBA* Consejo Nacional para el Desarrollo de la Educación Física y el Deporte en la Educación Básica (National Council for the Physical Education and Sport Development in Basic Education), *INDE* Instituto Estatal de Deporte y Cultura Física (State's Institute of Sport and Physical Education), *SEP* Secretaría of Public Education, *SINADE* Sistema Nacional de Cultura Física y Deporte (National Sport System), *CODEME* Mexican Sports Confederation

allowed to have other sources of income, commonly through membership fees. The state sport associations have to pay an affiliation fee to their federation, and the federation pays affiliation fees to COM and CODEME. The same applies between the higher education institutions and CONDDE.



**Fig. 21.4** CONADE's budget from 2000 to 2012 (SEP 2012; Centro de Estudio de las Finanzas Públicas 2011)

The accumulated public expenditure assigned to sport in Mexico for the period 2007–2011 was MXN 10,438.6<sup>4</sup> million (EUR 579.92 million). This represents roughly 0.1 % of the national GDP, a smaller number than countries like Germany (0.2 %) or France (0.7 %) (Humphreys et al. 2010). On the other hand, the spent budget increased drastically from 2000 to 2012 as Fig. 21.4 shows.

With a new management team entering CONADE and Guadalajara as the host for the Pan American Games, 2006–2007 marked an important milestone for the funding of sport in Mexico. From that year on, the government invested heavily in CONADE. The budget increased from an average of MXN 630 million (EUR 35 million) between 2000 and 2006 to MXN 1,439 million (EUR 80 million) in 2007 (Table 21.1). Moreover, between 2007 and 2012 the spent budget kept increasing an average yearly rate of 53.30 %. All in all, the increment is substantial. From MXN 556 million in 2000 to over 13 times that same amount in 2012 with a budget reported at MXN 7,186 million (Fig. 21.4).

Every year CONADE receives from the Federal Government the national funds aimed to sport (Centro de Estudio de las Finanzas Públicas 2011) and is in charge of redistributing it. According to an official report reproduced in Table 21.2, between 2003 and 2012, the INDEs and the National Federations were allocated with the largest shares of the national sport budget (CONADE 2012a).

The budget line called *sport provisions* refers expenses for scholarships for promising young athletes, lifelong pension to Olympic medalists, different types of

<sup>4</sup>The amount is expressed in real terms by adjusting for inflation.

**Table 21.1** CONADE's spent budget from 2000 to 2012

Year	Millions MXN
2000	556.00
2001	520.80
2002	651.70
2003	740.50
2004	693.70
2005	592.30
2006	655.70
2007	1,439.30
2008	1,464.80
2009	2,600.60
2010	3,783.40
2011	5,311.80
2012	7,186.00

**Table 21.2** Biggest expenditure categories in the Mexican sport system from 2003 to 2012 (in millions MXN)

Allocation to:	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012 <sup>a</sup>
COM	41	46	–	– <sup>b</sup>	32	62	56	33	53	37
CODEME	59	81	82	76	90	21	34	140	81	73
CONDDE	22	26	33	25	32	31	35	46	73	33
INDEs	201	219	182	183	669	770	1,351	1,892	2,963	939
National Federations	103	72	75	56	89	126	106	134	173	123
Sport Provisions	46	67	80	81	157	191	159	175	386	79

<sup>a</sup>Accumulated yearly expenditure until June 2012

<sup>b</sup>COM did not comply with CONADE's requirements during 2005 and 2006 and therefore did not receive funding

awards and incentives to outstanding sportspeople, insurances for high-performance athletes, and salaries for foreign coaches. Lately it has become the second largest investment area after INDEs.

The government's National Development Plan 2007–2012 established as one of its priorities the “development of sport facilities and the use of open spaces for the construction of sport courts” (CONADE 2012a). Therefore, CONADE works closely with states and municipalities to create new infrastructure. The process starts when the local governments approach CONADE with a concrete project for an athletic facility or recreational sport area. Then CONADE, based on a viability analysis, decides if the investment shall be pursued or not. The whole process from the assignment of resources to the construction and inauguration is monitored by CONADE.

Hosting the 2011 Pan American Games and the 2014 Central American and Caribbean Games created a big boost in infrastructure investment during the last 5 years, as shown in Table 21.3. From the general budget allocated to sport infrastructure in 2009, 2010, and 2011, the investment for the Pan American Games represented 43.3 %, 35.8 %, and 23.2 %, respectively. But interestingly “no budget was clearly assigned to the maintenance of these new facilities” (Centro de Estudio de las Finanzas Públicas 2011).

**Table 21.3** Infrastructure investment 2007–2012 (Centro de Estudio de las Finanzas Públicas 2011; CONADE 2012a)

Year	Millions MXN
2007	165.50
2008	316.48
2009	1,479.52
2010	2,080.00
2011	3,228.00
2012	3,204.00

## 21.4 Sport Policy

National laws, internal regulations, and agreements between all the stakeholders create a legal framework for sports and physical activity in Mexico.

Sport and physical activity appear in the Mexican Constitution in the 4th article, granting every person the right to have access to physical culture and to practice sport free of discrimination. The constitutional text provides the senate and the lower chamber of the National Congress with the authority to legislate on sport and physical activity matters. Likewise, all 32 states in the country have local legislation on sport, or a set of specific provisions included in their local constitution on this matter (Méndez and Prado 2010).

The Organic Law of the Public Federal Administration establishes the bases of all public administration in Mexico and designs SEP as the government branch in charge of education, which includes teaching sports and physical culture. It is this legal document that entitles CONADE as the higher authority of national sport.

Without a doubt the most important sport legislation in Mexico is the Ley General de Cultura Física y Deporte (LGCFD, General Law of Physical Culture and Sport). This law defines the structure, organization, faculties, and responsibilities of SINADE and all its members. The LGCFD sets the general bases for the coordination and collaboration of the National Government, State Governments, Civil Associations, and the private sector. Legal definitions for sport and physical culture are also stated in this law.

Pushed by the Olympic gold medalist in 1986, former president of COM, and current senator Felipe Muñoz Kampas, the senate published the last significant amendment to this law on June 2013. The creation and recognition by law of the Mexican Paralympic Committee, the Commission of Arbitrage and Appeal for Sports, and the Electoral Surveillance Board in Sports are the most significant changes. The creation of the Electoral Surveillance Board in Sports replaces CODEME as the main supervisor of the correct application of statutes and regulations within the sport federations, leaving CODEME out of SINADE and cutting it out of government funding (Garduno 2013). The new law aims to create a more transparent sport system and more accountable institutions in the country (Ley General de Cultura Física y Deporte 2013).

The PND is the guiding instrument that allows CONADE to fulfill the commitments established by the Federal Government through the National Development

Plan in the field of physical culture and sport. The 2008–2012 PND considered four guiding principles: Physical Culture, Development of Sport, Mexican System of High Performance, and Transparency and Accountability (CONADE 2008).

CONADE emphasizes the need to create healthy habits in the population (CONADE 2012a). Therefore, the principle *Physical Culture* aims to increase physical activation and regular practice of sport for all the population. This is done through the promotion of physical activity in schools, at work, and in massive events. Moreover CONADE organizes and supports national multisport events for different levels, ages, and social groups providing with equal opportunities to all the population to participate and make use of existing (or new) resources and infrastructure (CONADE 2008).

The second guiding principle is *Development of Sport*. The National Superior School of Physical Education (ESEF) is an important tool for CONADE in this regard. The ESEF promotes the certification of capable professionals and technicians in the different areas of sport. This includes researchers in social sciences, humanities, medicine, and applied sport sciences. *Development of Sport* also seeks for the strengthening of SINADE and the efficient collection of up-to-date data on different areas of the Mexican sport system.

The construction, maintenance, and equipment of sport facilities also fall under this guideline. During 2006–2012 the Mexican Federal Government invested in 1,776 infrastructure activities all over the 32 states (SEP 2012). By the end of 2013, the High-Performance Center for Adapted Sport is planned to open its doors after a MXN 177 million (EUR 10 million) investment. This sport facility will be one of the most important in all Latin America and specifically build to fulfill all the requirements of adapted federations from wheelchair users to blind athletes (SEP 2012).

Mexico constantly strives to achieve better results in international competitions. Therefore, the *Mexican System of High Performance* is another pillar of the PND. In order to “develop and consolidate the Mexican sport in the higher sphere of high-performance” (CONADE 2008), efforts were concentrated in seven areas: high competition, Mexican sporting reserve, talent identification and scouting, Mexican School of Sport Development, sport modernization, sport research, and applied medicine/science. CONADE’s PND describes the creation of a blueprint strategy starting from the identification of new talent, followed with a solid work plan that includes economic, coaching, and scientific support, and finishing with a thorough evaluation of the achievements that could lead to awards and further economic support. Mexico has a National Center of High Performance (CNAR) that provided integral support for 1,329 athletes (high performance or talents) by August 2012 (SEP 2012). The services include coaches, nutrition, primary and secondary school, and (if required) accommodation. By the end of 2011, a total of 1,128 athletes, from which 336 were athletes with an impairment, received some kind of support from the different programs linked exclusively to high performance (SEP 2012). As explained in the financial section, great amount of the resources are allocated to developing high-performance athletes through sport provisions.

An important instrument for high performance is a trust fund called FODEPAR-CIMA that distributes economic support to top Mexican sportspeople. Those that

are ranked among the top eight in the world of their discipline or have potential to finish among the top 16 at the Olympics can have access to this fund. A report dated September 2012 from CONADE shows a total of 211 athletes benefitting from FODEPAR-CIMA just before the Olympic and Paralympic Games in London (CONADE 2012a).

The success and efficiency of this strategy is constantly debated in the media. Nevertheless, 48 % of the athletes enrolled in FODEPAR qualified to the 2012 Olympic Games winning seven medals. This result represents the best Olympic performance for Mexico since the 1968 Games in Mexico City (nine medals).

*Transparency and Accountability* is the last pillar of the PND. It aligns with the determined fight of the Federal Government against corruption in Mexico. It establishes accountability rules and formats that provide clear and sufficient information to CONADE to reformulate policies, improve the decision-making process, and, mainly, raise the social credibility in Mexican institutions (CONADE 2008). This principle focuses on correct governability of public institutions and funds. It plays a key role in the allocation of funding and is the only tool CONADE has to control, somehow, the correct usage of public money allocated to the National Federations.

## 21.5 Sport Participation

In the Mexican constitution, sport is legally defined as any institutionalized and regulated physical activity. According to CONADE, physical activity is any action that causes caloric consumption, meaning any body movement from daily activities to sporting training sessions (CONADE 2008). For purposes of physical culture and health, CONADE defines a desirable amount of physical activity to be an accumulation of 30 min of any exercise per day.

According to a national survey done by SEP in 2009, 94 % of the Mexicans know the importance of exercising, but only 39 % do it in their free time mainly arguing lack of time (SEP 2009).

Moreover, the 2012 National Survey about Health and Nutrition<sup>5</sup> (ENSANUT for the initials in Spanish) estimates that 58.6 % of the Mexicans aged 10–14 did not participate in any organized physical activity in the 12 months previous to the survey, 38.9 % took part in one or two activities, and 2.5 % in three or more. The same study reports that 11.9 % of teenagers between 15 and 18 in Mexico are inactive. Alarmingly, inactivity levels in Mexican adults increased in 47.3 % from 2006 to 2012 (Fig. 21.4). These inactivity indicators could be a result of spending over 4 h a day in front of a screen like 27.7 % of Mexican children, as reported by ENSANUT. The survey shows that adults in Mexico spent in average 1:40 h a day in passive transport, such as automobile or public transport (Fig. 21.5).

---

<sup>5</sup>96,031 questionnaires were applied all over the country with an error margin of  $\pm 1.8$  % at 85 % confidence.



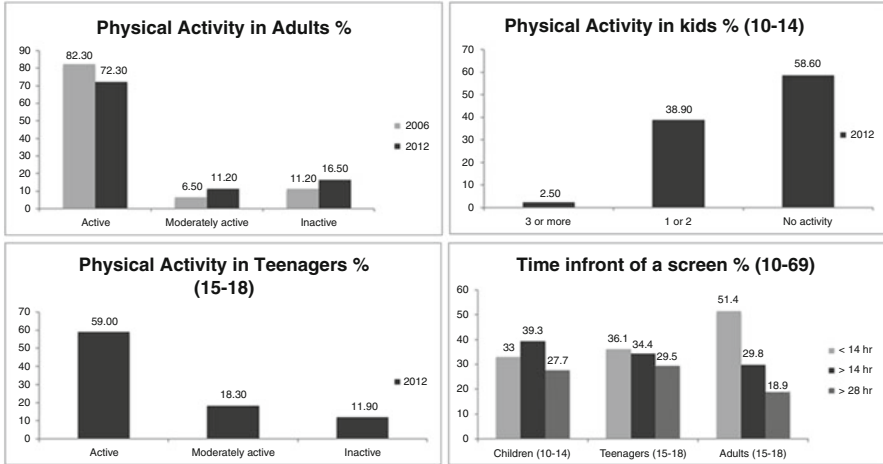


Fig. 21.5 Report on physical activity of Mexicans (ENSANUT 2012)

Table 21.4 Participation rate in different programs by CONADE 2008–2012 (SEP 2012; CONADE 2012a) in thousands

Year	Coaching certificates	Programs of physical activation	National multisport events			National games primary school
			National Olympiad	National Universiade	Mex games (not thousands)	
2008	8,594	11,087	3,838	796		4,187
2009	8,636	12,343	3,256	809		3,433
2010	8,273	16,190	3,307	808	448	3,146
2011	9,348	24,302	3,623	816	1,282	3,445
2012	8,240	32,369	3,651	913	3,005	3,545

This being said, it does not come as a surprise that Mexico’s population is second worldwide in obesity and fourth in child obesity. It is estimated that 70 % of Mexican adults are overweight (ENSANUT 2012). Facing these facts CONADE set as a primary goal to build a strong national physical culture through the PND. As explained in the policy section, the PND is operated through different instruments. Table 21.4 presents a summary of the participation rate (in thousands of persons) of the most relevant programs during the last 5 years.

The main slogan used to promote physical activity from 2008 to 2012 was “Activate, Vive Mejor” (Be active, live better). One strategy of the program on physical activation included activities for the promotion of sport in schools. CONADE reported to have increased the number of active students from 5.2 million during 2008 to 15.94 million by the end of 2012. Physical activity at workplaces showed similar results with a total of 2.4 million people taking part in activities at the end of 2012 (CONADE 2012a).

**Table 21.5** Main national multisport events in Mexico

Name	Short description	Sports
National Olympiad	Largest high-performance sport event for young athletes	46 different sports with different age categories
National Universiade	National event for higher education institutions	18 different sports
Mex games	Sport event for Mexicans living in the United States	Boxing, soccer, judo, wrestling, and taekwondo
CONDEBA games	National event for primary schools	Athletics, soccer, basketball, baseball, volleyball, badminton, and table tennis
CONADEM games	National event for high schools	Athletics, basketball, handball, baseball, softball, volleyball, and soccer
National indigenous sporting event	Recreational event for indigenous communities	Athletics, basketball, soccer, and volleyball
National event of native and traditional games and sports	Recreational event for all interested in traditional games and ancient sports	Many depending on applications and participants

Massive events are also part of this program and proved to be a good strategy to promote sports. CONADE constantly organizes running events (long and short distances), mass participation aerobic classes, or even sport-themed days along the year, motivating the population to be more active (CONADE 2008).

CONADE's crown jewel of sport participation is the Olimpiada y Paralimpiada Nacional (National Olympiad and Paralympiad). This is a high-performance multisport event for youngsters where a reported number of 3,651,308 athletes took part in 2012 during all stages. Other multisport national events coordinated by CONADE are displayed in Table 21.5.

Unfortunately there is no official information about the rates of the most practiced sports in Mexico. To identify the most practiced sports is necessary to look into research made by universities or private companies. It is normal for these institutions to focus on opinion studies trying to measure the sport activity in the regions where there are located, either cities or communities, but national studies are rare in Mexico.

A representative study by the Universidad del Valle de Mexico (UVM) surveyed 1,344 randomly selected individuals in the biggest cities in the country (e.g., Monterrey, Puebla, Guadalajara, and Mexico City). The study, conducted by the Center of Public Opinion of UVM in 2012, reported that of those practicing sport, 36 % were doing it in public facilities or public areas, 30 % in private institutions, and 22 % at school or university. The 10 sports most practiced according to UVM's survey are shown in Table 21.6 with their respective rates. Soccer is on the top followed by athletics (which includes running as a fitness activity), basketball, and swimming. Interestingly baseball does not appear in the top places, even though there is a professional baseball league in the country.

UVM reported that 68 % of their sample practiced the sport they like the most (i.e., the one they are fans of). Assuming there is a connection between being a fan

**Table 21.6** Most practiced sports in Mexico (UVM 2012)

Sport	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Soccer	387	26
Athletics	256	17
Basketball	161	11
Swimming	107	7
Volleyball	83	5
Workout gym	82	5
Cycle	63	4
Tennis	52	3
Gymnastics	52	3
American football	43	3

**Table 21.7** Sports that people like to watch, play, or be informed of – in percentage (Consulta Mitofsky 2011, 2013a)

Sport	2011	2012	2013
Soccer	60.10	52.90	63.70
Olympic swimming	–	–	52.20
Boxing	44.10	44.60	46.80
Olympic athletics	–	–	43.10
Basketball	26.80	26.90	37.00
Olympic <sup>a</sup> volleyball	–	–	35.70
Baseball	29.40	26.40	33.40
Lucha libre <sup>b</sup>	–	25.50	32.10
American football	18.00	21.50	25.70
Motor sport	–	–	21.80
Bullfighting	–	–	21.50
Chess	–	–	20.50
Tennis	–	–	17.60

<sup>a</sup>Rates for Olympic sport refers to those of London 2012

<sup>b</sup>Mexican wrestling

and practicing certain sport, it results relevant to look into the most popular sports in terms of interest.

A well-known public opinion company named Consulta Mitofsky performed a set of very comprehensive face-to-face national studies on popularity and interest in sports. Each study surveyed 1,000 Mexicans all over the country at the beginning of each year since 2007. For the survey in 2013, the company reported a confidence level of 95 % with an error not larger than  $\pm 3.1$  %, indicating a good reliability and generalization of the study.

According to Consulta Mitofsky (2013a), 60 % of the population indicates to be a sport fan, from which over 70 % of those are men. Table 21.7 shows the results for years 2011, 2012, and 2013 where soccer holds the top spot and presents and increase in popularity after dropping in 2012. Interestingly sports such as volleyball, swimming, and athletics play a big role in 2013, while in years before they were not included in the survey. This is because researchers assessed specific question referring to Olympic sports to which Mexicans answered to be fan of the aforementioned Olympic disciplines.

Boxing rose in popularity during the last 3 years, most likely due to the good results of Mexican professional fighters. Basketball is the third most popular sport (if Olympic sports are left out). Respondents to the survey said to practice basketball mainly at schools and parks, and reported to be more interested in following the National Basketball Association, the American professional league, rather than the Mexican counterpart called Liga Nacional de Baloncesto Profesional (LNBP) (Consulta Mitofksy 2013a).

Table 21.8 presents the demographic distribution of the 13 most popular sports ranked in the 2013 survey. Men showed to be more interested in all the sports than women except for Olympic volleyball where 37.8 % of women said to follow it during the London games. It also seems that as population gets older, Mexicans lose interest in sports. The only exception is baseball where the group of older than 50 years old reports a large amount of fans. Most sports are equally followed all over the country with similar rates among all four regions, except with baseball that seems to be predominately followed in the northern part of Mexico, tennis in the center, and bullfighting everywhere except in the center. The latter seems unexpected since the largest bullfighting arena in the world is located in Mexico City with a capacity of over 41,000 spectators. It is not surprising that American football, tennis, and chess are less popular in the southeast where poorer and less privileged areas are located. In the rural zones of Mexico Lucha libre (Mexican wrestling) has a greater fan base than in the urban areas.

To summarize this section on Mexican sport participation, it appears that CONADE's programs between 2008 and 2012 worked and that involvement of the population in physical activity increased with the years. Nevertheless, Mexico still faces serious problems of obesity in their population without showing much improvement in the last decade. High overweight and obesity rates exist in every demographic even in children (ENSANUT 2012) where 40.4 % spend less than 4 h a week doing physical activities (CAMBIO 2012). These health indicators contrast directly with the positive results reported by CONADE and illustrate that efforts made to activate children at schools and the general population around the country have not been enough. Finally, according to different surveys, soccer is the most popular and the most practiced sport in Mexico. In terms of popularity, soccer is followed by basketball and baseball, which are the only three sports that have a consolidated professional league in Mexico. Interestingly athletics, swimming, and volleyball are highly followed during major competitions.

## 21.6 Conclusions

Sport and physical activity in Mexico have a long history that could be dated back to the traditional *juego de pelota* (ballgame), practiced since 1400 BC by Mesoamerican cultures in the region. Today, Mexico's sport system is very complex and highly political and has low accountability between the stakeholders.

**Table 21.8** Demographic distribution of sports people like to watch, play, or be informed of – in percentage (Consulta Mitofksy 2013b)

	Soccer	Olympic swimming	Boxing	Olympic athletics	Basketball	Olympic volleyball	Baseball	Lucha libre	American football	Motor sport	Bullfighting	Chess	Tennis
<b>Gender</b>													
Men	77.4	51.3	64.2	45.9	42.5	33.5	44.7	46.9	35.6	31.3	29.6	25.2	19.2
Women	51.3	52.9	31.0	40.6	32.0	37.8	23.2	18.7	16.8	13.1	14.2	16.1	16.1
<b>Age</b>													
18–29	67.6	60.7	51.8	49.5	44.6	39.9	34.4	34.8	34.0	30.0	21.2	23.8	21.2
30–49	66.9	52.1	45.8	43.8	36.3	35.7	31.8	33.0	26.6	20.1	21.6	21.1	18.3
50 plus	54.3	42.4	42.6	34.9	29.3	30.9	34.8	27.7	14.8	14.7	21.7	15.6	12.4
<b>Region</b>													
North	65.9	48.8	52.5	39.8	39.1	35.2	52.8	35.6	31.0	18.8	21.7	24.7	15.9
Bajío	62.1	58.3	51.7	45.9	33.5	35.1	19.5	34.5	21.4	28.0	23.6	20.6	13.3
Center	66.4	57.8	44.5	46.5	40.9	41.6	23.4	26.1	30.3	25.8	19.0	23.8	24.3
Southeast	59.0	43.0	39.5	39.9	32.2	29.0	37.4	34.4	17.3	14.4	22.9	11.1	14.1
<b>Type of area</b>													
Urban	66.5	54.3	47.4	44.4	41.5	39.6	34.8	31.2	29.0	22.4	20.6	21.2	20.1
Rural	54.6	45.4	44.9	39.3	22.3	23.5	29.0	35.2	15.0	19.9	24.6	18.2	9.5

The Mexican population faces health challenges derived from low sport participation and inactivity, such as high child obesity rates and worrying overweight levels. CONADE aims to turn around these health issues and works towards creating physical activity guidelines that are clearly defined. Unfortunately, it appears that the application of the programs is not optimal. The objectives for physical activity and sport are not completely being achieved, probably because once the resources and responsibilities are out of CONADE's scope, the proper implementation of sport programs seems to be fragile.

Regardless of the health issues, Mexicans are sport fans. Currently Mexico has professional leagues of soccer, baseball, and basketball and has hosted multiple international mega sport events since 1950. Therefore, Mexico is an important global player of international organized sports in Latin America.

During the last years, the Mexican government has constantly increased the budget assigned to sports, but unfortunately the international performance of athletes does not really reflect this. Nowadays, Mexico has a booming and stable economy, a population of over 115 million people, and a territory as big as Spain, the United Kingdom, France, Italy, and Germany put together. Therefore, the 62 Olympic medals won by Mexico from 1900 to 2012 in 34 Summer and Winter Games do not represent the potential of the country (Lucio & Gomez 2008).

Mexico has a long way to go in sport matters. Being another country mainly focused on soccer, the government has neglected the required attention to other sports. Fortunately, after heavy negotiations between parliamentarians and senators, the law reforms to the national sport law aim to build stronger, reliable, and accountable institutions searching to professionalize the National Federations. Hopefully these changes will simplify the national sport system and provide the Mexican youth with a higher motivation to participate in sports, offering a healthier lifestyle and, in the long run, improve the country's performance in international competitions.

## References

- Arbena, J. L. (1991). Sport, development, and Mexican nationalism, 1920–1970. *Journal of Sport History*, 18(3), 350–364.
- CAMBIO. (2012). *Boleta de calificaciones sobre la actividad física de niños y jóvenes 2012*. CAMBIO, Guadalajara, Jalisco.
- Centro de Estudio de las Finanzas Públicas. (2011). *Evolución del Gasto Público destinado al Deporte 2007–201*. México: LXI Legislatura – Cámara de Diputados.
- Comisión Nacional de Deporte (CONADE). (2008). *Programa Nacional de Cultura Física y Deporte 2008–2012*. México City: CONADE.
- Comisión Nacional de Deporte (CONADE). (2012a). *Informe de Rendición de Cuentas de la Administración Pública Federal 2006–2012*. México: Comisión Nacional de Cultura Física y Deporte.
- Comisión Nacional de Deporte (CONADE). (2012b). *Manual de Organización de la Comisión Nacional de Cultura Física y Deporte 2012*. [http://www.conade.gob.mx/Documentos/Conade/Normateca\\_Interna/Manuales/MORG\\_CONADE\\_2012.pdf](http://www.conade.gob.mx/Documentos/Conade/Normateca_Interna/Manuales/MORG_CONADE_2012.pdf). Accessed 20 Jan 2013.

- Confederación Deportiva Mexicana (CODEME). (2003). *7 décadas Confederación Deportiva Mexicana*. A.C. México.
- Confederación Deportiva Mexicana (CODEME). (2010). *Estatuto y Reglamento del Estatuto*. México City.
- Consejo Nacional del Deporte en la Educación (CONDDE). (2013). *Consejo Nacional del deporte de la Educación*. [http://www.condde.org.mx/condde\\_system/](http://www.condde.org.mx/condde_system/). Accessed 02 May 2013.
- Diverse Staff. (2013). *Diverse – Issues in higher education*. <http://diverseeducation.com/article/50856/#>. Accessed 05 Mar 2013.
- ENSANUT. (2012). *Encuesta Nacional de Salud y Nutrición*. Cuernavaca: Instituto Nacional de Salud Pública.
- Garduno, R. (2013). *La Jornada – Deportes*. <http://www.jornada.unam.mx/2013/03/09/deportes/a13n1dep>. Accessed 09 Mar 2013.
- Humphreys, B. R., Maresova, K., & Ruseski, J. E. (2010). *National sport policy, sporting success and individual sport participation: An international comparison*. Alberta: University of Alberta – Economics Department.
- Ley General de Cultura Física y Deporte. (2012). *Diario Oficial de la Federación*.
- Ley General de Cultura Física y Deporte. (2013). *Diario Oficial de la Federación*.
- Lucio, V., & Gómez, P. (2008). *Reflexiones sobre el rendimiento del sistema deportivo mexicano y su reflejo en el deporte internacional*. <http://www.efdeportes.com/efd124/rendimiento-del-sistema-deportivo-mexicano-el-deporte-internacional.htm>
- Mitofksy, C. (2011). *México: Los deportes con más afición – Los números no mienten*. México: Consulta Mitofksy.
- Mitofksy, C. (2013a). *La afición al Fútbol Soccer en México – Encuesta Nacional en vi-vienda*. México: Consulta Mitofksy.
- Mitofksy, C. (2013b). *Los deportes en México – Encuesta Nacional en vivienda*. México: Consulta Mitofksy.
- Méndez, J., & Prado, A. (2010). El derecho al deporte en México como derecho fundamental en el Neoconstitucionalismo. In C. C. M. Salazar (Ed.), *Usos y Representaciones De Las Practicas Físicas-Deportivas de Los Jóvenes Mexicanos* (pp. 154–172). Guadalajara: Universidad de Colima.
- Right to Play. (2008). *Sport for development and peace: Government in action III*. <http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/sport/shared/sport/pdfs/SDP%20IWG/Governments%20in%20Action%20Part%20III%20-%20National%20Overviews%20E-P.pdf>. Accessed 15 Jan 2012.
- Secretary of Public Education (SEP). (2009). *Diagnóstico y propuestas para la masificación de la actividad física y el deporte de alto rendimiento*. México City: Secretaría de Educación Pública.
- Secretary of Public Education (SEP). (2012). *Sexto Informe de Labores*. México: Secretaria de Educación Pública.
- Universidad del Valle de Mexico (UVM). (2012). *Estudio sobre gestión deportiva en México*. <http://opinionpublicauvm.mx/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/Segunda-presentacion-gestion-deportiva-26-06.pdf>. Accessed 05 Jan 2013.

# Chapter 22

## Brazil

Ana Cláudia Couto, Mauricio Couto, Cláudio Boschi, and Kátia Lemos

### 22.1 Sport System and Structure of Organized Sport

Brazil adopted a sports policy in the early days of the Republic, although it was already featured in the legal world and during the parliamentary monarchist period, specifically in the Empire of D. Pedro II, since Ruy Barbosa—in 1861 in the then Brazilian Assembly which already referred to sport, which like Plato and Aristotle—said music and gymnastics are essential to humanity, citizenship training, and for physical education. When the Republic was proclaimed, the so-called Brazilian Education Reform was implemented, introducing gym classes through the “School Gymnastics- The poetry of the body” (Azevedo 1960; Barbosa 2003).

The “Physical Education Division of the Ministry of Education and Culture” which was established in 1937 was renamed the Department of Physical Education and Sports in 1970. In 1978, it was renamed the Department of Physical Education and Sport. In 1990, it was replaced by the Sports Secretariat of the Presidency of the Republic. In 1995, the Ministry of State for Special Sports was established. In 1998, the Ministry of Sport and Tourism was set up. The Ministry of Sports was established in 2003.

---

A.C. Couto (✉)  
UFMG, Belo Horizonte, Brazil  
e-mail: acpcouto@gmail.com

M. Couto  
CEFET MG, Belo Horizonte, Brazil  
e-mail: mucouto@yahoo.com.br

C. Boschi  
CREF 6-MG, Belo Horizonte, Brazil  
e-mail: cboschi@uai.com.br

K. Lemos  
UFMG, Belo Horizonte, Brazil  
e-mail: katialemos@hotmail.com



The Ministry of Sports is responsible for implementing the national sports policy, encouraging participation in high-performance sport, and implementing inclusive campaigns that safeguard access to sport for all Brazilian citizens, as envisaged in the Federal Constitution of Brazil.

Given the current legislation, Law 9615/1998 (Federative Republic of Brazil 1998), sport includes sport education, high-performance sport, and sport participation.

In accordance with legislation, national sport conferences have been held. The first National Sport Conference was held in 2004 at which a national policy on sport and recreation was discussed, focusing on social inclusion and human development. The end result was the proposal to adopt a national system of sport and recreation. The second National Sport Conference was held in 2005. It addressed the following four areas: structure, human resources management, finance, and social inclusion. It highlighted the need to strengthen the system in the states and for the latter to adopt state sport policies. The third National Sport Conference held in 2010 proposed the adoption of a Ten-Year Plan for Sports—“For a team called Brazil” comprising 10 guidelines: (i) the National System of Sports and Recreation; (ii) Training and Professional Appreciation; (iii) Sport, Leisure, and Education; (iv) Sport, Health, and Quality of Life; (v) Science and Technology; (vi) High-Performance Sport; (vii) Soccer; (viii) Sport Finance; (ix) Sport Infrastructure; and (x) Sport Economy. The Ministry of Sports has been organizing and implementing the national sports policy, which in addition to promoting high-performance sports, operates in social inclusion campaigns implemented by the four Secretariats: The Executive Secretariat which helps to “oversee and coordinate the activities of the National Secretariats, and sets guidelines and policies within the National Sports Policy” (Federative Republic of Brazil 2012). In addition to managing sport, it is also involved in other programs such as the National Conference on Sports, Sports Incentive Law, Painting Freedom and Citizenship,<sup>1</sup> Youth Square, Program for Accelerated Growth Squares, and UNDP—United Nations Development.

The National Secretariat of Sport, Education, Recreation, and Social Inclusion is responsible for policies related to sport education and participation implemented through the following programs: Second Half Program, Playground on Vacation, Brazil Award for Sports and Recreation in Social Inclusion, Sports and Recreation Program in the City, Games of Indigenous People, Cedex Network, Cedime, and Painting Citizenship.

The National Secretariat of High-Performance Sport is responsible for developing, planning, managing, and evaluating policies regarding athletic sport in official competitions and other campaigns, safeguarding compliance with sport legislation. The affiliated programs include Sports Scholarship, Brazilian School Games, CENESP Network, World Military Games, and Rio 2016 (Olympic Games).

The National Secretariat of Football and Defense of Fans’ Rights is responsible for organizing and contributing to the improvement of soccer in Brazil. This Secretariat liaises between the government and all private and public sectors

---

<sup>1</sup> Pintando a Cidadania program (Painting Citizenship) offers job opportunities in sports materials workshops to people living in at-risk areas—so far, more than 11,000 jobs have been created.

involved in the 2014 World Cup. It also promotes a change in the culture of the rights and obligations of fans.

At state and municipal level, the Secretariats are responsible for managing the national sports policy, ensuring that access rights are guaranteed and that the Ten-Year Plan is implemented, giving visibility to national programs, and establishing specific state and local programs.

Within the State of Minas Gerais, for instance, the State Secretariat for Sports and Youth—SEEJ (Secretaria Estadual de Esportes e Juventude)—is responsible for sports policy, for developing and managing projects for the events provided for in current legislation.

The State Secretariat for Sports and Youth currently organizes sport in three main fronts and implements associated and special projects.

In the municipal governments, sport is generally organized by a Deputy Secretary of Sports which is often linked to another office.

Working in parallel, but in conjunction with the government, the Sport Confederations regulate and manage championships and tournaments at national level, focusing on elite sport performance. The sports federations govern sport in its many forms at state and municipal level.

In addition to the abovementioned sectors, there is the Brazilian Olympic Committee, the body that manages Olympic and Paralympic sport, allowing athletes to compete in a wide range of sports.

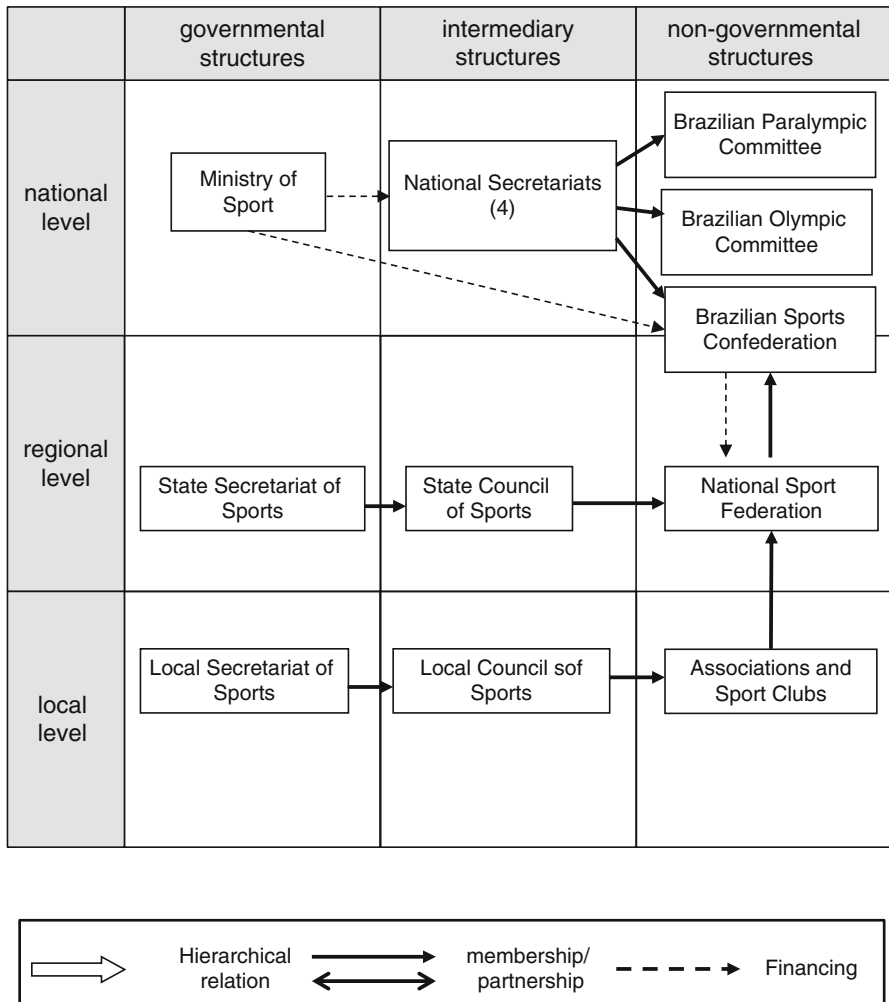
Last but not least, with the same degree of relevance, the social sector has been expanding in Brazil since the 1990s, with the establishment of nongovernmental organizations that meet the social needs and increase opportunities for children, adolescents, and young adults. As such, several institutes were created to broaden the spectrum of persons in at-risk social contexts.

Thus, the Brazilian sports system focuses on sport education, high-performance sport, and sport participation, enabling governments, civil society, sports officials, and legislators to understand the fundamental organizing principles and to do what is necessary to enhance human development. The basis of participation in sport is consolidated to generate people's interest in sport and socializing. In most cases, sport is linked to other areas, which enhances managers' understanding of the importance of sport for human development (Fig. 22.1).

## 22.2 Financing Sport

The national sports policy manages and organizes public policies and funding of all programs and sports projects so that states and municipalities can implement the campaigns and comply with legislation (Bobbio 2007).

The first mention of sport funding in the country dates back to 1940 when a lottery was introduced in Minas Gerais similar to that operated in Europe. "Mineira Lottery" began to finance and subsidize sporting activities by donating half its profits. The other half was used to set up a university. The model was also developed by the



**Fig. 22.1** The organization of sport in Brazil

federal government. There are currently several types of lottery, even though just 20 % of the funds raised are allocated to sport (Article n.8 – Law n. 9615/1998).

After little more than half a century of establishing lotteries, a new funding policy for sports was adopted that is referred to as a “fiscal incentive,” a certain percentage of tax paid or amount of unpaid tax is allocated to sport by way of tax breaks (Bonavides 2004, 2006).

This tax incentive policy for sport is based on the principle of civil society replacing public resources that are not always available or released, by looking for companies and even individuals who may be involved in a similar model of sponsoring the arts, allowing more accurate and consistent goals and results to be

achieved. One way or another, it is important to ensure public funds are spent wisely in a way that benefits society as a whole. From the point of view of budget control and finances linked to the public sector, a *hybrid model* used in Portugal and Italy was adopted in Brazil, taking into account the principle of accountability, issuing a physical report and financial statements indicating what is proposed, how it is to be implemented, and what the specific benefit to society is.

The project manager is responsible for this operationalization of political control and statement of accounts at federal, state, and municipal level. Superior projects are under the supervision of the Court of Auditors or the Union when federal funds or state or municipal funds are involved. There is a third line of action for the promotion of sports which combines the release of funds for publicity and advertising purposes with the image of the sponsor of the relevant sport.

The impact the current and various funding mechanisms for sport may be having on the world of sport has not yet been measured in a general and comprehensive way based on technical-scientific criteria. However, several successful cases such as volleyball, gymnastics, judo, and swimming have fully demonstrated their effectiveness based on scientific criteria.

It is important to point out that funds that come directly from public budgets are subject to certain restrictions, such as payment of compensation for high-performance athletes and regulation of professional activities. Funds from the public sector should be channeled primarily into school sports.

In 2006, Law No. 11.438/2006 was adopted, providing incentives and benefits to encourage participation in sporting activities, which is called the “Sports Incentive Law—LIE.” This law states that by the year 2015, investments in sporting projects implemented in accordance with Law 9615/1998 may be deducted from income tax payable by individuals and legal entities. The projects are subject to the approval of the Ministry of Sports which issues a notice itself determining the period within which projects can be submitted as well as how they are to be implemented. Once the projects have been approved, the funds are released. These funds can be used to purchase equipment and uniforms and to cover snacks, travel expenses, and personnel costs.

Finally, the Athlete Scholarship Program (Law n. 10891/2004) aims to safeguard the livelihood of high-performance athletes and to create conditions allowing them to engage in training and participate in sporting competitions. In order to qualify for grants, athletes must fit into the following categories: (i) Olympic or Paralympic Games (athletes over the age of 16 who represented Brazil in the last Olympic Games or adults who competed in the Paralympics), (ii) international level (athletes over the age of 14 who joined the national team of their sporting discipline representing Brazil), (iii) national level (athletes over the age of 14 who participated in the highest event of the national season such as competitions ratified by the confederation for their sport discipline), (iv) students (athletes aged between 14 and 20 who participated in the recent National Student Games), and (v) basic level (athletes aged between 14 and 19 who competed in the beginners’ sub-category for the Olympics and Paralympics) (Federative Republic of Brazil 2013). The monthly grant is as follows: Category Basic and Student, BRL 370; Category National, BRL 925; Category International, BRL 1,850; and Category Olympic/Paralympic: BRL 3,100.

## 22.3 Sport Policy

The organizational principle of sport in Brazil is based on the promotion of social programs and projects focusing on the human and social development of children, adolescents, and young people, as well as programs and projects aimed at identifying sporting talents as provided for in Law 9615/1998.

The public policy of sport and recreation is a state policy coordinated by the Ministry of Sports, which focuses on social inclusion and guaranteed access to sports, as provided for in the Constitution. The Ministry defines the policy, taking responsibility for the development of sports programs that are oriented to meet popular demand.

The proposal is to establish a link between the various Ministries so that the target of eliminating social exclusion and vulnerability can be met. This goal was defined from the time social inclusion was elected as the centerpiece of measures.

To implement the proposed public policy of sport and recreation, projects are based on the promotion and encouragement of sport, especially in public schools, through the Second Half Program<sup>2</sup> and More Education (Federative Republic of Brazil 2012). In order to increase access to commercial sport, mapping is being done at schools to create a database of talented young athletes. Research networks have also been established in partnership with universities to subsidize sports programs.

The objective, therefore, of the national policy of sport and recreation is to democratize and universalize access to sport, to strengthen the scientific and technological knowledge inherent in sport and recreation, to decentralize management, and to foster high-performance athletes.

The goals focus on eight basic guidelines: (i) universal access (ensuring multiplication without discrimination), (ii) human development (sport as a principle of human development), (iii) science and technology sport (generation and dissemination of knowledge), (iv) health promotion (prevention and health promotion from the sports movement), (v) peace and development of the nation (leverage the social mobilization of sport to promote peace), (vi) economic development (explore projects that tap the economic potential of sport which can reflect social sustainability), (vii) democratic management (participation and social inclusion—developing a network of intervention involving several ministries, civil organizations, and sports all of which can work towards common goals), and (viii) decentralization of sports and recreation policy (transfer of power to other entities that are committed to the ideals of sport) (Federative Republic of Brazil 2012).

The main focus of the public policy of sport and recreation in Brazil is aimed at reducing social vulnerability and increasing access which is highlighted in three programs: the Health Gyms and Athlete Scholarship and Segundo Tempo, the motivation for these programs, and the three events scheduled in current law into account.

---

<sup>2</sup>In Brazil, public education is part-time, and at many schools, children and adolescents have no sports activities. That means that many children lack access to sport. Segundo Tempo activities are held after school time, as a strategy to improve quality of life and to promote the social integration of youngsters.

The Health Gyms Program of the Ministry of Health (Law n. 179/2011) aims to contribute to the promotion of health by providing equipment and qualified personnel. The government's aim is to install poles in all states in a bid to expand the practice of physical activity linked to primary health care. The program is directly linked to the Family Health Support Center and therefore has an impact on improving the living conditions of the population, reducing sedentary lifestyles, and metabolic diseases caused by the latter.

The *Segundo Tempo* Program is developed in partnerships with state and local authorities and with civil society organizations. The Athlete Scholarship Program as mentioned in the foregoing aims to provide better conditions for high-performance athletes and to invest primarily in Olympic and Paralympic sports (Federative Republic of Brazil 2012).

The public policy of sport and recreation defines the guidelines and principles of sport in Brazil. However, it is proving difficult to implement the entire proposal in terms of project management and decentralization of management in view of the difficulty associated with providing universal access to sports from early childhood.

The formalized incentive developed by the government in multidisciplinary campaigns focuses primarily on health promotion, given that regular exercise promotes the well-being of individuals in all aspects of their lives. In addition to these factors, sport helps to prevent sedentary lifestyles and obesity, especially in children and teenagers, not to mention reducing the number of early deaths (Federative Republic of Brazil 2011).

## 22.4 Sport Participation

Brazil's sports policies shed light on the widespread participation of people in sport, be it in government social sports projects, public leisure facilities, health gyms, or in formalized environments. It is believed that the arrival of mega events (e.g., World Cup and Olympics) is one of the factors promoting the growth of informal participation in sport alongside economic growth, longer life expectancy, and increasing permanence in basic school education. Although the whole of Brazil is experiencing growth, the south and southeast regions are provided with more information and have higher participation rates in sports as a result.

Informal physical activities featured in Brazil today include walking and street running which are practiced in public leisure facilities and even on city streets, especially in coastal areas.

Such practices are encouraging and fostering the creation of different public and private sectors because it costs little to participate in sports, and sport is accessible to the entire population.

For a country with continental dimensions, it is not an easy task to identify the 10 most popular sports without indicating some regional preferences. Soccer is certainly the most popular sport and a national passion. Other types of sports are more regionalized.

The Atlas of Sports in Brazil was published in 2005 in order to map sport in Brazil, based on trends, participation, highlights, and public and private opinion (Da Costa 2005). The key objective was to conduct a study on the dynamics of sports development and related activities in respect of central categories of regional and national importance. Based on this Atlas, the top 10 most popular sports were identified as follows:

1. *Soccer*

With 30.4 million soccer players, soccer is in the blood of the people of Brazil. It is said that the first thing a child does after learning to walk in Brazil is to play soccer. Sixteen percent of the population play soccer. Brazil has approximately 800 professional clubs, 13,000 amateur players, and 11,000 professional athletes and has won no less than 5 World Cup titles. The Brazilian Football Confederation manages the national sport, at professional, amateur, and educational level, and as a leisure sport. It is predominantly played by men especially in the professional category. However, it has attracted a growing number of women players over the past 20 years in primary schools and small sport academies. Women's soccer also features in official competitions.

2. *Volleyball*

Volleyball has excelled in recent years in Brazil and is Brazil's second most popular sport with 15.3 million players. Although the infrastructure has not reached the same standard as club soccer, the power of Brazilian volleyball has certainly not gone unnoticed. A long-term plan drawn up by the Brazilian Volleyball Confederation which manages professional and amateur sport culminated in Brazil garnering a place as one of the world's leading volleyball schools that are worth emulating. It is highlighted by the innovative development of the Corporate University Volleyball which undertakes to train coaches at all levels.

3. *Table Tennis*

This sport was introduced by British tourists in 1905. The first match was played in Sao Paulo in 1912. There are currently more than 12 million athletes practicing this sport around the country. The sport is much practiced for leisure. Currently, through the Brazilian Confederation of Table Tennis, this sport is organized in all states of Brazil, bringing together more than 20,000 athletes.

4. *Swimming*

Swimming became an official sport in Brazil in 1897. Since then, the sport has become increasingly popular and attracts over 10 million swimmers. It is managed at national level by the Brazilian Confederation of Aquatic Sports. In addition to being a leisure sport in coastal regions, swimming is also encouraged to promote health.

5. *Futsal*

Futsal in Brazil dates back to 1940; it is one of the most popular sports in schools, clubs, condominiums, and public and private courts. It is played by around 10 million practitioners of various age groups and gender. Futsal is managed by the Brazilian Futsal Confederation.

### 6. *Capoeira*

Capoeira is an Afro-Brazilian martial art that combines elements of dance and music. It is a culturally significant sport, developed in colonial times by slaves. In 2008, it was declared a Heritage of Brazilian culture. It is not recognized as a sport but as a martial art. As a social sport it is part of the education framework. Currently, there are six million practitioners. Despite its cultural aspect, capoeira is represented in sports by the Confederation of Brazilian Capoeira, recognized by the Brazilian Olympic Committee.

### 7. *Skateboarding*

Skateboarding was introduced in Brazil around 1965, initially as a hobby and not as a sport. Today there are around 2.7 million skateboarders in Brazil, both hobby and professional skateboarders. Although it is not an Olympic sport, it is present in the X games, which explains its popularity in Brazil. People can practice skateboarding on the street and it requires little outlay to get started. This practice is organized by the Confederation of Brazilian Skateboarders, which issues rules, organizes tournaments, and manages affiliated athletes.

### 8. *Surfing*

With the large number of beaches and a climate that enables people to practice all year round, Brazil now has 2.4 million athletes involved in surfing. It was introduced between 1934 and 1936. Currently Brazil is one of the greatest powerhouses of the surfing world, alongside the United States and Australia. In 2000, for the first time in history, Brazil was crowned the World Surfing Champion in the Team World Surfing Games. Surfing is taught in schools in physical education classes, and some universities include surfing in their courses. The Brazilian Confederation of Surfing is responsible for the management of rules, competitions, and athletes.

### 9. *Judo*

By 1922, judo had become a popular sport in Brazil owing to outstanding judo performance and is now a popular sport in all regions, attracting people of all ages and gender. 2.2 million people practice judo. The success at the Olympic Games in recent years has increased international prominence in the sport, attracting the interest of children as well as promoting social projects.

### 10. *Athletics*

Athletics were introduced in the late nineteenth century. Brazil first participated in the Olympic Games in the 1928 Olympics in Paris, France. There are 2.1 million athletes (male and female) competing in the jumping events and in street competitions. This sport is governed by the Brazilian Athletics Confederation.

The hierarchy presented here is based on figures, but other sporting disciplines also deserve to be mentioned such as the male and female artistic gymnastics; tennis; basketball; other martial arts such as jiu-jitsu, mixed martial arts, and boxing; and motor sports. However, as outlined in the foregoing they are very regionalized or require heavy investment in infrastructure.



## 22.5 Conclusion

Last but not least, it is worth emphasizing and highlighting the importance of sport in Brazil today. Although still controversial and contradictory, some progress has been made but the results are not yet satisfactory. For this, public policies highlight the need for basic training. People need to be encouraged to participate in sport from early childhood and adequate equipment, and trained professionals are needed. This is the pledge and socio-educational legacy for the 2016 Olympic Games.

## References

- de Azevedo, F. (1960). *Da educação física O que ela é, o que tem sido e o que deveria ser*. São Paulo: Melhoramentos.
- Barbosa, R. (2003). *Oração aos Moços* (2nd ed.). São Paulo: Papagaio.
- Bobbio, N. (2007). *Estado, Governo, Sociedade – Para uma teoria geral da política. Brazilian Edition*. São Paulo: Paz e Terra.
- Bonavides, P. (2004). *Do País Constitucional ao País Neocolonial* (3rd ed.). São Paulo: Malheiros.
- Bonavides, P. (2006). *Ciência Política* (13th ed.). São Paulo: Malheiros.
- Da Costa, L. (2005). *Atlas do Esporte no Brasil*. Brasília: Shape.
- Federative Republic of Brazil. (1998). Law n. 9615/1998. Lei Pelé. Brasília: Palácio do Planalto.
- Federative Republic of Brazil. (2004). Law n. 10891/2004. Athlete scholarship program. Brasília.
- Federative Republic of Brazil. (2006). Law n. 11438/2006 Brasília.
- Federative Republic of Brazil. (2011). Law 179/2011. Health gyms program. In Ministry of Health (Ed.). Brasília.
- Federative Republic of Brazil. (2012). National sports policy. In Ministério do Esporte (Ed.). Brasília.
- Federative Republic of Brazil. (2013). Programa Bolsa-Atleta. Programa Olimpico e Paralimpico. In Ministério do Esporte (Ed.). Brasília.

# Chapter 23

## United States

Jane E. Ruseski and Negar Razavilar

### 23.1 Introduction

The sport system and overall structure of sport in the United States is distinctive and quite different from the structure of organized sport in most other developed nations. Unlike other developed nations, government at all levels (national, regional, and local) takes a “hands-off” approach to organized sport in the United States (Sparvero et al. 2012) and relies heavily on the free market to determine how sport is structured and organized. While the federal government does play a limited role in regulating sports, there is not a government organization akin to the federal sports ministry in many countries that has overall responsibility for developing and implementing national sport policy or promoting sport and sport participation at the grassroots level. Nonetheless, sports are an important part of American culture and opportunities to engage in sport, either actively as an elite or recreational participant or passively as a spectator, are numerous. The sport system and the structure of organized sport in the United States are discussed in the next section. This is followed by a description of sport policy and sport financing in the United States. This chapter concludes with a presentation of some statistics and trends about grassroots sports participation.

---

J.E. Ruseski (✉)  
Department of Economics, West Virginia University, P.O. Box 6025,  
Morgantown, WV 26506, USA  
e-mail: ruseski@ualberta.ca

N. Razavilar  
Department of Economics, University of Alberta, HM Tory 8-14,  
Edmonton, AB T6G2H4, Canada  
e-mail: nravil@ualberta.ca

### 23.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

A convenient way to describe the structure of organized sport in the United States is as three dimensional: (1) professional team sports leagues, (2) intercollegiate and interscholastic athletics, and (3) local (public and private) sports clubs and recreational facilities. A schematic of the sport system is provided in Fig. 23.1. At the professional level, most would agree that the five largest professional sports leagues (National Football League (NFL), Major League Baseball (MLB), National Basketball Association (NBA), National Hockey League (NHL), and Major League Soccer (MLS)) dominate the organized sports landscape. Each of these professional

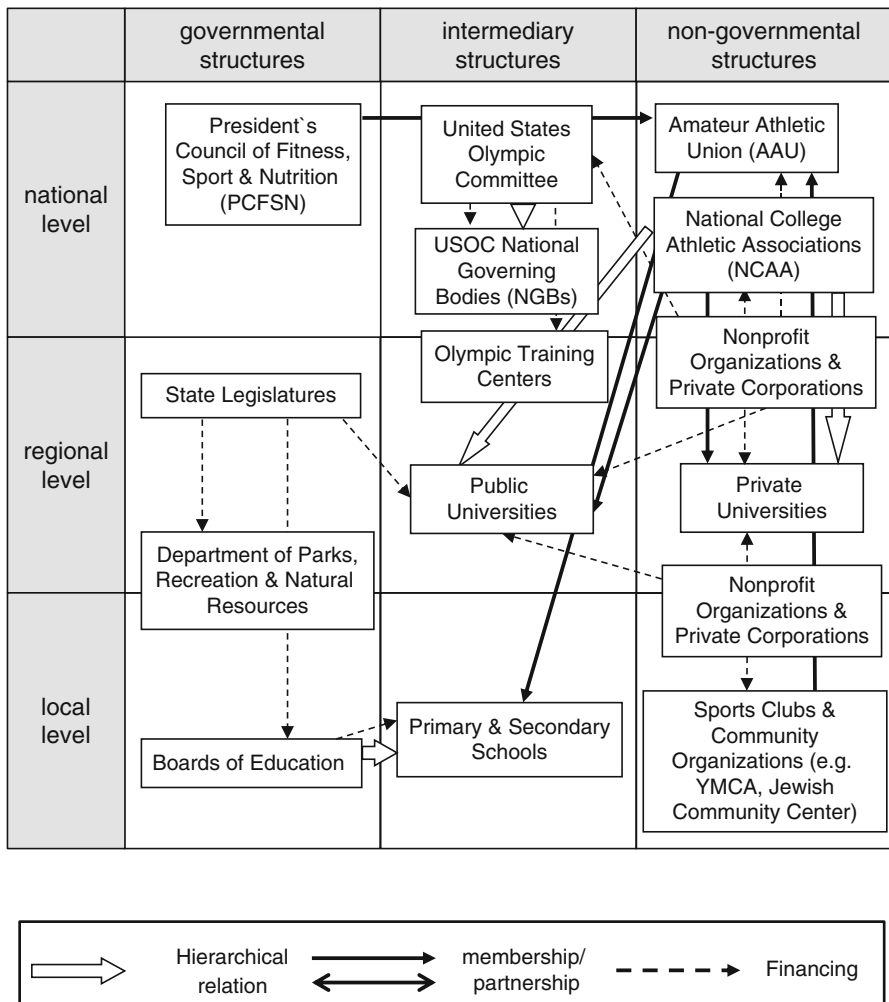


Fig. 23.1 Structure of sports system—amateur athletics

leagues is an association of franchises and each has their own organizational and governance structures. Unlike European leagues, there is no system for promotion and relegation. In terms of tournament design, the major American sports leagues use a similar schedule that is comprised of a regular season contests with the top teams advancing to a postseason playoff tournament culminating in championship series or game. Athletes competing in the professional ranks are considered elite athletes.

Not far behind the major professional leagues in terms of dominance is intercollegiate athletics, particularly men's football and men's basketball. The largest governing body of college sports is the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). The NCAA has four divisions for football and three divisions for other sports (Noll 2003). Intercollegiate athletics at many of the country's prominent universities, including large state-funded universities, has become a multibillion dollar enterprise (Eitzen 2012). The role of postsecondary, and to a lesser extent, secondary education in organized sport, is unique to the United States. Millions of students engage in competitive sport as members of high school and collegiate teams. For some sports, competition and training in the scholastic setting is the pathway to moving up the ranks. Primary school children might be inclined to participate and attempt to excel in a sport that is offered at the high school level with an eye towards competing at the college level. For some of the professional leagues, notably football and basketball, the intercollegiate leagues are effectively their minor leagues. The role that secondary and postsecondary education plays in developing potentially elite athletes is unique to the US sports system. In most other nations, this developmental role is assumed by youth club sports.

The third avenue for sport participation, at either a recreation or elite level, is through club sports typically offered at the local level. Grassroots sport participation occurs through many avenues including public schools, local recreation-and-parks departments, private clubs, and nonprofit service organizations like the YMCA, Jewish Community Centers, Boys and Girls clubs, and other religious organizations (Sparvero et al. 2012; Bowers et al. 2011). Many colleges and universities offer intramural or club sports for students who are interested in playing sports in an organized setting but who are not sufficiently skilled to play on or are not interested in playing on the school's varsity sports teams. However, because of the dominant role that scholastic-based athletics plays in the United States, there is no sport club tradition that is comparable to such traditions found elsewhere in the world (Sparvero et al. 2012).

The United States does not have an integrated system for sport or for the development of athletes (Sparvero et al. 2012). In fact, the federal government explicitly delegated authority for both elite and grassroots sport development to the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) and its National Governing Bodies (NGBs) through the Amateur Sports Act passed in 1978 [PL 95-606] and amended in 1996 [PL 105-227]. It is notable that the USOC is a private nonprofit organization which, although mandated through federal legislation, receives no continuous funding from the federal government. The federal government's reluctance to engage in sport policy making is consistent with the traditional American philosophy of limited

government intervention in order to preserve and protect individual liberties (Sparvero et al. 2012). The lack of a federal sport policy opens the door for the states to develop and implement their own sport policies. However, sport policy has not been a priority at the state level and no state has an explicit policy directed towards sport participation or athlete development at the grassroots or elite level. One could argue that there are implicit sports development and participation policies at the state level to the extent that states subsidize their universities who in turn offer sports programs (Bowers et al. 2011; Sparvero et al. 2012). The passing of the buck from federal to state government means that any coherent sport policy trickles down to the local government. Nearly all local communities fund some type of sports programming. The quality and depth of such programming is, not surprisingly, dependent on local politics, social, and economic conditions (Bowers et al. 2011).

### 23.3 Financing Sport

Just as the United States does not have an integrated sport system, it does not have an underlying policy for financing sport but rather relies primarily on the free market to finance the development of athletes and the construction and operation of sports facilities. It is perhaps easiest to describe the financing of sport in the United States in terms of the same categories used to describe the organization of the sports system, namely, professional sports, intercollegiate and interscholastic sports, and local sports clubs and recreational facilities.

Professional sports leagues are typically private, for-profit organizations whose revenues are generated primarily from gate revenues, concessions sold at games, media contracts, and licensed merchandise sales. The major expense for a professional sports team is salaries. All of this revenue and expense generation takes place in the private market with no direct subsidy from public funds of any kind. However, the indirect subsidy to professional sports teams in the United States in the form of publicly financed facility construction is substantial and highly controversial.

Sports facilities can be financed through public funds, private funds, or public-private partnerships. All three models have been used over time in the United States. Before 1960 the government was the primary source of funding for sports facilities. The basic funding model started to undergo a transition during the 1960s that still relied on public financing but altered the manner in which public funds were raised. The government started offering bonds secured through various hard (on the entire population) and soft (on targeted parts of the population) taxes. Public subsidies for the construction of sports facilities were significant throughout the 1970s and early 1980s. The funding model shifted more towards public-private partnerships between 1986 and 1995. This shift in funding philosophies can be traced to the Deficit Reduction Act of 1984 and the Tax Reform Act of 1986. Both of these acts placed lower priority on public funding of projects such as sports facilities and reduced the availability of tax exempt bonds for building sports facilities (Schwarz et al. 2010). Since 1990, 125 of the 140 teams in the five largest professional leagues

(NFL, MLB, NBA, NHL, and MLS) have had either new stadiums constructed or existing stadiums substantially refurbished. While public–private partnerships still dominate in terms of a funding model, the taxpayer’s contribution to this wave of facilities construction is in excess of 50 % (Baade and Matheson 2013). In addition to securing a significant amount of public funding for their new stadia, professional teams are generating large amounts of revenue through new avenues such as luxury suites, premium seating, personal seat license, concessionaire rights, and naming rights (Schwarz et al. 2010).

The prominence of intercollegiate athletics in the US sports system is unique and somewhat controversial. Much of the controversy stems from the seemingly unrelenting pursuit of the big payday associated with success in high-profile sports. Conventional wisdom suggests that investing in sports programs leads to greater success on the playing field and thus to greater revenues. There is also some evidence that state appropriations to public universities with successful men’s football programs are larger than those to less successful football programs (Humphreys 2006). However based on data obtained by USA Today from data reported by each institution on NCAA financial reports, most college athletic programs do not generate enough revenue to cover their operating expenses. According to a recent report by the Knight Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics, spending on high-profile sports is growing at a much faster rate than spending on academics at many universities. Median athletics spending per athlete at universities in the major athletics conferences ranges from 4 to nearly 11 times more than the median spending on education-related activities per student (Knight Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics 2010).

Many of the universities in the major athletic conferences with high-profile sports are public universities that receive a significant portion of their budgets from state appropriations. However, state appropriations and other general university funds allocated to athletic programs are generally insufficient to cover the expenses and represent only one of the several sources of revenues in intercollegiate athletics. Other sources of revenue include ticket sales, private donations, sponsorships, NCAA and conference distributions, broadcasting revenues, student fees, and post-season competition (Mahony and DeSchrive 2008).

The third category includes local sports clubs and recreational facilities. The participants in this category are quite distinct from each other in that they include elite amateur athletes training for high-level international competition and grassroots participants engaging in sport for fitness, fun, and social interaction. As discussed in the previous section, the USOC was established for the purpose of coordinating and developing amateur athletic activity in the United States (USOC 2011). Its mission extends to both developing elite athletes Olympic competition and encouraging mass participation in Olympic sports. However, the USOC has directed its attention and resources almost wholly to elite athletic programs. It is a private, nonprofit organization responsible for raising its own funds without any direct federal assistance. A significant portion of its revenue is generated through philanthropic activities and corporate sponsorship and licensing deals. Based on its 2011 annual report to Congress, the USOC earned USD 127.6 million in total revenue. The major expenses

**Table 23.1** Consumer purchases of sporting goods by category (in USD millions) (2005–2012) (NSGA 2013)

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012 <sup>a</sup>
Equipment	23,735	24,497	25,061	24,889	24,746	26,682	27,493	28,025
Footwear	15,719	16,910	17,524	17,190	17,069	17,476	18,384	19,025
Clothing	10,898	10,580	10,834	10,113	9,246	9,399	9,661	9,985
Subtotal	50,352	51,987	53,420	52,192	51,016	53,557	55,537	57,035
Recreational transport	38,082	38,485	38,003	28,266	20,851	25,134	26,083	27,146
<b>Total</b>	<b>88,434</b>	<b>90,472</b>	<b>91,423</b>	<b>80,458</b>	<b>71,912</b>	<b>78,691</b>	<b>81,620</b>	<b>84,181</b>

Note: <sup>a</sup>Projected

were member support, (USD 65.1 million), the maintenance and operation of Olympic Training Centers (USD 27.8 million), expenses related to international competition (USD 6.7 million), and broadcasting (USD 4.6 million).

Sport participation at the grassroots level involves equipment use, fee payments for club memberships, facility use, and instruction and travel. The vast majority of spending on sports at this level is out-of-pocket private household spending. There are a number of sources of data on household spending on sports. Each has its strengths and weaknesses and none is comprehensive because of the lack of a standard definition of the sports industry (Humphreys and Ruseski 2009). A commonly cited source is the National Sporting Goods Association (NSGA) annual survey of consumer purchases of sporting goods such as footwear, apparel, and equipment. Table 23.1 below reports trends in consumer purchases of sporting goods as compiled from the NSGA surveys. The largest categories of spending are equipment (33.7 % of total expenditures in 2011) and recreational transport (31.2 % of total expenditures in 2011).

### 23.4 Sport Policy

The United States does not have an overall national sports policy. In fact, it is one of the few countries in the world that does not have a sports ministry whose major responsibility is to develop and implement a “Sports-for-All” policy. The primary instrument for implementing sport policy at the federal level is legislation. However, federal legislation surrounding sport participation, sport development, and the organization of sport is sparse. Federal intervention at the grassroots level has a markedly non-sport focus and is better characterized as promoting regular participation in physical activity rather than sport. Although the United States does not have a government agency with general oversight over the sport system, Congress has been involved in various aspects of sports such as promoting gender equity in intercollegiate and interscholastic athletics, the use of performance-enhancing drugs in professional sports, sports broadcasting, and competition (from an antitrust perspective) in sports markets. Three federal policies, the first of which was passed in 1922, can

be described as having had a significant impact on the sport system at either the elite or grassroots level (Sparvero et al. 2012).

A critical federal policy that has significantly impacted the development of the major professional sports leagues is the antitrust exemption granted to professional baseball in 1922 (*Federal Baseball v. National League et al.* [259 US 200 (1922)]). This policy is important because the federal government determined that the business activities of a professional sports organization, including its treatment of players, lie outside of normal federal jurisprudence. Although the exemption has not been explicitly extended to other major professional sports, antitrust laws that are strictly enforced in other industries are not applied with the same rigor to professional sports (Sparvero et al. 2012).

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 [P.L. 92-318] is the second federal policy that has had a significant impact on promoting gender equity in intercollegiate and interscholastic athletics. Title IX is a comprehensive federal law that prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in any federally funded education program or activity (United States Department of Justice 1972). While this legislation was not specifically directed towards sport activities, advocates of women's sports have successfully used Title IX to increase sport opportunities for women (Bowers et al. 2011). Under Title IX, educational institutions that receive federal public funding must provide both the opportunity males and females to participate in intercollegiate competition. Compliance can be achieved by meeting one of the following three criteria: (1) providing athletic participation opportunities that are substantially proportionate to the student enrollment, (2) demonstrating a continual expansion of athletic opportunities for the underrepresented sex, and (3) accommodating the interest and ability of underrepresented sex (OCR 1979). A perhaps unintended consequence of the legislation is the adverse effect it has had on sport opportunities for men. In order to be compliance with Title IX, some schools have eliminated men's sports. Taken together, Title IX has had an impact on the number and types of sports offered in high schools and colleges and in participation rates.

The third policy influencing organized sport and the sport system in the United States is the Amateur Sports Act initially passed in 1978 and amended in 1996 (PL95-606 1978). This law effectively sanctioned monopoly status to the USOC over the governance of Olympic sports and international competition through the NGBs. This act specifically charges the USOC and its NGBs to coordinate and develop amateur sports in the United States, to encourage the development of sport facilities, and to encourage and provide assistance to sport for women, the handicapped, and ethnic minorities (Bowers et al. 2011). The fact that there is no enforcement provision in the legislation or the designation of a congressional committee or federal agency to provide oversight or direction is consistent with United States' preference to take a "hands-off," *laissez faire* approach to the organization of the sport system and sports markets.

Although there is no US government agency with a mandate to oversee a national sports system, the President's Council on Fitness, Sports, and Nutrition (PCFSN) was established by Executive Order 13265 in 2002. The mission of the PCFSN is to



promote programs and initiatives through partnerships with the public, private, and nonprofit sectors that motivate Americans to lead healthy, active lives. The PCFSN is made up of athletes, chefs, physicians, fitness professionals, and educators who are appointed by the President and serve in an advisory capacity through the Secretary of Health and Human Services. It is worth noting that the Council's focus is on promoting regular physical activity among all Americans for health, rather than competitive, purposes. What is now the PCFSN was first the President's Council on Youth Fitness (PCYF) that was established through Executive Order 12345 in 1956. At that time it was the only federal agency with any explicit link to national sport policy. Since its inception, the President's Council has undergone name changes. The PCYF became the President's Council on Physical Fitness in 1961 and then the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports (PCPFS) in 1963 before taking on its current name in 2002. The primary instrument for implementing initiatives around physical activity is the President's Challenge program. The President's Challenge program is a long-standing program of the Council that has grown since its inception in the 1960s to include fitness, physical activity, and healthy eating awards for youth, adults, and schools. The program is administered through a cosponsorship agreement with the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU).

The federal government's long-standing decision to have nothing more than an arm's length relationship with national sports policy and development essentially delegates that role to state and local governments and to the free market. As a result, private sports companies like Nike and professional sports leagues have launched programs to promote sport participation. Examples of such programs include NFL Play 60, NBA Fit and iHoops, and MLS Active Body, Active Minds (Bowers et al. 2011).

## 23.5 Sport Participation

Individuals can participate in the sport market in at least three ways: by participating in some sport, by attending a sporting event, or by watching or listening to a sporting event on television, radio, or the Internet (Humphreys and Ruseski 2009). For purposes of this section, only actual participation in sport or physical activity is considered. Perhaps due to a lack of a comprehensive national sport policy, there is no one single source of national statistics on sport participation. Several organizations including the NSGA, NCAA, Centers for Disease Control (CDC), National Federation of High Schools (NFHS), and American Sports Data, Inc. regularly conduct surveys about sport participation. Just as there is no single source of data, there is no one single measure of sport participation.

The NCAA and NFHS report counts of individuals who play on college and high school sports teams. Marketing organizations like the NSGA and American Sports Data, Inc. usually ask if the respondent has participated in particular sports at least more than once in the past year. The CDC conducts the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance Survey (BRFSS) annually that includes questions about the type of

**Table 23.2** Trends in sports participation, in millions—top 10 sports or physical activity (NSGA 2012; U.S. Census Bureau 2001–2009, 2011a)

	2001	2003	2005	2007	2009	2011	% Change 10 year
Exercise walking	71.2	79.5	86	89.8	93.4	97.1	36.38 %
Swimming	54.8	47	58	52.3	50.2	46	−16.06 %
Exercising with equipment	43	48.6	54.2	52.9	57.2	55.5	29.07 %
Bicycle riding	39	36.3	43.1	37.4	38.1	39.1	0.26 %
Basketball	28.1	27.9	29.9	24.1	24.4	26.1	−7.12 %
Golf	26.6	25.7	24.7	22.7	22.3	20.9	−21.43 %
Health club memberships	26.5	29.5	34.7	36.8	38.3	34.5	30.19 %
Hiking	26.1	25	29.8	28.6	34	39.1	49.81 %
Running/jogging	24.5	22.9	29.2	30.4	32.2	38.7	57.96 %
Aerobic exercising	24.3	28	33.7	34.8	33.2	42	72.84 %
Total—top 10 activities	364.1	370.4	423.3	409.8	423.3	439	
<b>US population</b>	<b>284.9</b>	<b>290.1</b>	<b>295.52</b>	<b>301.2</b>	<b>306.7</b>	<b>311.6</b>	

exercise the respondent spends the most time doing. The tables below present data on sport participation obtained from the NSGA surveys.

Table 23.2 shows the trends in sport participation from 2001 to 2011 as collected from the NSGA surveys for the top ten sports or physical activities in 2001. The NSGA survey includes popular activities that require specialized equipment like camping, bowling, fishing, and billiards. These activities are excluded from the top 10 sports reported in Table 23.2. The last line of the table shows the total number of participants in the top 10 activities. A simple total of the number of participants reported on Table 23.2 points out an important limitation of these estimates since the number of participants in just the top 10 activities exceeds the US population. This occurs because an individual may participate in multiple activities during the course of a year. The survey asks the male and female heads of households and up to two other household members who were at least 7 years of age to indicate their age, the sports in which they participated in, and the number of days of participation in 2009. A participant is defined as an individual 7 years of age or older who participates in a sport more than once a year or at least six times per year for some activities like walking, bicycle riding, and exercising with equipment.

Walking is by far the most popular activity. This is to be expected, because walking requires relatively little equipment, few fees, and little effort to engage in the activity since many people can walk simply by stepping outside the door. In 2011, 97.1 million people (31.2 % of the population) reported walking at least six times during the past year. Over the 10-year period, participation rates declined for swimming, basketball, and golf.

Table 23.3 shows participation counts for the same 10 sports in Table 23.2 by gender and age groups for 2009. These data were obtained from the US Census Bureau Statistical Abstract of the United States published in 2012. The US Census Bureau obtained the data from NSGA surveys summarized by year in Table 23.2.

**Table 23.3** Sports participation by gender and age groups, in millions. Top 10 sports or physical activities, 2009 (U.S. Census Bureau 2011b)

Activity	All persons		Sex		Age groups				
	Number	Male	Female	Age groups					
				7–17 years	18–34 years	35–54 years	55–74 years	75+ years	
Exercise walking	93.4	37.1	56.3	9.1	24.2	35.1	19.3	5.6	
Exercising with equipment	57.2	27.8	29.4	5.0	20.5	21.1	8.1	2.5	
Swimming	50.2	23.8	26.4	16.4	12.5	14.5	5.8	1.1	
Health club memberships	38.3	17.6	20.7	2.5	15.2	13.3	5.7	1.6	
Bicycle riding	38.1	21.3	16.9	13.2	8.4	11.8	4.2	0.60	
Hiking	34.0	17.4	16.6	6.9	10.2	12.4	4.0	0.51	
Aerobic exercising	33.1	9.5	23.6	3.2	12.5	11.9	4.3	1.2	
Running/jogging	32.2	17.7	14.5	7.6	13.8	9.3	1.5	0.79	
Basketball	24.4	16.9	7.5	11.3	7.1	5.2	0.72	0.81	
<b>Golf</b>	<b>22.3</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>5.4</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>8.4</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>0.90</b>	

Even when broken down by age group, walking is the most popular form of exercise for adults aged 18 or older. The top sports for children (ages 7–17) are swimming, bicycle riding, and basketball. Walking, exercising with equipment, and swimming round out the top three activities for both men and women.

## References

- Baade, R. A., & Matheson, V. A. (2013). Financing professional sports facilities. In S. B. White & Z. Z. Kotval (Eds.), *Financing economic development in the 21st century* (pp. 323–342). New York: M.E. Sharpe.
- Bowers, M. T., Chalip, L., & Green, B. C. (2011). United States of America. In M. Nicholson, R. Hoye, & B. Houlihan (Eds.), *Participation in sport: International policy perspectives* (pp. 254–267). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Eitzen, D. S. (2012). *Sport in contemporary society: An anthology*. Boulder: Paradigm Publishers.
- Humphreys, B. R. (2006). The relationship between big-time college football and state appropriations for higher education. *International Journal of Sport Finance*, 1(2), 119–128.
- Humphreys, B. R., & Ruseski, J. E. (2009). Estimates of the dimensions of the sports market in the US. *International Journal of Sport Finance*, 4(2), 94–113.
- Knight Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics. (2010). *Restoring the balance: Dollars, values, and the future of college sports*. Miami: John S. and James L. Knight Foundation.
- Mahony, D. F., & DeSchraver, T. D. (2008). The big business of college sports in America. In R. H. Humphrey & D. R. Howard (Eds.), *The business of sports: Perspectives on the sports industry* (pp. 225–252). Westport: Praeger Publishers.
- Noll, R. G. (2003). The organization of sports leagues. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, 19(4), 530–551.
- NSGA. (2012). *Ten-year history of sports participation*. [http://www.nsga.org/files/public/2001thru2011\\_10Year\\_Participation\\_History\\_website.pdf](http://www.nsga.org/files/public/2001thru2011_10Year_Participation_History_website.pdf). Accessed 04 Apr 2013.
- NSGA. (2013). *2002–2012 consumer purchases of sporting goods by category*. <http://www.nsga.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageid=3506>. Accessed 04 Apr 2013.

- Office for Civil Rights. (1979). *A policy interpretation: Title IX and intercollegiate athletics*. <http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/t9interp.html>. Accessed 26 Mar 2013.
- PL95-606. (1978). <http://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/STATUTE-92/pdf/STATUTE-92-Pg3045.pdf>. Accessed 26 Mar 2013.
- Schwarz, E., Hall, S. A., & Shibli, S. (2010). *Sport facility operations management: A global perspective*. Kidlington/Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Sparvero, E., Chalip, L., & Green, B. C. (2012). United States. In B. Houlihan & M. Green (Eds.), *Comparative elite sport development* (pp. 242–271). Kidlington/Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2001–2009). *Monthly intercensal resident population estimates for the United States*. <http://www.multpl.com/united-states-population/table>. Accessed 04 Apr 2013.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2011a). *Monthly population estimates for the United States*. <http://www.multpl.com/united-states-population/table>. Accessed 04 Apr 2013.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2011b). *Statistical abstract of the United States, Table 1249*. <http://www.census.gov/prod/2011pubs/12statab/arts.pdf>. Accessed 04 Apr 2013.
- United States Department of Justice. (1972). *Title IX of the education amendments*. <http://www.justice.gov/crt/about/cor/coord/titleix.php>. Accessed 26 Mar 2013.
- USOC. (2011). *Annual report*. Colorado Springs.

# Chapter 24

## Canada

Alison Doherty and Ryan Clutterbuck

### 24.1 Introduction

Canada is a land of many contrasts. Although Canada is 35<sup>th</sup> in the world in size of population at 34.3 million (CIA 2013), its 10 provinces (Newfoundland and Labrador, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia) and three territories (Nunavut, Yukon, and Northwest Territory) are spread across an area of almost 10 million square kilometers that is second only to Russia in size (CIA 2013). Eighty percent of the population is spread along the border with the United States (RCMP 2010) and predominantly in the large urban centers of Montreal (Quebec), Toronto (Ontario), and Vancouver (British Columbia); however, many communities are also located throughout each province. These communities generally align historically with the fur trade of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the waterways, the rail line, and wherever the country's diverse and valuable natural resources – from fish to coal to diamonds – could be “mined.” The country is also bordered by the Atlantic, Pacific, and Arctic oceans, extending from the Rocky Mountains in the west, to the flat prairies, the frozen tundra to the North, the Great Lakes of Ontario, the forests of Quebec, and the rugged coast of Atlantic Canada in the East.

Its people are diverse as well. Canada has two official languages – English and French – with 22 % of Canadians reporting French as their first language (Statistics Canada 2013). In addition to the official recognition of its English and French heritage, Canada also acknowledges its Aboriginal roots and “is committed to improve the quality of life of Aboriginal Peoples and supporting their full participation and cultural revitalization in Canadian society” (Canadian Heritage 2010a). Today, there are a multitude of ethnic groups in Canada, in large part reflective of its liberal

---

A. Doherty (✉) • R. Clutterbuck  
School of Kinesiology, Western University, London, ON, Canada  
e-mail: adoherty@uwo.ca; rclutter@uwo.ca

immigration practices and national policy on multiculturalism.<sup>1</sup> In fact, Canada's largest city, Toronto, is considered one of the most multicultural cities in the world, with over 200 distinct ethnic origins and 140 languages and dialects representing its population of 2.48 million (City of Toronto 2013).

Canadians value fairness, diversity, equity, inclusion, health, safety, economic security, democracy, and sustainability (Canadian Index of Wellbeing 2012). In addition to framing many of the country's policies and practices, at all levels of society, these values are reflected in sport policies that promote sport for both genders, across the lifespan, as one is able (disabled sport and low-income initiatives), and however one sees fit (recreational or high performance). Sport is supported in Canada for its contribution to population health, social development, civic engagement, community building, and nation building (Conference Board of Canada 2011).

Indeed, sport is a major part of the national identity in Canada, from embracing its ice hockey players at all levels, to hosting the world in both summer (1976) and winter (1988, 2010) Olympic Games, one of only seven countries to do so. Canadians are also participants and involved in a range of sports as outlined below. The focus of this chapter is sport defined as "physical activities that involve competition and rules and that develop specific skills" (CFLRI 2011a), thus excluding other forms of physical activity "that involve neither competition nor the intention of improving personal sporting performance" (Bloom et al. 2005).

## 24.2 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

This section examines the various structures that play a role in participation and high performance sport delivery in Canada – from policies, funding, programs, event hosting, and facilities to athlete, coach and officials' development, and support. Given the considerable role of government in sport, it is helpful to begin with an overview of the system of government in Canada.

Canada has a multiparty parliamentary system of government at both the federal and provincial/territorial levels, although the two levels do not have connected systems. Members of parliament are elected by majority, and the number of seats won dictates whether the ruling party has minority (shared) or majority governance. The leader of the ruling party and thus head of government is the Prime Minister (or provincial/territorial Premier). Municipal government or city council comprises elected councilors representing geographic sections of a municipality. The Mayor is elected independent of the councilors.

The system by which sport is structured in Canada essentially follows this governance model, as illustrated in Fig. 24.1. Sport is delivered at three levels – local, provincial/territorial, and national – that have distinct but complementary and often allied mandates.

---

<sup>1</sup> In 1971 Canada was the first country in the world to adopt such a policy. The subsequent Canadian Multiculturalism Act was legislated in 1988 (Citizenship and Immigration Canada 2008).

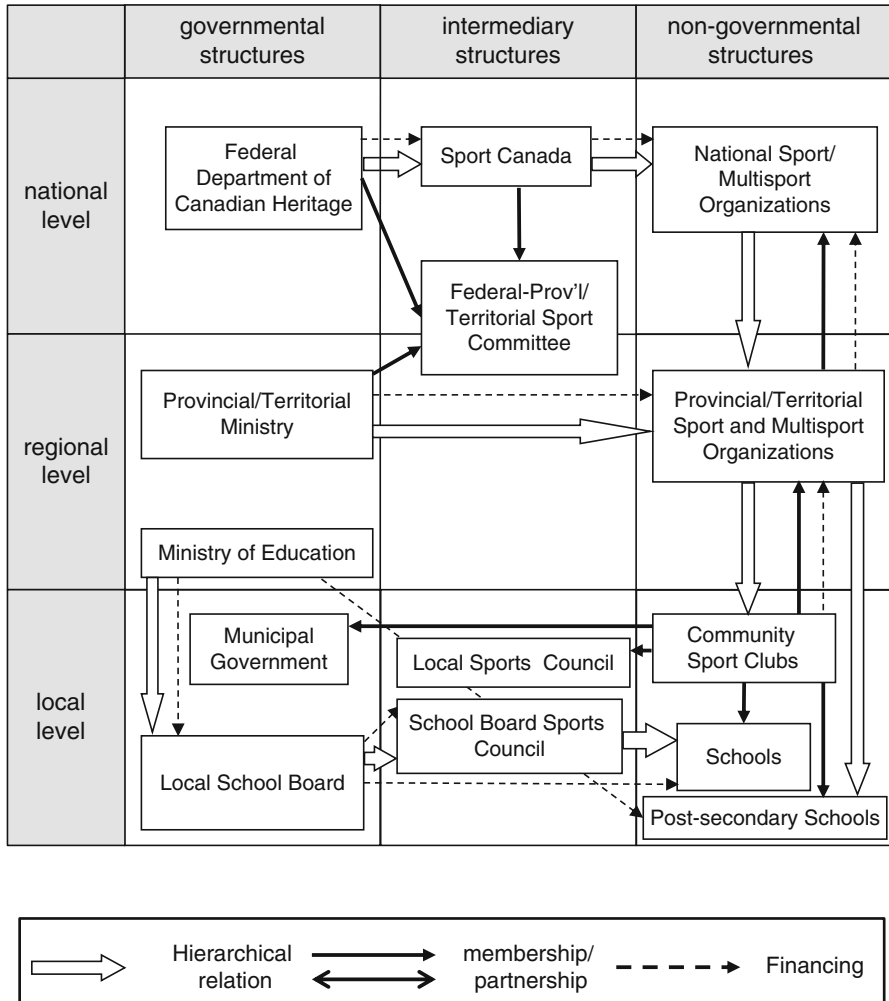


Fig. 24.1 Canadian sport framework

Sport is primarily delivered by nonprofit and public organizations. However, a number of for-profit or commercial organizations support sport delivery at all three levels, through programs and facilities (e.g., golf clubs, ski hills, hockey arenas), the manufacture and retail of sports equipment, and sponsorship of nonprofit and public sport organizations. As well, Canada is home to at least one team in each of eight professional leagues<sup>2</sup> in the sports of hockey, basketball, baseball, soccer, lacrosse,

<sup>2</sup> At the time of writing, there is at least one Canadian team in the National Hockey League (NHL), American Hockey League (AHL), National Basketball Association (NBA), Canadian Basketball League (CBL), Major League Baseball, Major League Soccer (MLS), National Lacrosse League (NLL), and the Canadian Football League (CFL).

and football. The leagues and their Canadian teams may be seen as the pinnacle of these sports and thus part of the sport development system. However, the link between professional sport and the rest of sport in Canada may be more emotional than structural, reflecting athletes' goals and dreams more than any systematic developmental connection. Nonetheless, we can conceive of an additional column in Fig. 24.1 that would be labeled "commercial structures" and identify membership/partnership connections with some of the other structures indicated there.

At the national level, sport is under the jurisdiction of the federal Department of Canadian Heritage, as part of its broader mandate to "promote Canadian content, foster cultural participation, active citizenship and participation in Canada's civic life, and strengthen connections among Canadians" through national policies and programs (Canadian Heritage 2010c). The Minister of State (Sport), an appointed role for a Member of Parliament, reports directly to the Minister of Canadian Heritage and ultimately the Prime Minister of Canada. Sport Canada is an arms-length agency that oversees sport in Canada for the federal government. Its mandate is "*to enhance opportunities for all Canadians to participate and excel in sport*" (Canadian Heritage 2008). It does this by ensuring the implementation of Canada's sport policies and strategies. Sport Canada directs and funds sport for the federal government through its focus on sport programs, sport policy, and major games and hosting.

National sport organizations (NSOs) are the national governing bodies for a given sport (e.g., Canada Basketball). They range in size from a staff of one or two (e.g., Bowls Canada) to as many as 50 full-time personnel (e.g., Skate Canada). Each is governed by a volunteer board of directors with representatives from across the country. NSOs are recognized by Sport Canada and thus the federal government as the official governing body and representative of their respective sport in and for the country. This is played out with the implementation of nationwide initiatives to develop and promote the sport (see the LTAD below as an example), management of marketing and sponsorship activities for the sport, national team management (including selection, staffing), sanctioning and hosting national level competitions, and bidding to host major international competitions (Sportweb 2005). The NSO also represents Canada to the sport's international federation. Its members are primarily the governing bodies for the sport at the provincial/territorial level. Multisport organizations (e.g., Coaching Association of Canada, Canadian Olympic Committee, Canadian Center for Ethics in Sport) are also overseen by Sport Canada and serve a variety of needs shared by different sports.

Sport is a particular vehicle for intergovernmental collaboration in Canada, as exemplified by the Federal-Provincial/Territorial Sport Committee. This body is intended to facilitate dialogue between government officials at both levels regarding joint sport initiatives with shared funding commitments, while ensuring clearly defined roles and responsibilities of the various levels of sport (Canadian Heritage 2010b). The Committee comprises Sport Canada representatives along with federal and provincial/territorial delegates. Its work has focused on the Canada Games (a national multisport competition held every two years alternating winter and summer), the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP), and Aboriginal sport issues. The work of this intergovernmental group is manifested back through its national and provincial representatives.



The governance and structure of sport at the provincial/territorial level closely parallels the national level. However, sport at the national level tends to focus more on high performance while the provincial/territorial level focuses more on developing young athletes, grassroots sport, and participation (O'Reilly and Séguin 2009). At this level, sport is part of a larger government ministry (e.g., the Division of Sport, Recreation and Community Programs within the Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport). The sport division within a ministry establishes provincial sport policy and strategy and provides direction and funding for single sport and multi-sport service organizations.

Provincial (and territorial) sport organizations (PSOs, e.g., Ontario Basketball) are nonprofit associations that may have a small staff but otherwise are dependent on volunteers to carry out their mandate develop and regulate sport throughout the province (Sportweb 2005). PSOs do this primarily through the delivery of technical certification programs for coaches and officials, sanctioning competitions and tournaments within the province and hosting provincial championships, providing insurance coverage to their members (primarily community sport clubs), and management of provincial team activities (Sportweb 2005). PSOs are recognized by the provincial/territorial government and are the link between community sport clubs and the national governing bodies for a sport. Like their national level counterparts, provincial multisport organizations (e.g., Ontario Wheelchair Sports Association, Coaching Manitoba) serve common needs of several sports. Key among these is a provincial sport body (e.g., Sport Alberta, Sport New Brunswick) whose mandate is to advocate for sport to the provincial government while providing “programs, services, and resource to help our member organizations achieve their own objectives” (Sport Alliance Ontario, nd: 1). Those member organizations are primarily PSOs that rely on their provincial sport body for province-wide multisport competitions and provincial sport awards, as well as resources that assist with such things as policy development and strategic and financial management. They also serve as a repository and coordinating body for nationwide initiatives at the provincial level (e.g., LTAD, Kidsport, and Canadian Sport Centers).

The foundation of sport in Canada is the grassroots or community level, where organized sport is delivered in community sport clubs, schools, and municipal programs. Community sport clubs are typically nonprofit membership associations that are run exclusively by volunteers drawn from their members. They are generally single sport clubs (e.g., baseball, lacrosse, hockey, athletics, diving) that offer recreational and/or competitive opportunities for children through to adults. Some clubs will target a more focused group, such as youth soccer or adult curling. Clubs may range in size from as few as five (badminton) to as many as 35,000 members (soccer; Doherty and Cuskelly 2012). In addition to nonprofit volunteer-based clubs, there are also for-profit community sport clubs, typically for golf, alpine skiing, martial arts, and gymnastics (although these sports are not exclusively offered by commercial clubs). Most clubs are members of the PSO for their sport in order to be eligible to compete in and host sanctioned events and to take advantage of liability insurance. PSOs also offer resources for clubs to draw on, particularly for aspects of club development such as coaching, fundraising, and volunteer management. Community sport clubs generally have a loose connection with other clubs, schools,

or the municipality, with the exception of partnering for facility rental (Misener and Doherty 2013). A community may also have multisport organizations, such as those that provide a variety of sport and physical activity opportunities to members through their own facility (e.g., YMCA, in about 1,000 communities across Canada; YMCA Canada 2013). A local sports council (e.g., Toronto Sports Council) may be found in larger communities where it is typically charged with promoting, developing, and coordinating opportunities in the community, often in conjunction with sport clubs and municipal government partners (Misener et al. 2013).

In schools, organized sport is offered through intramural (within school) and extramural (between schools) programs. Both are considered optional extracurricular activities. Such programs may be found for students as young as 10 years of age through to the university or college level. Intramural and interscholastic/intercollegiate sports tend to be traditional offerings, such as basketball, swimming, soccer, and volleyball. Competition between school teams is typically regulated by the local school board, perhaps through a sports council. School boards are under the jurisdiction of their provincial Ministry of Education and distribute provincial funding to their schools that impacts sports facilities and extracurricular activities. Intercollegiate sport is directly regulated by provincial multisport organizations (e.g., Ontario University Athletics, Ontario Colleges Athletic Association). These bodies, and thus their member schools, are ultimately under the governance of their respective national multisport organizations (Canadian Interuniversity Sport, Canadian Colleges Athletic Association).

Municipal sport offerings are particular to a given community. Sport is just one part of a broad municipal mandate to offer recreation opportunities that range from leisure (e.g., crafts, cooking, music) to competitive sport (e.g., adult leagues) based on a community's needs. The programs may fill a gap that school and club sport do not meet. However, organized sport is a very small part of a municipality's business, and communities have been known to divest their sport programming, for example, transferring delivery of a softball league to the local YMCA or privatizing a municipal golf course (Platt 2013). A critical role of local government in the Canadian sport system is the provision of facilities (CS4L 2011a). Most community sport clubs do not possess their own facilities and must rely on the city (as well as schools) for access to run their programs. Hockey arenas, baseball diamonds, track and field facilities, and even rowing venues are largely made possible by the municipality, with clubs renting that space for their programs. Clubs have very important partnerships with their municipality and local schools for facilities, and this may be seen as a critical element of sport development in Canada (CS4L 2011a).

### 24.3 Financing Sport

The federal government continues to be the largest single investor in the Canadian sport system (Canadian Heritage 2010b). In 2011–2012, the Canadian government, through Sport Canada, contributed almost CAD 150 million to the Sport Support

Program. This was divided among 55 NSOs and 27 multisport service organizations, as well as special initiatives like the Canadian Sport Centers (a network of seven multisport centers across the country that support high performance excellence) and the Long-Term Athlete Development program described below (Canadian Heritage 2012b). This support represents a one-third increase in spending for this program since 2009–2010, leading up to the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The 2011–2012 contributions to NSOs ranged from CAD 78,000 (Cricket Canada) to CAD 5.3 million (Swimming Canada). The largest contribution was CAD 5.8 million to the multisport Canadian Paralympic Committee. In addition, Sport Canada distributed CAD 23 million through the Hosting Program (for bidding for and hosting international events) and CAD 26.9 million through the Athlete Assistance Program (individual support for the pursuit of international excellence), for a total of almost CAD 200 million (Canadian Heritage 2012b). The government has also contributed over CAD 60 million annually to the Own the Podium program established in 2004 specifically to enhance high performance through the NSOs.

However, there is considerable variation among both large and small NSOs with regard to the proportion of their revenues from the federal government, ranging from as low as 17 % (Canadian Rugby Union 2012) and 22 % (Bowls Canada 2012) to as high as 73 % (Athletics Canada 2010) and 75 % (Bobsleigh Canada Skeleton 2012) of operating revenues. At least some of that variation appears to be based on whether the NSO receives additional high performance funding through Own the Podium. Some NSOs also rely quite heavily on membership fees from their provincial counterparts, representing as much as 39 % (Canadian Soccer Association 2011) of revenues in some cases. Many NSOs are increasingly turning to alternate sources of revenue, including sponsorship, donations, and even gate receipts. However, there is also considerable variation in the relative contribution of these sources to overall operating revenues. For example, the Canadian Soccer Association reported a 24 % increase in sponsorship and donations from 2010 to 2011, representing 23 % of its total revenues. It also reported a 53 % increase in merchandise sales plus gate receipts from the staging of home matches, although that represents only 7 % of its total revenues (Canadian Soccer Association 2011). In contrast, sponsorship and donations represented only 11 % of Athletics Canada's total revenues in 2010 and merchandise sales/gate receipts were negligible (Athletics Canada 2010). Even though there was a move in the 1990s to reduce NSOs' reliance on federal funding (Berrett 1993), a drive for Canadian sport excellence starting in the early years of the twenty-first century turned the focus back to government support.

Funding is provided to NSOs through a 4-year "contribution agreement" in line with the Sport Funding and Accountability Framework. The allocation of funding is based on evidence of the NSO's "eligibility," which includes such things as its sport profile (must be an Olympic/Paralympic sport or demonstrate minimum membership numbers), effective governance (constitution, volunteer board structure), policy adoption (e.g., anti-doping policy, official languages policy, equity policy), sound planning and financial management, and systematic programs and services that address coaching, officiating, Long-Term Athlete Development, and high performance (Canadian Heritage 2012c). Multisport organizations have their

own eligibility framework. Accountability is a critical part of the agreement wherein NSOs' results and progress are monitored by Sport Canada throughout the 4-year agreement.

The funding system is similar at the provincial/territorial level, although the absolute dollar amounts are far less. For example, the government of the province of Alberta contributed CAD 16.5 million in 2011–2012 to programs that included PSOs and multisport organizations, along with another CAD 1 million specifically for high performance athlete assistance (Alberta Ministry of Tourism 2012). Like their national level counterparts, PSOs and multisport organizations must apply for multi-year funding; however, they apply directly to their provincial/territorial ministry. Provincial/territorial governments also typically have special funding initiatives that enable them to support particular goals. For example, healthy community initiatives (Government of New Brunswick 2012) and sport event hosting (Government of Nova Scotia 2012).

The financial involvement of government in sport in Canada is endorsed by Canadians. A 2006–2007 report revealed that about three-quarters of Canadians believe the government has a high responsibility for providing services, programs, and facilities that will enable everyone to participate in sport and that it should increase spending in those areas as well as provide tax incentives for sport participation (CFLRI 2006–07). This was played out with the 2009–2011 Recreational Infrastructure Canada (RInC) program that distributed CAD 500 million for community facility upgrading and renewal across the country in partnership with provincial/territorial governments (a program that continues in many provinces) and the introduction of the Children's Fitness Tax Credit in 2007 which allows a CAD 500 tax rebate for parents of any child involved in a supervised program that involves "significant physical activity" (Canada Revenue Agency 2013). These initiatives represent the crux of federal and to a large extent provincial/territorial support for sport at the local level.

At the local level, community sport clubs rely heavily if not exclusively on membership fees, although they too have felt the need to tap into alternate sources of revenue (Doherty and Cuskelly 2012). These alternate sources – sponsorships, government grants, and donations – comprise a relatively small proportion of what are quite modest revenues of these organizations (55 % report less than \$30,000 and 77 % report less than \$100,000 annual income; Imagine Canada 2006). Interestingly, clubs are challenged by the increased bureaucracy that may be associated with government funding opportunities (Doherty and Misener 2011) and have typically been precluded from gaining charitable status that might lead to an increase in donations (Lachance 2007).

School sport is generally funded by the schools themselves, which are funded by their board and ultimately the provincial Ministry of Education. Participants may contribute a usually small portion as needed by their school. Intercollegiate sport is generally supported by some combination of institutional funding from central administration (a large portion of which comes from the provincial Ministry of Education) and mandatory activity fees levied on all students.

Of course the participants themselves also finance sport in Canada through their membership or registration fees, equipment and clothing, fees for instruction or

coaching, and other expenses such as transportation. To help offset the high cost of sport-related expenditures that are a barrier to participation for those in low-income households (CFLRI 2012), several nationwide charitable programs (Jumpstart, KidSport Canada), with provincial/territorial chapters, provide grants to community sport clubs to help offset eligible participants' registration, equipment, and/or transportation costs.

## 24.4 Sport Policy

Canadian sport policies have evolved in response to national circumstances, changing values and, in some instances, to national crisis and international embarrassment. A critical turning point was the introduction of the *Canadian Sport Policy* (CSP) in 2002 and the Canadian Sport for Life (CS4L) movement introduced in 2003, with their focus on enhanced participation over the lifespan, as well as enhanced excellence, capacity, and interaction among stakeholders in Canadian sport. Both have had a substantial impact on subsequent policies and particularly those targeted to improve conditions for underrepresented groups, such as *Sport Canada's Policy on Aboriginal Peoples' Participation in Sport* (2005), *Policy on Sport for Persons with a Disability* (2006), and *Actively Engaged: A Policy on Sport for Women and Girls* (2009). In addition to national level policies, governments at the provincial/territorial and local levels across Canada have policies that mandate particular aspects of sport specific to their jurisdictions. Examples include the *Sport Safe* policy in British Columbia and the City of London's policy on *Gender Equity in Recreation Services*.

We present here an historical overview of key developments and national policy between 1943 and 2012, a more in-depth presentation of *CSP 2002* and *CSP 2012*, and an introduction to two distinctly Canadian sport policies: *Sport Canada's Policy on Aboriginal Peoples' Participation in Sport* and the *Policy on Sport for Persons with a Disability*.

### 24.4.1 Developments in Canadian Sport Policy (1943–2002)

The first Canadian sport policy, however ineffectual, was the 1943 *National Physical Fitness Act of Canada* (NPFA). The NPFA was developed in part because of the unhealthy condition of Canadian army recruits during World War II and offered federal funding to eligible provinces for physical fitness programs. Though the policy was repealed in 1954 for various deficiencies, including funding discrepancies, vague terminology, and lack of purpose, it remains the first example of federal government intervention in sport (Comeau 2012). Prior to the NPFA, and for some time following its repeal, sport policy was thought to be a provincial and municipal priority as a product of the school system and community programs (Macintosh et al. 1987).

The next wave of federal interest and intervention in sport policy came in 1959 following a speech by the Duke of Edinburgh to the Canadian Medical Association in which he chastised Canadians for their low level of physical fitness (Hall et al. 1991). The Duke's speech, which received national media attention, coupled with international failures in ice hockey competitions (losses to the Soviet Union and United States at the 1956 Olympic Winter Games) prompted federal re-interest in sport policy, only this time for public health and international prestige. As a result, the *Fitness and Amateur Sport Act* (FASA) passed unanimously in 1961, making the federal government responsible to fund provincial sport organizations, provide bursaries for athletes, fund the professionalization of national sport administration, and increase access to sport participation for Canadians (Comeau 2012). Although the language of *FASA* acknowledges the importance of sport participation to public health, an analysis of funding allocations following its adoption highlights the (then) federal government's preference for high performance sport – a theme that would continue in Canadian sport policy for nearly 30 years.

Between 1969 and 1982 a number of sport policy initiatives were developed, including the 1969 *Task Force on Canadian Sport*, the 1970 *Proposed Sport Policy for Canadians*, Game Plan 1976 (1972), *Partners in Pursuit of Excellence* (1979), and the Best Ever Program (1982). During this period, tension between sport policy advocates for high performance and advocates for health promotion/participation developed, with high performance sport dominating the agenda. During a period in which Quebec Nationalism was seen as a significant threat to federal interests, high performance sport policies were adopted as a means to strengthen national unity and to develop a sense of Canadian pride (Comeau 2012).

If high performance initiatives characterized the 1960s, 1970s, and early 1980s, what followed is perhaps best described as a period of reflection and consequences for Canadian sport. The Ben Johnson doping scandal, following his record setting 100 m performance at the 1988 Seoul Olympics, prompted national introspection on Canada's priorities in sport, funding incentives, and policy initiatives that lead Johnson, and others, to cheat. Policies and reports following Johnson's scandal include *Toward 2000: Building Canada's Sport System* (1988), the *Commission of Inquiry into the Use of Drugs and Banned Practices Intended to Increase Athletic Performance* (the "Dubin Inquiry," 1990), the 1991 *Canadian Policy Against Doping in Sport*, *Sport: The Way Ahead* (1992), and *Sport in Canada: Everybody's Business* (the "Mills Report," 1998). The embarrassment following Johnson's scandal lead policy makers to revisit the role sport (particularly elite sport) should have in Canadian society, reducing federal funding for high performance initiatives throughout the 1990s and stalling policy development.

#### **24.4.2 Canadian Sport Policy 2002 and CSP 2012**

The 2002 *CSP* is considered the first truly nationally representative sport policy in Canadian history (Canadian Heritage 2002). It was developed following a

nationwide consultation process led by the federal Minister of State for Sport and comprised broadly attended regional conferences as well as roundtables with specific interest groups including athletes, sport officials, Aboriginal peoples, and NSO leaders (Canadian Heritage 2002). The policy was further reinforced with the legislation of the new *Physical Activity and Sport Act* in 2003. Whereas the *FASA* of 1961 introduced federal intervention in sport policy and funding directed (primarily) towards elite performance, the ultimate goal of the *CSP 2002* was to “enable all Canadians to experience and enjoy involvement in sport to the extent of their abilities and interests and, for increasing numbers, to perform consistently and successfully at the highest competitive levels” (Canadian Heritage 2002). Perhaps most importantly, for the first time all provincial and territorial governments agreed to participate in the implementation of a national sport policy through action plans specific to their jurisdiction (Canadian Heritage 2002).

The policy goals of enhanced participation, excellence, capacity, and interaction among key stakeholders in Canadian sport are aimed towards:

A significantly higher proportion of Canadians from all segments of society involved in quality sport activities at all levels and forms of participation...expanding the pool of talented athletes who systematically achieve world-class results...[ensuring] that the essential components of an ethically based, athlete/participant-centered development system are in place and modernized...and that the components of the sport system are more connected and coordinated as a result of the committed collaboration and communication among stakeholders. (CS4L 2005)

In 2012, sport leaders reinforced support for the *CSP 2002* principles by updating the policy to include an expanded vision for 2012–2022, with new goals and a focus on expanded collaboration from stakeholders (Canadian Heritage 2012a). Incorporating best practices from the Vancouver 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Games, the *CSP 2012* builds on the mandate of *CSP 2002* to improve Canadian health, community building, social development, national pride, and civic engagement. The new goals of the *CSP 2012* reflect different contexts of sport engagement and desired outcomes in each: (1) introduction to sport, where Canadians develop fundamental skills, knowledge, and attitudes to participation; (2) recreational sport, where Canadians participate for fun, health, and social interaction; (3) competitive sport, where Canadians systematically improve their performance as measured against others in safe and ethical competition; and (4) high performance sport, where Canadians achieve world-class results through ethical and fair means at the highest levels of competition. A fifth goal and innovation of *CSP 2012* is its recognition of the importance of sport for development, as a “tool for social and economic development, and the promotion of positive values at home and abroad” (Canadian Heritage 2012a). Policy objectives that provide further direction or a “road map” (Canadian Heritage 2012a) for multiple stakeholders at all levels of the sport system are outlined for each goal, aligning closely with the lifespan participation focus of the CS4L movement. The commitment of provincial/territorial and federal governments to the 2012 policy is fundamental to its success (Canadian Heritage 2012a) and, like the *CSP 2002*, is evidenced by reinforced bilateral action and funding agreements of the Federal-Provincial/Territorial Sport Committee (Federal-Provincial/Territorial Priorities for Collaborative Action 2012 2012).

### **24.4.3 Policy on Aboriginal Peoples' Participation in Sport**

The challenging circumstances facing Canada's Aboriginal peoples are alarming. For example, statistics indicate a Type II diabetes rate of 34.1 % in women 55–64 years compared to the national average of 5.4 % for the same non-native group and a dramatic suicide rate among 10–19-year-olds that is five times the national average (Canadian Heritage 2005). Although sport participation is not a cure-all for these and other problems facing Canada's Aboriginal peoples, there is evidence that increased participation in sport can effectively serve the Aboriginal community. Specifically, the Mills Report (Government of Canada 1998) highlights the positive role sport can play in strengthening the emotional, mental, physical, and spiritual aspects of Aboriginal life. Aboriginal sport leaders have also identified youth sport and recreation “as one of the primary means for community wellness: as preventative medicine for the social dilemma that Aboriginal youth face” (Canadian Heritage 2005). The policy acknowledges the existence of barriers to sport participation faced by Canada's Aboriginal peoples, including economic circumstance, cultural insensitivity, diminished coaching capacity, lack of awareness, and lack of infrastructure in the Aboriginal sport system. Its goal is to increase access and equity in sport in line with the principles of the CSP. Initiatives have included coaching apprenticeships at the Canada Games and increased funding for the North American Indigenous Games (Federal-Provincial/Territorial Priorities for Collaborative Action 2007–2012 2007), with a renewed commitment to “work with Aboriginal communities to identify priorities and undertake initiatives for Aboriginal sport development” (Federal-Provincial/Territorial Priorities for Collaborative Action 2012 2012).

### **24.4.4 Policy on Sport for Persons with a Disability**

The most recent data indicate that 14.3 % of Canadians have a disability (Statistics Canada 2006), and the social and emotional health and general well-being of those with activity limitations is significantly impacted compared to able-bodied Canadians (Statistics Canada 2009). Sport is purported to combat many of the physical and emotional issues facing people with a disability (Canadian Heritage 2006). Thus, building on inclusive principles outlined by the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*, the *Human Rights Act*, and the CSP 2002, the *Policy on Sport for Persons with a Disability* (Canadian Heritage 2006) provides a framework for engaging partners and stakeholders in initiating changes to eliminate environmental, structural, systemic, social, and personal barriers preventing persons with a disability from participating in sport. The policy aims to increase participation by raising awareness and providing leadership to increase access to services and programs for disabled athletes in line with the CS4L movement. In support of high performance in particular, the policy aligns with the Paralympics, Special Olympics, and Deaflympics movements, focusing on improved talent identification, competitive opportunities, and enhanced coaching capacity for disabled athletes.



## 24.5 Sport Participation

The *Physical Activity Monitor* is a nationwide survey of Canadians’ sport and physical activity practices, conducted annually by the Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (CFLRI). Data for children (5–14 years) and adults (15 years and older) are available from the 2008 survey and trends since 2004 are reported (CFLRI 2010a, b). The determination of sport participation rates is based on a broad definition of sport as “physical activities that usually involve competition and rules and develop specific skills” (CFLRI 2009).

The sport participation rates of Canadian adults presented in Table 24.1 indicate a decrease from 2004 to 2008, with men continuing to participate at a greater rate than women. The data also indicate that sport participation is inversely related to age. Although not reported here, men in each age group are also more likely to participate than women, with an even more dramatic decrease by age for women (CFLRI 2010b).

Bloom et al. (2005) concluded from their nationwide survey study in 2004 that Canadians participate in a wide variety of sports (almost 100 were identified), yet most focus on just a few. In fact, three-quarters of those involved participate in only one or two sports (Bloom et al. 2005). The most popular sports for adults in 2008 are indicated in Table 24.2. The relative interest in these sports has remained fairly

**Table 24.1** Sport participation rates of Canadian adults (15 years and older; CFLRI 2010b)

	2008	2004
Total adults	30 %	36 %
Men	41 %	47 %
Women	19 %	25 %
15–17 years	68 %	66 %
18–24 years	54 %	59 %
25–44 years	34 %	38 %
45–64 years	20 %	30 %
65 years +	14 %	18 %

**Table 24.2** Sport participation rates of Canadian adults in different sports by age (CFLRI 2009)

	Total	15–17	18–24	25–44	45–64	65+
Ice hockey	25 %	29 %	26 %	32 %	17 %	–
Soccer	18 %	34 %	30 %	18 %	–	–
Golf	16 %	–	–	12 %	31 %	39 %
Baseball/softball	15 %	–	16 %	20 %	10 %	–
Racquet sports	12 %	–	13 %	10 %	16 %	–
Volleyball	9 %	21 %	14 %	7 %	–	–
Basketball	9 %	19 %	16 %	7 %	–	–
Football/rugby	–	13 %	–	–	–	–
Curling	5 %	–	–	–	10 %	20 %

**Table 24.3** Sport participation rates of Canadian children in 2008 (5–14 years; CFLRI 2010a)

	Total	Boys	Girls
Sport participation	75 %	81 %	68 %
Soccer	48 %	47 %	49 %
Ice hockey/ringette <sup>a</sup>	24 %	37 %	5 %
Swimming	15 %	12 %	20 %
Basketball	15 %	13 %	17 %
Baseball/softball	14 %	20 %	6 %
Volleyball	9 %	6 %	13 %

<sup>a</sup>Ringette is a team sport played on ice in which skaters use a straight stick to pass, carry, and shoot a rubber ring to score goals. It was developed in Canada in the early 1960s and is played predominantly by girls and women. There are also associations in the USA and several European countries (Ringette Canada 2013)

consistent over time, with the exception of soccer which dramatically increased in popularity since 2004. Differences by age group are also evident from Table 24.2, with the most popular sports for each age group indicated. Of particular note is the steady involvement of young adults (15–24 years) in hockey and soccer, with a slight increase in hockey and a notable drop off in soccer for 25–34 year olds. Rather, there is an increased interest in golf for this particular age group, which continues to grow with age, along with curling. Although not indicated here, these participation rates are similar for men and women, with the exception that relatively more men are engaged in hockey and relatively more women play volleyball (CFLRI 2009).

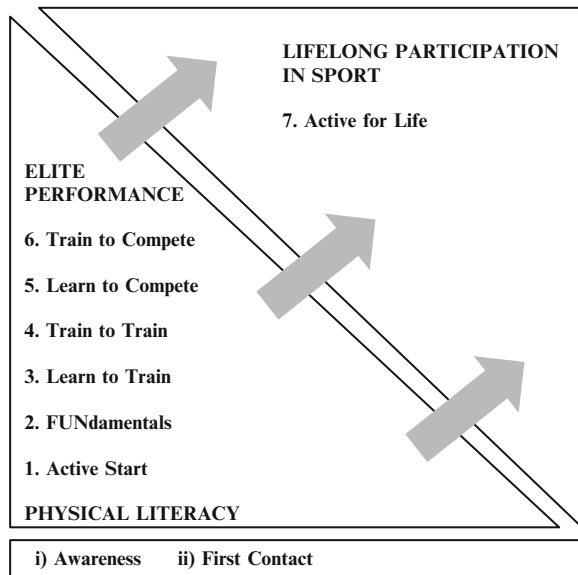
Given the nature of these most popular sports, it is perhaps not surprising that the large majority of Canadian adults who participate in sport do so in a structured environment (86 %; CFLRI 2010c), such as community sport clubs, recreation centers or independent leagues. Notably, 56 % participate solely in such a structured environment where sport is organized, whereas 30 % participate in both structured and unstructured settings. This has remained fairly steady since 2004. Women are more likely than men to participate in sport in a structured environment, while men are more likely than women to participate in unstructured sport. There are generally no differences by age with regard to where adults participate in sport.

The sport participation rates of Canadian children are presented in Table 24.3. In contrast to the adults, the overall participation rate has not changed notably over time (CFLRI 2011a). While a slightly larger proportion of boys than girls participate, no differences by age are apparent. The most popular sports among children are reported, with some variation by gender. Further, younger children (5–9 years) are reportedly more likely to participate in swimming than older children (10–14 years), while the older children are more likely to participate in basketball than the younger cohort (CFLRI 2010a). Similar to adults, the vast majority of children also participate in sport in a structured environment (CFLRI 2011b).

## 24.6 The Long-Term Athlete Development Model

The Long-Term Athlete Development (LTAD) model is a Canadian initiative that provides a framework for the country’s NSOs and PSOs to guide athlete development from early childhood through adulthood. It is a key feature of Canadian Sport for Life (CS4L), a “movement to improve the quality of sport and physical activity in Canada” (CS4L 2011a). Fundamentally, the LTAD promotes physical literacy (defined as childhood mastery of essential movement skills required for sport), elite performance, and lifelong participation in sport.

As represented in Fig. 24.2, the LTAD model guides training, competition, and recovery through seven stages of sport development according to physical growth and emotional maturation rather than chronological age (although approximate age ranges are provided as a guide). The seven progressive LTAD stages are: (1) Active Start, (2) FUNDamentals, (3) Learning to Train, (4) Training to Train, (5) Learning to Compete, (6) Training to Compete, and (7) Active for Life (CS4L 2005). For athletes with a disability, LTAD includes two additional preliminary stages: (i) Awareness, to promote programs for athletes with a disability to the general public and prospective athletes, and (ii) First Contact, to ensure athletes have a positive first experience and are more likely to stay engaged in sport throughout their lives (CS4L 2013). Not only is it a model for athlete development, the LTAD provides a framework for effectively aligning and integrating key stakeholders at all levels of the Canadian sport system (CS4L 2005).



**Fig. 24.2** Long-Term Athlete Development (Adapted from CS4L 2005)

### **24.6.1 Why Long-Term Athlete Development?**

The LTAD was prompted by declining participation rates in recreational physical activity programs, marginalized physical education programs in schools, difficulties identifying and developing the next generation of elite athletes, and poor results at international competitions (CS4L 2005). Identified shortcomings in sport development in the Canadian system pre-LTAD included developmental athletes over-competiting and under-training, preparation geared to short term outcomes (winning), improperly trained fundamental movement skills, knowledgeable coaches working exclusively at the elite level, poorly educated parents, poor integration between physical education programs in schools and community programs, and early specialization (CS4L 2005). As a result, young athletes lacked proper fitness, developed bad habits, did not have fun participating in adult training and competition programs, were pulled in different directions from school/club/provincial teams, and failed to reach optimal performance levels at international competitions (CS4L 2005).

Ultimately, sport leaders in Canada recognized the need for a made-in-Canada system, based on Canadian culture, values, traditions, and geography, that reflects the social, political, and economic realities of Canada. In doing so, those drafting the LTAD referred to earlier athlete development projects across Canada, the successes and failures of athlete development programs in the former East Bloc countries, and sport science support from the areas of pediatric exercise sciences, sport psychology, nutrition, exercise physiology, psychomotor learning, coaching, and organizational development (CS4L 2005).

The outcome is a framework for the holistic development of athletes, which focuses on continued improvement and enjoyment in elite performance and/or life-long participation. The LTAD is a work in progress, constantly evolving as new knowledge and best practices emerge.

### **24.6.2 LTAD Implementation**

The successful implementation of LTAD requires support and action from each level of the sport system. This begins with the development of sport-specific LTAD models at the national level. Between 2005 and 2009 all NSOs that receive funding from Sport Canada began developing their sport-specific LTAD models, with a goal that all would be completed by 2013 (CS4L 2010). For example, Football Canada, the NSO for (Canadian) football, developed *Football for Life* which outlines the organization's goals to grow football in Canada and promote elite development in line with the LTAD framework. Funding from Sport Canada, which earmarks specific funds for LTAD implementation through the Sport Support Program, accelerated the process of NSOs developing their own models. As well, NSOs must demonstrate evidence of progress with the LTAD to be eligible for continued Sport Canada

funding according to the Sport Funding and Accountability Framework (SFAF; Canadian Heritage 2012c).

Following the establishment of sport-specific models at the national level, PSOs are responsible for the next and perhaps most critical steps towards implementation: aligning community sport clubs, the school system, and parents during the early stages of athlete development (CS4L 2005). In the case of Football Canada, for example, the Ontario Football Alliance oversees LTAD-based programs such as 6-a-side football (a modified version of traditional football) for young athletes and offers funding opportunities and coaching development resources to help community sport clubs implement such programs. To ensure LTAD implementation continues at the grassroots level, resources like the *Quality Sport and Physical Activity for all Canadians: Five Year Activation Strategy* provide strategies, goals, and priorities for sport development in Canada moving forward.

### 24.6.3 LTAD Case Study

The CS4L website provides several case studies as examples of the successful implementation of the LTAD at multiple levels of the sport system (CS4L 2011b). One such example is the case of Alain Lefebvre and Quebec Swimming.

Hired as Technical Director for Quebec Swimming, Alain Lefebvre set out to implement LTAD competition and training programs in 80 Quebec swim clubs. Prior to Lefebvre's involvement, Quebec Swimming required swimmers as young as 11 years to achieve standard times to be eligible for competition, forcing premature stroke specialization and discouraging fundamental skill development and learning of other strokes. The competition program Lefebvre implemented rewarded technical skills and introduced time trials at 14 years of age and even then only in the 200 M individual medley; a race that requires four different strokes, forcing swimmers to develop well-rounded skills to compete. As a result of the LTAD-based programs Lefebvre introduced, Quebec has shown a dramatic improvement in both high performance and recreational enjoyment in Quebec swim clubs. As of 2008, 25 % of the Canadian national swim team was comprised of Quebec athletes, provincial and national records were being set at an unprecedented pace, and Quebec swimming clubs were seeing 2–4 % increases in memberships each year. Lefebvre and Quebec Swimming's commitment and implementation of LTAD vaulted them ahead as national leaders in Canadian swimming.

## 24.7 Conclusion

Sport in Canada is characterized by government support and arms-length delivery, with a particular reliance on community sport clubs and schools to provide opportunities for Canadians to participate. Although the primary focus of NSOs is high

performance sport, recent national level policies focus on both elite and recreational sport development. This is at least partly in response to the fact that only three-quarters of children and less than a third of adults are involved in sport. Sport policies and initiatives at the local, provincial/territorial, and national level are aimed at getting and keeping Canadians, and particularly underrepresented groups, involved in sport across the lifespan.

## References

- Alberta Ministry of Tourism, Parks and Recreation. (2012). *Financial statements*. <http://www.tpr.alberta.ca/about/publications/2012/ASRPWF-June-20-2012.pdf>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Athletics Canada. (2010). *Annual report*. <http://athleticsvideos.com/2010AnnualReport.pdf>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Berrett, T. (1993). The sponsorship of amateur sport-government, national sport organization, and corporate perspectives. *Society and Leisure*, 16(2), 323–346.
- Bloom, M. R., Grant, M. W., & Watt, D. (2005). *Strengthening Canada: The socio-economic benefits of sport participation in Canada*. Ottawa: Conference Board of Canada.
- Bobsleigh Canada Skeleton. (2012). *Bobsleigh Canada Skeleton Financial Statements*. [http://www.bobsleighcanadaskelton.ca/en-CA/files/1112Audit\\_Final\\_BDO\\_Jul2012.pdf](http://www.bobsleighcanadaskelton.ca/en-CA/files/1112Audit_Final_BDO_Jul2012.pdf). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Bowls Canada. (2012). *Treasurer's report*. <http://www.bowlsCanada.com/bank/File/2012/DocumentsFiles/Treasurers%20Report.pdf>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canada Revenue Agency. (2013). *Prescribed program*. <http://www.cra-arc.gc.ca/tx/ndvdl/tpcs/nem-tx/rtrn/cmptng/ddctns/Ins360-390/365/prgrm-eng.html>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (CFLRI). (2006–07). *Bulletin 08: Government involvement in sport*. <http://www.cflri.ca/node/365>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (CFLRI). (2009). *Bulletin 03: Sport participation in Canada*. <http://72.10.49.94/node/613>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (CFLRI). (2010a). *Bulletin 07: Children's participation in sport*. <http://72.10.49.94/node/895>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (CFLRI). (2010b). *Bulletin 08: Sport participation rates of Canadian adults*. <http://72.10.49.94/node/128>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (CFLRI). (2010c). *Bulletin 09: Nature and components of sport participation*. <http://72.10.49.94/node/129>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (CFLRI). (2011a). *Bulletin 02: Participation in sport among children and youth*. <http://72.10.49.94/node/904>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (CFLRI). (2011b). *Bulletin 03: Where and how do children participate in sport?* <http://72.10.49.94/node/905>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (CFLRI). (2012). *Bulletin 16: Barriers to children's participation in physical activity*. <http://72.10.49.94/node/1003>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Heritage. (2002). *The Canadian sport policy*. <http://pch.gc.ca/pgm/sc/pol/pcc-csp/2003/pol sport-eng.pdf>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Heritage. (2005). *Sport Canada's policy on aboriginal peoples' participation in sport*. <http://www.pch.gc.ca/pgm/sc/pol/aboriginal/2005/aboriginal-eng.pdf>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Heritage. (2006). *Policy on sport for persons with a disability*. <http://www.pch.gc.ca/pgm/sc/pol/spt/tm-eng.cfm>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Heritage. (2008). *Sport Canada – Mission*. <http://pch.gc.ca/pgm/sc/mssn/index-eng.cfm>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Heritage. (2010a). *Aboriginal programs, policy, and research*. <http://www.pch.gc.ca/eng/1288012444019/1288012444021>. Accessed 11 June 2013.

- Canadian Heritage. (2010b). *Sport Canada*. <http://pch.gc.ca/eng/12662465524271266203097671>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Heritage. (2010c). *Welcome!* <http://pch.gc.ca/eng/1266037002102/1265993639778>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Heritage. (2012a). *Canadian sport policy 2012*. [http://sirc.ca/CSPRenewal/documents/CSP2012\\_EN.pdf](http://sirc.ca/CSPRenewal/documents/CSP2012_EN.pdf). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Heritage. (2012b). *Sport Canada contributions report 2011–2012*. <http://pch.gc.ca/pgm/sc/cntrbtn/2011-12/index-eng.cfm>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Heritage. (2012c). *Sport funding and accountability framework*. <http://www.pch.gc.ca/pgm/sc/pgm/cfrs/index-eng.cfm>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Index of Wellbeing. (2012). *Reflecting Canadian values*. <https://uwaterloo.ca/canadian-index-wellbeing/about-canadian-index-wellbeing/reflecting-canadian-values>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Rugby Union. (2012). *Canadian Rugby Union Financial Statements*. <http://www.rugby-canada.ca/media/leagues/3817/graphics/2011%20Audited%20Financial%20Statements1.pdf>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Soccer Association. (2011). *Annual report*. [http://www.canadasoccer.com/files/CSA\\_2011AR\\_EN.pdf](http://www.canadasoccer.com/files/CSA_2011AR_EN.pdf). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Sport for Life (CS4L). (2005). *Long-term athlete development: Resource paper V2*. <http://canadiansportforlife.ca/resources/canadian-sport-life-resource-paper>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Sport for Life (CS4L). (2010). *Moving forward: Collaboration paper 201–2013*. <http://canadiansportforlife.ca/resources/cs4l-moving-forward-collaboration-paper-2010-2013>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Sport for Life (CS4L). (2011a). *Learn about Canadian sport for life*. <http://canadiansportforlife.ca/learn-about-canadian-sport-life>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Sport for Life (CS4L). (2011b). *Resources: LTAD case studies*. <http://canadiansportforlife.ca/resources/ltad-case-studies>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Canadian Sport for Life (CS4L). (2013). *No accidental champions: Long-term athlete development for athletes with disabilities*. <http://canadiansportforlife.ca/sites/default/files/flipbooks/noaccidental2/NoAccidentalChampions.html#/2/>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). (2013). *The world factbook*. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ca.html#top>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Citizenship and Immigration Canada. (2008). *Policy and legislation concerning multiculturalism*. <http://www.cic.gc.ca/english/department/laws-policy/multi-policy.asp>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- City of Toronto. (2013). *Toronto's racial diversity*. [http://www.toronto.ca/toronto\\_facts/diversity.htm](http://www.toronto.ca/toronto_facts/diversity.htm). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Comeau, G. S. (2012). The evolution of Canadian sport policy. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 5(1), 73–93.
- Conference Board of Canada. (2011). *Analysis of Canadian Sport Policy Renewal (CSPR): F-P/T Government Consultations and e-Survey Data*. [http://www.sirc.ca/CSPRenewal/documents/Conference\\_Board\\_of\\_Canada\\_Final.pdf](http://www.sirc.ca/CSPRenewal/documents/Conference_Board_of_Canada_Final.pdf). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Doherty, A., & Cuskelly, G. (2012). Organizational capacity and anticipated growth in nonprofit voluntary community sport organizations. *Best Paper Proceedings of the 2012 Academy of Management Meeting*. Boston, MA. Available online at <http://program.aomonline.org/2012/reportsasnet/Proceedings.aspx>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Doherty, A., & Misener, K. (2011). *Critical elements of organizational capacity in community sport. Research report*. London: University of Western Ontario.
- Federal-Provincial/Territorial Priorities for Collaborative Action 2007–2012. (2007). <http://www.sirc.ca/CSPRenewal.cfm>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Federal-Provincial/Territorial Priorities for Collaborative Action 2012. (2012). <http://www.sirc.ca/CSPRenewal.cfm>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Government of Canada. (1998). *Sport in Canada: Everybody's business*. <http://www.parl.gc.ca/HousePublications/Publication.aspx?DocId=1031531&Language=E&Mode=I&Parl=36&Ses=1>. Accessed 11 June 2013.

- Government of New Brunswick. (2012). *Physical activity – Active communities grant*. [http://www2.gnb.ca/content/gnb/en/services/services\\_renderer.201013.html](http://www2.gnb.ca/content/gnb/en/services/services_renderer.201013.html). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Government of Nova Scotia. (2012). *Physical activity, sport, and recreation: Tax incentives and grants*. <http://www.gov.ns.ca/hpp/pasr/grants.asp>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Hall, A., Slack, T., Smith, G., & Whitson, D. (1991). *Sport in Canadian society*. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart.
- Imagine Canada. (2006). *A portrait of sports and recreation organizations in Canada*. Toronto: Author.
- Lachance, V. (2007). *Charitable status for sport organizations: Policy implications of the A.Y.S.A. case and further considerations*. <http://www.sportmatters.ca/en/resources-52-charitable-status-for-sport-organizations>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Macintosh, D., Bedecki, T., & Franks, C. E. S. (1987). *Sport and politics in Canada: Federal government involvement since 1961*. Kingston: McGill-Queen's University Press.
- Misener, K., & Doherty, A. (2013). Understanding capacity through the outcomes and processes of interorganizational relationships in nonprofit community sport organizations. *Sport Management Review*, 16(2), 137–147.
- Misener, K., Harman, A., & Doherty, A. (2013). Understanding the local sports council as a mechanism for community sport development. *Managing Leisure*, 18(4), 300–315.
- O'Reilly, N., & Séguin, B. (2009). *Sport marketing: A Canadian perspective*. Toronto: Nelson Education.
- Platt, M. (2013). Rare green oasis lost but the city was right to let McCall Lake golf course go. *Calgary Sun* 12 February. Available at: <http://www.calgarysun.com/2013/02/12/rare-green-oasis-lost-but-the-city-was-right-to-let-mccall-lake-golf-course-go>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Ringette Canada. (2013). *Our sport*. <http://www.ringette.ca/en-us/oursport.aspx>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP). (2010). *Border integrity*. <http://www.rcmp-grc.gc.ca/bi-if/index-eng.ht>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Sportweb. (2005). *Sport organizations*. <http://www.sportweb.ca/Content/Athlete%20Handbook/Sport%20Organizations/01%20Sport%20Organizations.asp?langid=1>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Statistics Canada. (2006). *Persons with disabilities, by age group and sex*. <http://www.statcan.gc.ca/tables-tableaux/sum-som/l01/cst01/health71a-eng.htm>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Statistics Canada. (2009). *Distribution of women and men aged 15 and over, by selected measures of well-being and activity limitations status*. <http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/89-503-x/2010001/article/11545/tbl/tbl012-eng.htm>. Accessed 11 June 2013.
- Statistics Canada. (2013). *French and the Francophonie in Canada*. [http://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2011/as-sa/98-314-x/98-314-x2011003\\_1-eng.cfm](http://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2011/as-sa/98-314-x/98-314-x2011003_1-eng.cfm). Accessed 11 June 2013.
- YMCA Canada. (2013). *Find your YMCA*. <http://www.ymca.ca/en/find-your-ymca.aspx>. Accessed 11 June 2013.



# Chapter 25

## Conclusion

Kirstin Hallmann and Karen Petry

### 25.1 Introduction

The comparative approach of this book is manifested through a similar structure of all chapters dealing with the same issues referring to sport development, systems, participation, and policies. Sport development is executed at different levels around the world and is in different states. It is clearly evident that the four issues analyzed in all countries are highly interrelated, and one aspect cannot easily be discussed without the other aspects. As already described in Chap. 1 of this book, the information provided in the different chapters represents the current state of knowledge and the authors also realized that they contribute to the development of a scientific approach investigating this topic in particular countries. For instance, the chapter about Uganda seems to be the very first evaluation of the four issues for the entire country. Moreover, it was sometimes difficult to stimulate the authors to follow the guidelines and framework, which was developed for this book (as outlined in Fig. 1.1) and to prepare the information as requested.

Consulting the different country chapters, it is evident that there are several differences (but also similarities) regarding how a nation has created, for example, a sport system. It is the purpose of this concluding chapter to summarize, highlight, and sometimes compare the different perspectives on (1) sport systems, (2) financing of sport, (3) sport policies, and (4) sport participation.

---

K. Hallmann (✉) • K. Petry  
Institut für Sportökonomie und Sportmanagement, German Sport University Cologne,  
Am Sportpark Müngersdorf 6, 50933 Köln, Germany  
e-mail: K.Hallmann@dshs-koeln.de

## 25.2 Sport Systems and the Structure of Organized Sport

The frameworks provided by each author, respectively team of authors, being responsible for a country chapter, have been created consciously. Nonetheless, it must be noted that it is a difficult endeavor to standardize within little space a country's sport system. It must clearly be noted that most of the figures presented indicate a simplified version of all interrelationships between different entities. Nonetheless, the frameworks represent a good starting point to compare the different sport systems around the world. Looking at the 23 countries involved in this book, it is simple to draw the conclusion that the national sport systems are highly diverse, and analyzing the structures on national level unfolds a quite sophisticated picture. The 23 case studies in this book make it impossible to give a uniform statement regarding organizations and responsibilities on a national level, and facing such a variety raises the question "why is there still any importance in dealing with sport structures in the different countries at all?" (Steinbach et al. 2004, p. 124). Looking at the different sport systems and understanding the respective national conditions leads to more transparency and helps to understand the unique traditions and roots of a national sport policy.

But when looking at certain types of organizations, it is obvious that we can identify some similarities and differences: At first sight, only one single institutional similarity may be perceived which then on closer look again reveals a multitude of structural differences. On the national level of the (nongovernmental) sport sector, in each and every country, a National Olympic Committee (NOC) has been established, a fact which can be retraced to the specific structures and regulations of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and thus has been implemented worldwide. Furthermore, in several countries, the NOC joins forces with the umbrella body of sport federations as the NOC\*NSF of the Netherlands, for instance, or the DOSB in Germany. In other countries, the NOC and the umbrella body keep separate structures as in the Belgian, the Estonian, and the Hungarian sport system, for example. Furthermore, several NOCs depend on government bodies in respect of financial and/or administrative matters as, for instance, the CNOSF in France and the Chinese Olympic Committee (which is a governmental organization).

In spite of the variety of structures which can also be observed in this respect, it is possible to filter out a few common features in addition to the NOCs in every country. Though the types, numbers, and purviews of the umbrella bodies may vary, there are however sport federations in the countries which act as national representatives of the different sport clubs of a specific sport. The nongovernmental sport sector is not only characterized by institutions on the national level but is essentially founded on the sports clubs on the local level which generally are based on the statutory right to form associations. When we look at the non-European countries, various other forms of grassroots organizations are mentioned: District Sport Organizations in India, Local Sport Councils in South Africa, and Community Organization in the USA, for example.

When it comes to the intermediate structure, there are quite a lot of different organizations with a variety of responsibilities mentioned, such as the following:

- Sport England, which is a non-departmental public body (NDPB), funded by the government, with main responsibility for sport participation and related policy in England
- The Sports Authority of India, which is a unit of the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sport, which recognizes 62 national sports federations (NSF)
- Sport Canada, which is an agency that oversees sport in Canada for the federal government

Besides the differences at the nongovernmental and the intermediate level, the systems also differ regarding the embodiment of sport in the constitution, the government involvement in sport, and the level of decentralization at national, regional, and local level. We can observe that the level of engagement differs between ministries and departments where sport is mentioned, such as the *Ministry of Education and Culture* in Finland, the *Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports* in India, the *Department of Culture, Media and Sport* in England, or the *Ministry of Sport in France*. Another extreme example is Germany, where sport is part of the Ministry of the Interior; Mexico, where the Secretary of Public Education is responsible; or New Zealand (Ministry of Culture and Heritage). Moreover, the different political structures of the countries increase the institutional variety, as the government responsibility in centralist states is organized on national level as, for instance, in China and France, whereas in federal states like Germany, sport lies within the responsibility of the state governments or as in Belgium where sporting issues are a matter of the three language communities.

### 25.3 Financing Sport

As initially outlined, sport can have huge financial impacts, though there is no consensus on its economic magnitude (Howard and Crompton 2005). For instance, in the USA, sport is not designated as one of the major economic sectors and instead scattered among eight sectors as pointed out by Howard and Crompton (2005). This has been acknowledged by a European Union working group “Sport and Economics” who developed an own categorization including (1) a core definition centering on sport businesses such as sport facilities, sport clubs, sport federations, and professional team; (2) a narrow definition including all sorts of services and products associated with sport; and (3) a broad definition consisting of for instance, gambling, broadcasting, and accommodations for sports (e.g., Pawlowski and Breuer 2012). This section covers only the core definition. In general, it is possible to establish four cost and benefit pillars: sport-related direct income (e.g., taxes); societal benefits (e.g., health, integration); sport-related direct expenditure (e.g., public funding of sport); and the abdication of sport income (e.g., subsidies and

tax-exempt) (Pawlowski and Breuer 2012). The focus of this section lies on sport-related direct expenditure.

Not surprisingly, the first conclusion relating to financing sport is again that it differs worldwide and different sources support the sport systems. Sport for All initiatives are costly and governments support sport initiatives implementing sport for All programs. In addition, other institutions like lotteries provide further funding. For-profit organizations mainly receive their revenues through sales (e.g., tickets, broadcasting rights, naming rights, and merchandise; Howard and Crompton 2005), whereas nonprofit organizations rely on multiple revenue categories (Wicker et al. 2012). With regard to organized sports, Wicker et al. (2012) provided a good overview about revenue categories which included among others membership fees, fundraising, catering, donations, corporate sponsorships, public subsidies, and tournament/event fees.

Considering the focus of sport financing of this section (sport-related direct expenditure), it becomes evident that the funding of sport is closely linked to governmental policies. In Europe, sport is considered a part of the welfare state (Heinemann 2005), though even in Europe differences occur, for instance, between the Scandinavian countries and the UK (Rafoss and Troelsen 2010). Heinemann (2005) pointed out that “the integration of sport into governmental welfare policy will become apparent if the sector’s view of itself, its objectives, and the agenda of tasks of a welfare state are borne in mind. According to these, the state is responsible for ensuring that all members of a society are guaranteed minimal physical wellbeing and economic security and that everybody, according to their capabilities, interests and desires, may participate in a society’s social and cultural life” (p. 182).

As we have learned from the chapters, funding of Sport for All programs is since World War II therefore common in many European states (e.g., Belgium, Finland) and while elite sports is also supported. Other nations have first focused on funding elite sports to produce high performance (China) and later supported additionally Sport for All policies.

However, the funding of sports varies – also depending on resources and current policy objectives. Consequently it can be discussed whether it is at all possible and suitable to compare sports funding. The authors are a little reluctant in this regard.<sup>1</sup> In addition, not all funding sources of sport can be identified (and again there are immense variations between countries) which implies that it is not possible to draw any sort of complete picture in this regard. The total sum of funds must furthermore be always considered in the light of the actual population size and whether any bids for mega events like the Olympic Games, soccer, or rugby world cups are ongoing and supported.

Comparing the financial flows within the frameworks of the sport system provided by the authors of the different chapters, it is apparent that a ministry (e.g., Ministry of Sport in Brazil, Ministry of Education and Sports in Uganda, Ministry

---

<sup>1</sup>The authors thought initially to present a table displaying the different funds indicated in the chapters. However, this idea was not realized due to too heterogeneous availability of data jeopardizing any attempt of providing a holistic picture.

of Culture and Heritage in New Zealand, Ministry of Sport and Tourism in Poland, Federal Ministry of the Interior in Germany) or federal department (e.g., Federal Department of Canadian Heritage in Canada, Department of Culture, Media and Sport in the UK) can often be considered the “starting point” of financial flows (or is the starting point in terms of hierarchical relations). These ministries and departments finance a) in most cases a nationwide sporting organization (e.g., Sport Canada, Brazilian Sports Confederation, Japan Sport Council, Hungarian National Sport Institute) and/or the National Olympic Committees and b) sometimes in addition regional governments which provide also funds for local governments (e.g., in Poland, the USA, Mexico). The nationwide sport organizations finance in turn the national sporting federations (e.g., regional federations in Poland). Thus, there can be two financial streams (from the national governmental level down to the local governmental level and from the national governmental level to the intermediary and/or non-governmental structures and then down to the local level). Yet, there are also exemptions from this pattern, for instance, in South Africa where the financial flows are rather on the horizontal lines on the respective national level (from governmental structures toward non-governmental structures at the national, regional, and local levels).

Since the frameworks provide only a simplified overview of the structure and financing flows, not all financial streams were displayed.

### ***25.3.1 Volunteering and its impact on the Sport System***

The contribution of volunteers to the sport system has been documented well as well as their motives to volunteer and related issues (e.g., Cuskelly et al. 2006; Doherty 2009; Breuer and Feiler 2013; Vos et al. 2012; Rowe 2012). The functioning of non-profit sport clubs and provision of sport events would not work without the many volunteers engaging in sports. Consequently, volunteers contribute to the economy though offering their time and labor to sports. The economic impact generated through volunteering has been estimated in several countries. For instance, in Belgium (considering Flanders), it amounts to EUR 420 million, in Finland to EUR 2.3 billion, in Germany to EUR 2.25 billion (at the board level of nonprofit sport clubs only), in the Netherlands to EUR 2.3 billion, in the UK to EUR 2.3 billion, and in New Zealand to EUR 1.3 million.<sup>2</sup>

Not all countries assessed until now the number of volunteers engaged in sport. Yet, it is possible to state that the percentage of volunteers based on the size of the population varies immensely. In Flanders (Belgium) 6.7 % of the population are engaged in voluntary activities relating to sports, in Cyprus 1.3 %, in Estonia 0.9 %, in Finland 10.1 %, in France 5.3 %, in Germany 9.6 %, in Ireland 8.7 %, in the

---

<sup>2</sup>All currencies were transformed to the EUR for reasons of comparison using currency rates as of July 2013 and the numbers are based on information from the country chapters.

Netherlands 9.5 %, in Spain 0.1 %, in the UK 3.2 %, in Australia 7.5 %, in New Zealand 16.9 %, in the USA 0.7 %, and in Canada 11 %. Following these figures, New Zealand can be considered as the country with most voluntary engagement of the countries investigated. Yet, the percentage of people volunteering does not yet indicate the actual amount of voluntary hours which are even more difficult to evaluate. Table 25.1 provides an overview about the data collected from the different chapters and additional sources.

## 25.4 Sport Policies

Looking at sport policies, the focus here is on characteristics only at the national level, and it is clear that the ambition to undertake a comparative analysis of sport policy would explode the purpose of this book. Instead, some major areas of the sport policy in the 23 countries involved will be highlighted. Regarding the overall national sports policy of the nations involved in this book, we can conclude that only a minority of countries do not have a national approach (e.g., the USA, Germany), while most of the countries developed certain policy or strategic papers, such as the following:

- Cyprus: 2020 National Sport Policy
- Finland: Fit for Life Program and the Finish Schools on the Move Program (2010–2015)
- Ireland: Strategy of Sport for 2012–2014
- Poland: Strategy of Sport Development (until 2015)
- England: e.g., “Playing to Win” program
- Japan: Sport Basic Plan “Activating Japan through Sport” (2012–2016)
- Australia: National Sport and Active Recreation Policy Framework
- India: Vision 2020 (High Performance Plan)
- Mexico: National Development Plan (2008–2012)

Looking at the different topics of sport-related programs and interventions in the 23 countries, there is a clear focus on “Sport for All” and “High Performance Sport.” In detail, this includes the following:

### **Sport for All**

- Development and improvement of sport infrastructures
- Programs to increase participation rates
- Local sports partnerships
- Inclusion of disabled persons

### **High Performance Sport**

- Talent planning
- Anti-doping instruments
- Development of top performance centers

**Table 25.1** Voluntary contribution to sports

	Number of volunteers	Inhabitants	Comments
Belgium (Flanders only)	417,000	6,252,000	Population from Government of Vlanders (2010)
Cyprus	12,500	952,000	Sport system heavily based on volunteers; volunteering figures according to GHK (2010); population from Statistical Service (2011)
Estonia	12,000	1,318,000	Volunteering figures according to GHK (2010); population from Statistics Estonia (2012)
Finland	0.53 M	5,246,674	Volunteering figures according to GHK (2010); population from Statistics Finland s(2012)
France	3.5 M	65,800,000	Volunteering figures according to GHK (2010); population from INSEE (2013)
Germany	7.7 M	80,300,000	Economic value refers only to voluntary engagement at the board level (Breuer and Feiler 2013); volunteering figures according to GHK (2010); population from DESTATIS (2011)
Hungary	n/a	9,938,000	One of the lowest volunteering rate in the EU; population from Hungarian Central Statistical Office (2011)
Ireland	0.40 M	4,581,269	Volunteering figures according to GHK (2010); population from CSO (2011)
The Netherlands	1.58 M	16,700,000	118,575 full-time equivalents, population from Statistic Netherlands (2012)
Poland	n/a	38,532,000	Population from Central Statistical Office (2012)
Spain	35,000	46,815,916	Population from INE (2011)
UK	2 M	63,200,000	Volunteering figures according to GHK (2010); calculations based on Sport and Recreation Alliance (2013); population from Office for National Statistics (2011)
China	n/a	1,370,000,000	Volunteering at an early stage compared with European countries; population from China Today (2011)
Japan	n/a	128,075,352	Population from Statistics Bureau of Japan (2010)
India	n/a	1,210,569,573	Population from Census Info (2011)
Australia	1.7 M	22,800,000	Volunteering figures according to ASC (2012); population from Statista (2012)
New Zealand	0.75 M	4,430,000	Volunteering figures according to Sport NZ (2013); volunteers contributed over 50 M hours to sport and recreation in 2007/2008; population from Statistics New Zealand (2012)
South Africa	n/a	51,770,560	Population from Statistics South Africa (2011)
Uganda	n/a	24,200,000	Population from Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2009)
Mexico	n/a	112,336,538	Population from INEGI (2010)
Brazil	n/a	190,000,000	Population from IBGE (2010)
USA	2.3 M	313,914,040	Volunteering figures according to Volunteering and civic Life in America (2013); population from the United States Census (2012)
Canada	11 % of population	34,482,779	Population from Statistics Canada (2011)

- Support for federations, clubs, and for top performance athletes
- Increase international success (e.g., medal plans for Olympics)
- Implement performance measurement systems to monitor progress against strategic outcomes

Furthermore, health-enhancing strategies and programs are in place; gender policy as well as the decrease of economic, social, and cultural barriers of sport participation of children and youth and physical education and school sport are mentioned as “hot topics” within the sport policies.

When it comes to critical aspects, only a few authors mention some challenges of the sport policy in their countries, for example, in China match-fixing and corruption, illegal gambling, and doping are identified as problematic issues. Furthermore, people in rural areas in China did not benefit from the policies for mass sport. Main obstacles for development of physical education and sport in Uganda are poor management and administration, inadequate funding, lack of training facilities and equipment, lack of qualified personnel with modern techniques, and failure of educational institutions to implement physical education and sports programs.

## 25.5 Sport Participation

The difficulty of comparing sport participation research lies within the research itself and how sport participation is defined. In the Australian chapter, participation rates between 24.2 % and 82.3 % were reported and the authors mentioned that the numbers were based on different definitions. In addition, Nicholson et al. (2011) discuss the availability of participation data and issues relating to inconsistent definitions between countries and over time and no coordinating body of any federation being responsible for sport participation. These problems are still prevalent, although there are some initiatives that try to overcome these obstacles – at least within certain regions, for instance, in Europe the “Meeting for European Sport Participation and Sport Culture Research” (MEASURE 2013) which was founded in 2010.

In general, broad definitions including leisurely walking and recreational cycling are used in published research assessing different determinants of sport participation (e.g., Hallmann et al. 2012; Humphreys and Ruseski 2007). Since definitions vary within countries based on the research convenor, it is not a surprise that they vary between countries. In addition, several countries have national participation surveys using identical questions for different waves (e.g., England, Canada, Ireland), while other countries do not have this research base (e.g., Germany, the USA) and other countries might not yet have the resources to conduct surveys in this regard (e.g., India, Mexico).

Based on the available data (see Table 25.2), participation rates vary from approximately one fourth of the population engaging in sports (e.g., China, Hungary, Poland, the UK), to roughly one third of the population being physically active (e.g., Canada, Cyprus, Estonia, the USA), (almost) half of the population taking part in



**Table 25.2** Sport participation

Country	Official national survey (data) available of sports entity	General sport participation rates (in %)	Preferred sports	Comments
Belgium (Flanders only)	Yes	64	Running, recreational cycling, swimming for adults; recreational swimming, soccer, recreational cycling for children and youth	Strong increase in recreational sports participation since the 1970s and only small increase in sport club participation
Cyprus	No	39.8	Walking, gym (e.g., aerobic, Pilates, treadmill), soccer	Rate applies to physical activity in the last 12 months
Estonia	Yes	36	n/a	Rate applies to twice per week
Finland	Yes	90	Walking, cycling, cross-country skiing for adults; soccer, cycling, cross-country skiing for children and youth	Finish people spent 0.41 (men) and 0.36 (women) hours daily on physical and outdoor activities
France	Yes	65–89	Walking, swimming, cycling	89 % people who take part sporadically in sports
Germany	No	60–75	Cycling, swimming, running	53 % of Hungarians are totally inactive
Hungary	No	23	Soccer, cycling, running	Increase of physically active people from 34 % in 2009 to 46 % in 2011
Ireland	Yes	46	Soccer, exercise, running/swimming for male adults; exercising, swimming, dancing/running for female adults	
The Netherlands	Yes	65–75	Fitness, swimming, walking	
Poland	No	25	Cycling, swimming, running/Nordic walking	
Spain	Yes	57	gym (e.g., gym, treadmill), soccer, swimming	57 % practice at least three times per week
UK	Yes	16.5	Gym, swimming, soccer	16.5 % practice three times a week
China	Yes	28.2	Walking, running, badminton/table tennis/tennis	
Japan	Yes	44.5	Strolling, walking, calisthenics, and light exercises	23.5 % practice three times a week

(continued)

Table 25.2 (continued)

Country	Official national survey (data) available of sports entity	General sport participation rates (in %)	Preferred sports	Comments
India	No	n/a	n/a	Approximately 72 crore out of an estimated 77 crore of the population below the age of 35 has little or no access to organized sports and games Range of people taking part in sports depends on how sport participation is defined
Australia	Yes	24.2–82.3	Walking, aerobics/fitness, swimming	Rate applies to previous week (oftentimes when survey was conducted)
New Zealand	Yes	79	Golf, tennis, cricket for adults; rugby, netball, soccer for youth	Sports participation not clearly defined although it is mainly measured by the number of sports participants in the international arena
South Africa	No	n/a	Soccer, exercise walking, road running	Only scarce research relating to sport participation
Uganda	No	n/a	Soccer, athletics, netball/basketball	No overall number exists. 31.2 % is the number of the most performed sport which is exercise walking
Mexico	No	n/a	Soccer, athletics, basketball	
Brazil	No	n/a	Soccer, volleyball, table tennis	
USA	No	Min. 31.2	Exercise walking, exercising with equipment, swimming	
Canada	Yes	30	Ice hockey, soccer, golf	

Terminology of how the sports were named was taken from the different chapters

sports (e.g., Ireland, Japan, Spain), two thirds of the population engaging in sports (e.g., Australia, Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands), and very sport active nations like Finland (90 %) and New Zealand (79 %). But as mentioned, rates vary depending on the definition.

It is evident that in some countries, individual sports that can be performed without any organizational affiliation are preferred, while in other countries team sports are those with the highest participation rates. Individual sports seem to be preferred in Australia, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Japan, the Netherlands, Poland, and the USA. A mixture of individual sports and team sports is in the focus of the resident population in China, Cyprus, Hungary, Mexico, New Zealand, South Africa, Spain, Uganda, and the UK and team sports only in Brazil (see Table 25.2).

## 25.6 Outlook

Having focused on describing differences following an approach developed by Henry and the Institute of Sport Policy and Leisure (2007), it was possible to study divergent perspectives of sport development focusing on the sport system, underlying policies, financial streams, and actual participation rates. Since the status quo is prevalent, the next steps should use qualitative techniques to investigate the reasons for successful (if defined clearly) policies or funding approaches to accelerate, for instance, general sport participation. Comparing rates between countries is not sufficient, motives of the individuals need to be investigated, and how governments can foster those successfully.

Finally, there is a need to make use of a theoretical approach or theorizing the analysis of sport systems, policy, finance, and participation (Houlihan 2014). More comparative studies and research based on the presented book and the description given by the authors can lead to a broader and deeper insight of the national sport systems, policies, financial streams, and participation rates. This demand is resulted from a critical view of what is missing in the presented book, but we strongly believe that starting with the examination of comparable information is the first approach in order to enrich the scientific debate about international sport development.

## References

- ASC. (2012). *Participating in sport*. <http://www.ausport.gov.au/participating/volunteers/about>. Accessed 15 May 2013.
- Breuer, C., & Feiler, S. (2013). Sportvereine in Deutschland – ein Überblick. In C. Breuer (Ed.), *Sportentwicklungsbericht 2011/2012. Analyse zur Situation der Sportvereine in Deutschland*. Köln: Sportverlag Strauß.
- Census Info. (2011). *Final population totals*. <http://www.censusindia.gov.in/2011census/censusinfodashboard/index.html>. Accessed 26 July 2013.

- Central Statistical Office. (2012). [http://www.stat.gov.pl/gus/5840\\_738\\_ENG\\_HTML.htm](http://www.stat.gov.pl/gus/5840_738_ENG_HTML.htm). Accessed 26 July 2013.
- China Today. (2011). *China population data from the 6th census*. [http://www.chinatoday.com/data/china\\_population\\_6th\\_census.htm](http://www.chinatoday.com/data/china_population_6th_census.htm). Accessed 26 July 2013.
- CSO. (2011). *Census of population*. [http://www.cso.ie/en/media/csoie/census/documents/Prelim\\_complete.pdf](http://www.cso.ie/en/media/csoie/census/documents/Prelim_complete.pdf). Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Cuskelly, G., Hoye, R., & Auld, C. (2006). *Working with volunteers in sport. Theory and practice*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- DESTATIS. (2011). <https://www.destatis.de>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Doherty, A. (2009). The volunteer legacy of a major sport event. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 1(3), 185–207.
- GHK. (2010). *Volunteering in the European Union*. [http://www.ec.europa.eu/sport/library/documents/f-studies/volunteering\\_final\\_report.pdf](http://www.ec.europa.eu/sport/library/documents/f-studies/volunteering_final_report.pdf). Accessed 25 July 2013.
- Government of Flanders. (2010). *Population*. <http://www.vlaanderen.be/en/discover-flanders/flanders-figures/population>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Hallmann, K., Wicker, P., Breuer, C., & Schönherr, L. (2012). Understanding the importance of sport infrastructure for participation in different sports – Findings from multi-level modeling. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 12(5), 525–544.
- Heinemann, K. (2005). Sport and the welfare state in Europe. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 5(4), 181–188.
- Henry, I., & Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy. (2007). *Transnational and comparative research in sport – Globalisation, governance and sport policy*. London: Routledge.
- Houlihan, B. (2014). Theorising the analysis of sport policy. In I. Henry & L.-M. Ko (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sport policy* (pp. 11–22). New York: Routledge.
- Howard, D. R., & Crompton, J. L. (2005). *Financing sport*. Morgantown: Fitness Information Technology.
- Humphreys, B. R., & Ruseski, J. E. (2007). Participation in physical activity and government spending on parks and recreation. *Contemporary Economic Policy*, 25(4), 538–552.
- Hungarian Central Statistical Office. (2011). <http://www.ksh.hu/?lang=en>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- IBGE. (2010). <http://www.ibge.gov.br/english/>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- INE. (2011). *Population and housing census 2011*. [http://www.ine.es/en/censos2011\\_datos/cen11\\_datos\\_inicio\\_en.htm](http://www.ine.es/en/censos2011_datos/cen11_datos_inicio_en.htm). Accessed 26 July 2013.
- INEGI. (2010). <http://www.inegi.org.mx/>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- INSEE. (2013). *Bilan démographique 2012*. [http://www.insee.fr/fr/themes/document.asp?reg\\_id=0&ref\\_id=ip1429](http://www.insee.fr/fr/themes/document.asp?reg_id=0&ref_id=ip1429). Accessed 26 July 2013.
- MEASURE. (2013). *Intro*. <http://www.measuresport.eu/intro>. Accessed 29 July 2013.
- Nicholson, M., Hoye, R., & Houlihan, B. (2011). Conclusion. In *Participation in sport – International policy perspectives*. London: Routledge.
- Office for National Statistics. (2011). *2011 census, population and household estimates for the United Kingdom*. <http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/census/2011-census/population-and-household-estimates-for-the-united-kingdom/index.html>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Pawlowski, T., & Breuer, C. (2012). *Die finanzpolitische Bedeutung des Sports in Deutschland*. Wiesbaden: Springer Gabler.
- Rafoss, K., & Troelsen, J. (2010). Sports facilities for all? The financing, distribution and use of sports facilities in Scandinavian countries. *Sport in Society*, 13(4), 643–656. doi:10.1080/17430431003616399.
- Rowe, N. F. (2012). An examination of the importance and satisfaction sports participants attach to volunteering support contextualized within a broader measure of satisfaction with the quality of the sporting experience. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 4(2), 159–172. doi:10.1080/19406940.2012.656680.
- Sport NZ. (2013). *Volunteers*. <http://www.sportnz.org.nz/en-nz/Information-For/Volunteers/>. Accessed 25 July 2013.
- Sport and Recreation Alliance. (2013). *Sport and recreation in the UK – Facts and figures*. <http://www.sportandrecreation.org.uk/lobbying-and-campaigning/sport-research/UK-fact-figures>. Accessed 22 July 2013.

- Statista. (2012). <http://www.statista.com/statistics/19291/total-population-of-australia/>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Statistic Netherlands. (2012). <http://www.cbs.nl/en-GB/menu/home/default.htm>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Statistical Service. (2011). [http://www.cystat.gov.cy/mof/cystat/statistics.nsf/index\\_en/index\\_en?OpenDocument](http://www.cystat.gov.cy/mof/cystat/statistics.nsf/index_en/index_en?OpenDocument). Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Statistics Bureau of Japan. (2010). *Population count based on the 2010 census released*. <http://www.stat.go.jp/english/data/kokusei/pdf/20111026.pdf>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Statistics Canada. (2011). *Population*. <http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/12-581-x/2012000/pop-eng.htm>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Statistics Estonia. (2012). *Estonian estimated population adjusted*. <http://www.stat.ee/57648>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Statistics Finland. (2012). *The share of foreign-language speakers in 2012 population growth was 87 per cent*. [http://tilastokeskus.fi/til/vaerak/2012/vaerak\\_2012\\_2013-03-22\\_tie\\_001\\_en.html](http://tilastokeskus.fi/til/vaerak/2012/vaerak_2012_2013-03-22_tie_001_en.html). Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Statistics New Zealand. (2012). <http://www.stats.govt.nz>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Statistics South Africa. (2011). *Census 2011*. <http://www.statssa.gov.za/Census2011/Products.asp>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Steinbach, D., Ternes, E., & Petry, K. (2004). Sport structures in the countries of the European Union. In W. Tokarski, D. Steinbach, K. Petry, & B. Jesse (Eds.), *Two Players – one goal? Sport in the European Union* (pp. 119–126). Aachen: Meyer and Meyer.
- Uganda Bureau of Statistics. (2009). <http://www.ubos.org/>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- United States Census. (2012). *State and county QuickFacts*. <http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/00000.html>. Accessed 26 July 2013.
- Volunteering and Civic Life in America. (2013). *Volunteering and civic engagement in the United States. Trends and highlights overview*. <http://www.volunteeringinamerica.gov/national>. Accessed 29 July 2013.
- Vos, S., Breesch, D., & Késenne, S. (2012). The value of human resources in non-public sports providers: the importance of volunteers in non-profit sports clubs versus professionals in for-profit fitness and health clubs. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 11(1/2), 3–25.
- Wicker, P., Breuer, C., & Hennigs, B. (2012). Understanding the interactions among revenue categories using elasticity measures—Evidence from a longitudinal sample of non-profit sport clubs in Germany. *Sport Management Review*, 15(3), 318–329. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2011.12.004.